

AN
IMPROVED GRAMMAR

OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE,

ON THE
INDUCTIVE SYSTEM;

WITH
WHICH ELEMENTARY AND PROGRESSIVE LESSONS
IN COMPOSITION ARE COMBINED.

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES,
AND PRIVATE LEARNERS.

BY REV. BRADFORD FRAZEE,
LATE PRINCIPAL OF ELIZABETH FEMALE ACADEMY, WASHINGTON, (MISS.)

SECOND EDITION.

PHILADELPHIA:
SORIN AND BALL.
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.....
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RECOMMENDATIONS.

From the Hon. President of the Board of Regents of the University of Michigan.

I have examined, with some care, a manuscript Grammar of the English Language, written by the Rev. Mr. Frazee, of which, as a school book, I have formed a highly favorable opinion. The simplicity of his general arrangement, the clearness and distinctness of his definitions in the more elementary portions of the work, the pains taken throughout to cause the learner to educe for himself and apply the general principles, together with his copious notes and numerous illustrations, make it, in my opinion, preferable to any other work of the kind already extant,

Z. PITCHER, M. D.,

Prest. of Board of Education, Detroit.

Detroit, August 1, 1843.

I fully concur in the above recommendation.

JOHN S. ABBOTT,

Secretary of Board of Education.

Detroit, Oct. 10th, 1843

I concur in the above recommendation.

L. SCOTT, A. M.,

Pastor of the M. E. U. Church, Philadelphia.

Philadelphia, Dec. 22d, 1843.

The undersigned, members of the Committee on School Books of the Board of Education of the City of Detroit, have examined, with considerable care, the manuscript of a system of English Grammar, prepared by the Rev. Bradford Frazee, of the State of Michigan, and which he proposes to publish, and take much pleasure in furnishing to the author an expression of their approval of a work upon which he has evidently expended much labor and research. The Grammar in question is, in many respects, an improvement upon any work of the kind yet published for the use of schools, and develops a system of teaching English Gram-

(ii)

mar far preferable to any that has come under our observation. In the choice of a Grammar for the use of the schools under the direction of our Board, we shall, whenever Mr. Frazee's Grammar is published, give it a preference over any other now in use, and have no doubt it will be adopted by the Board as the book above all others, best fitted for the use of our schools.

JOHN S. ABBOTT,
SAMUEL BABSTOW.

From Hon. H. Chipman, late Judge of Criminal Court, Detroit.

I have examined the system of English Grammar, by the Rev. Bradford Frazee, and am induced to think very favorably of it. Mr. Frazee appears to have bestowed much industry and research in the composition of his work, and shows a critical knowledge of the first principles of language; at the same time, his method and illustrations are so simple and perspicuous, as to lead the learner on, step by step, not only to learn the absolute rules, but almost insensibly to understand the principles upon which the rules are founded. The plan is synthetical and inductive, so arranged and explained that youthful capacities can clearly comprehend it, while the maturer mind may find in it much instruction in what may properly be called the philosophy of language. I conceive that this work might very advantageously be introduced, as an elementary book, into the public schools.

HENRY CHIPMAN.

Detroit, August 1, 1843.

In a notice of this Grammar, "THE NORTH AMERICAN" says, "The perusal of a few pages has impressed us very favorably regarding the plan and execution of it. The definitions are precise and clear, and the explanations level to any capacity."

Philadelphia, January 11th, 1844.

"THE SATURDAY COURIER," in a notice of this work, remarks that, "The author appears to be thoroughly conversant with his subject, and imparts his knowledge with remarkable freedom and perspicuity. The matter is peculiarly adapted to the unpractised mind of the learner, and its lucid, practical philosophy is evident at every page."

Philadelphia, Jan. 13th, 1844.

The following from *Rev. Mr. Filmore*, will receive much credit where he is known.

"Having examined the system of English Grammar by Rev. Mr. Frazee, I am induced to think of it very highly. The clear-

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ness of the definitions, in its more elementary parts, and the perspicuity of its whole arrangement, on the true Pestalozzian system, render it, in my opinion, the best work extant for instruction in this science.

"A. N. FILMORE.

"Buffalo, April 22d, 1844."

"Having examined, with some care, a System of English Grammar, prepared by Rev. Bradford Frazee, we are led to believe that it is an improvement upon the grammars now in use; in the philosophy of the arrangement—the correctness of the definitions—the clearness of the illustrations, by the introduction of appropriate examples and exercises, at every step of the pupil's progress, and in the *Inductive Method* in which the principles of the science are taught; giving the *reasons* of the Rules of Syntax, so that the pupil is led on in an easy, natural manner, to a thorough knowledge of the analysis of the language.

AMBROSE S. TODD, J. W. ALVORD,
GEO. BROWN, WM. T. BAKER,
CHAUNCY AYRES, M. D., NATH'L E. ADAMS,
ALEX. N. HOLLY, WM. T. MINOR,

"Board of Visitors."

"Stamford, Conn., June 29th, 1844."

"I fully concur in the above opinion of Rev. Mr. Frazee's Grammar, and would further say, it has been adopted in this Institution.

"C. MARCELLUS DOW.

"Principal of Stamford Institute."

"Stamford, Conn., June 29th, 1844."

"The views expressed in the above recommendation of Mr. Frazee's Grammar are substantially my own; and I can cheerfully say that, in my opinion, it contains some valuable improvements found in no other that I have seen.

"JAMES H. COFFIN,

"Principal of Norwalk Academy."

"Norwalk, Conn., July 5th, 1844."

"We have examined Mr. Frazee's Grammar, and fully concur in the opinion expressed above by the Stamford Board of Visitors.

ELBRIDGE PURINGTON, BENJ. R. DAVIS,
JOHN B. STARR, S. W. CHAMBERLAIN,

"Teachers in Norwalk, Conn."

"July 5th, 1844."

(iv)

"After examination of a Grammar of the English Language by Rev. Bradford Frazee, we, the undersigned, take pleasure in expressing our approbation of his arrangement and general principles; and conceiving that he has supplied an *important desideratum* in instruction in that department of education, we do *resolve*, as members of the Board of Visitors of the Stratfield School Society, (Bridgeport, Conn.,) agreeable to the provisions of the law on Common Schools, to adopt the said Grammar in the schools of the above Society.

"SAML. BEACH, J. LEONARD GILDER,
J. H. HUNTER, HENRY OLMSTEAD,
W. R. BUNNELL, Board of Visitors.
"Bridgeport, Conn., July 12th, 1844."

"Philadelphia, August 14th, 1844.

"GENT:—I have carefully examined the Rev. Mr. Frazee's System of English Grammar, recently published by you, and am of the opinion that, in many respects, a decided improvement has been made upon the grammars in use; especially in its philosophical arrangement, the correctness and perspicuity of the definitions and rules, its general simplicity, the minute and thorough illustration of the subject, in the copiousness of the rules of syntax, and, most of all, in the *really inductive* method of instruction. The system of elementary composition, which is combined with the elements of the science, is, I think, an improvement upon any plan I have seen on this subject. Upon the whole, I consider the work the best adapted for use in our Common Schools of any system of grammar with which I am acquainted.

"Respectfully,

"W. W. WOOD,

"Principal of the S. W. Grammar School.

"MESSRS. SORIN & BALL."

"We concur in the above recommendations.

"WM. ROBERTS,

"Principal of the Moyamensing Grammar School."

"SAMUEL F. WATSON,

"Principal of the Catharine street Male Grammar School.
"Philadelphia, August 15th, 1844."

(v)

Additional names, subscribed to the recommendation of J. O. Taylor, and others on the cover.

Wm. Kennedy, Principal of 17th Ward Gram. School.

Abm. K. Van Vleck, Principal of Pub. Gram. School, No. 16.

S. Durand, Principal of 5th Ward Gram. School.

Jno. W. Ketchum, Principal of Pub. Gram. School, No. 7.

John H. Fanning, Principal of Pub. Gram. School, No. 13.

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J. M. Bird, Prin. of Lombard st. Gram. School, Philad'a.

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W. M. Rice, Prin. of Classical School, Cherry st., Philad'a.

Andrew Crozier, Principal of Reid st. Gram. School, Philad'a.

L. Rhoads and S. Nourse, Teachers in Lancaster Gram. School, Pa.

E. H. Jenny, A. M., Principal of New York Institute.

John M. Reid, late Prin. of Mechanic's Inst. Gram. School.

Chas. S. Pell, Principal of Pub. Gram. School, No. 8.

N. W. Starr, Principal of Pub. Gram. School, No. 10.

M. C. Tracy, Principal of Mechanic's Inst. Gram. School.

M. N. Olmsted, Principal of Willet st. Academy.

Wm. Miller, Principal of a Select School, Allen st.

B. Fowler, Principal of a Select School, Bedford st.

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Chas. S. Stone, Principal of Carlisle High School, Pa.

A. T. W. Wright, M. D., Prin. of Model Gram. School, Phila.

N. H. McGuire, Principal of Coates st. Gram. School, Phila.

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J. M. Coleman, Prin. of N. Market st. Gram. School, Phila.

W. W. Wood, Principal of S. E. Gram. School, Philad'a.

D. R. Ashton, Principal of Young Ladies' Institute, Phila.

D. Kirkwood, Principal of Lancaster High School.

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PREFACE.



A New Grammar of the English language, will, often without examination, be pronounced, by the superficial grammarian, a *mere compilation*; but those who are acquainted with modern philology; and those who understand the discrepancy between the present state of the science of practical grammar, and the most approved methods of instruction, are prepared to expect something *more*, from an author whom they judge capable of availing himself of the facilities offered, and of adapting them to the *interests* of education.

The work now offered to the public, is claimed as an improvement upon the grammars in use, in the following features, among others.

1. The arrangement and distribution of the topics of Etymology and Syntax, render the subject strictly *progressive* and *practical*. The noun is first treated, because it is the only kind of words that make sense by themselves, hence, the only kind that a beginner can understand. The verb is the second part of speech treated. With the noun and verb, the pupil can form a proposition or sentence: then the pronoun—with the pronoun and verb, he can form a sentence; then the adjective, which adds an idea to the name or subject of the sentence; then the adverb, which adds an idea to the verb or affirmation of the sentence: then the preposition, &c. The doctrines of syntax are arranged on a similar plan. This arrangement is founded upon *nature*, and therefore *philosophical*. Every step the pupil takes in the subject, prepares him to understand the next, and immediately to combine it with what has gone before.

In syntax, only one rule is given on any one general principle, all the *peculiar applications* of the doctrine being included in *notes* or *secondary rules* under it. This plan places all the applications of a syntactical doctrine under the same head. The pupil is required to learn the *rules*, and practice upon them thoroughly, *omitting the notes* till the review. This plan, and method of instruction, avoid the confusion consequent upon teaching the great and leading application of a doctrine and its *peculiar* applications at the same time, and upon giving them the same rank and importance in syntax.

Particular pains have been taken to have every item distinct, and to avoid confounding or commingling the doctrines of different parts of grammar. When a doctrine of etymology is explained, upon which a syntactical doctrine is founded, the induction is immediately stated, and the doctrine or *rule* of syntax, *educated* and specified as such.

2. The science is simplified more than usual, without diluting it or rendering it puerile.

3. The definitions and rules are much more *accurate* and *precise* than in the grammars now in use. It is said by a large and very competent committee in the city of New York, that "There is scarcely any part of the popular grammars so open to criticism as the definitions and rules. They are too often loose, crude and incorrect. They are defective or redundant, inconsistent or contradictory, ambiguous or false. Definitions, like axioms, should be faultless, true and intelligible."*

In the composition of this work, the subject has been patiently investigated, for the purpose of attaining the strictest accuracy possible.

4. The scope of the syntax is commensurate with the language. I have collected all the correct syntactical doctrines of the grammars to which I have had access, and supplied some deficiencies found in all of them; and the whole has been

* See Report on English Grammar, of the Executive Committee of "The American Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge."

wrought into a thorough *digest of Syntax*; by which all good English can be parsed, without torturing it by transpositions or interpolations, or grouping the words off in "adverbial phrases," or in any other wholesale manner.

5. The subject is more distinctly and thoroughly illustrated than usual, by the use of clear and appropriate examples and exercises *at every step of the pupil's progress*.

6. The most important and distinguishing feature of improvement, is the *method of instruction*. *The greatest and most embarrassing defect of the grammars in use is their improper and antiquated system of instruction.* Grammar has been permitted to fall in the rear of other sciences in this respect. *Induction*—the *great element* of school instruction at the present day—may be set down as *unknown*, or very nearly so, in the grammar class. The common method is to teach the pupil *words*, primarily and mainly, instead of *ideas*; and to teach the *rules* in an *arbitrary* manner, without attempting to give the reasons of them: thus depending more on the memory than the understanding. It is this method of instruction that renders grammar "such a dry study," and produces so few good grammarians among the thousands engaged in it.

Rules in science are the abstractions of cultivated minds, therefore it is impossible to understand them well without knowing the *course of reasoning* or the *classification of facts* that has produced them.

The mode of instruction adopted in this work, is, first to teach the pupil the *idea*, and illustrate it plainly, and then exercise him thoroughly upon it, *before* this preparatory training, *requires him to commit the words to memory.* This method of teaching saves the pupil more than half of the irksome toil of committing to memory, on the old plan, and he understands his subject much better. He is taught the rules of syntax by *regular induction*, on a plan similar to the approved method of teaching arithmetic. In this way he easily comprehends the *reason* and *force* of the rules, therefore, they are much more

easily applied by the understanding, and retained in the memory.

The attention of the pupil is confined to a single point, and he is exercised upon it *exclusively*, until he understands it; and then he is required to combine it with what has gone before, and practice upon the whole; but not allowed to extend the exercise to any thing which he has not learned.

A well digested system of elementary composition is here combined with the elements of grammar. This, so far as I know, has, hitherto, been a desideratum.

and so combined, as to combine the two branches mutually to promote the acquisition of each other. These lessons, instead of following the beaten track of *thinking for the pupil*, by furnishing him with lists of words and broken sentences, *teach him how to think* for himself and write his own lists of words and broken sentences. When he writes words on this plan, he knows what they are.

In preparing this system of grammar, the following works on philosophical grammar, have been consulted. Harris's *Hermes*, Monboddo, Cobbett's *Grams*. Lewis' *An. Outlines &c.* Tooke's *Purley*, De Sacy, *Encycl. Brit.*—Edin. *Encycl.* (Brewster's) Crombie's *Syntax*, Webster's *Grams*. Latham's *Gram.* and others. And on the *Grams* besides the grammars in common use, Ben Jonson, *Howan*, Andrew, Buchanan, Lennie, Sutcliffe, Richard Hiley, and others of Europe: and Alexander, Comley, Chandler, Cardell, Cooper, Alger, Pond, Fowle, Frost, Green, Hull, Ingersol, Nutting, Parkhurst, Pickett, Brace, Goodenow, Parker and Fox, Pierce, Wright, Hazen, Cornell, Pue and others of our own country.

I embrace this opportunity to acknowledge my obligation to Rev. Preston Cooper, of whom I received some valuable ideas on the induction of grammar.

PHILADELPHIA

AN IMPROVED GRAMMAR.

‡.* ENGLISH GRAMMAR is that science which teaches the structure of the English Language.†

The science consists of a System of Principles and Rules: some of which are founded on the natural distinctions and relations of words, and others, on the arbitrary authority of *usage*.

‡. Grammar is divided into four parts; Orthography, Etymology, Syntax and Prosody.

Orthography teaches the sounds and use of the letters, and the correct method of spelling words.

Etymology treats of the different classes of words, their derivation, and their various inflections and changes, to express gender, person, number, case, time and manner.

Syntax is a system of rules for the construction of sentences.

Prosody teaches the pronunciation of words, and the laws of versification.

* The portions marked thus (‡) are to be omitted till the review.

† Let the beginner commence on the 16th page.

‡ ORTHOGRAPHY.

The elements of the English language, *spoken*, consists of *thirty-six primitive sounds and articulations*; and these are represented by the twenty-six letters of the alphabet, which constitute the elements of the language *written*.

These elementary sounds are divided into *five* vowel sounds; *eleven* diphthongal sounds, and *twenty* articulations.

NOTE 1. An *Articulation* is a *joint*; and therefore, an *articulate* sound is a *jointed* sound.

NOTE 2. Spoken Language consists of *vowel* and *diphthongal sounds*, variously connected by *articulations* or *joints*.

REMARK 1. The Power of connecting sounds by articulations or joints, is a peculiar *characteristic* and *privilege* of man above the mere animal creation.

REMARK 2. And hence, he who *articulates the best*; i. e. the *most DISTINCTLY*, rises the highest in this *DISTINGUISHING ABILITY*.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE LETTERS.

Vowels and Diphthongs.

E,* and w,† are always vowels.

I, O, and y,‡ are sometimes vowels, and sometimes diphthongs.

A, and u, are always diphthongs.

The rest are consonants or articulations.

* EXCEPTION. E seems to have a diphthogal sound (like the sound of *y* in *ye*) in some words; as in *ewer*, *ewry*, *eulogy*, *Europe*, *eucharist*, *truncheon*, *righteous*, &c.

† W is usually represented by *oo*, in illustrating its sound, and therefore it is *properly a vowel*, because it has the sound of *oo*, which is a vowel sound. "W is also a vowel." Webster's Speller, p. 8. "W is properly a vowel." Webster's 4to Dic.

‡ Y seems to be, *improperly*, called a consonant when it begins a word or syllable; as in *year*, *beyond*.

A consonant represents an articulation, which is formed by closing the organs; but this sound of *y*, is commenced with the organs *open*, (tho' close like long *e*) and uttered by *opening* them *wider*, with a quick muscular motion; as *ye*: and therefore it is properly a *diphthongal sound*, and

The vowel sounds are produced with the organs open, and without changing their position.

The diphthongal sounds differ from the vowel sounds, in requiring the position of the organs to be *changed*, but without closing them, during their utterance; by which they are known *not* to be *simple*, but *compound sounds*: some of which are represented by single letters; as, *i*, in *fine*; *u*, in *tube*; and others by two, in one syllable; as *oi*, in *toil*; *ou*, in *count*.

A *digraph* is two vowels in a syllable, when only one is sounded; as *ea* in *eagle*; *oa* in *boat*, &c.

NOTE. The *digraphs* are so various that no general rules can be given for their pronunciation.

A *triphthong* is a union of three vowels in one syllable; as *ieu* in *adieu*.

not an articulation; and hence; *y*, the letter representing it, should be called a *diphthong*.

Y has the same sound in *year*, *yankee*, *beyond*, &c., (where it is called a consonant) that *i* has in *valiant*, *alien*, *union*, *familiar*, *junior*, &c., and *e* has the same sound in *Europe*, *eulogy*, *eucharist*, *ewer*, *ewry*, *puncheon*, *truncheon*, *righteous*, &c., and *u*, in *use*, *union*, &c.

Now if this sound is an articulation, then all the letters which represent it; to wit, *e*, *i*, *u* and *y*, should be called *consonants*, or *articulations*, in all such situations; but if it is a *diphthongal sound*, then *y* should not be called a consonant in any place.

Many writers on Orthography call *y* a consonant, at the beginning of words and syllables, and then use it in the same situation to represent the sound of *e*, *i* and *u*: that is, they use a *consonant* to represent a *vowel sound*, according to their own principles. G. Brown's Gram. p. 30. Also, Walker's large Dic., Principles, &c., p. 16, and the words *ewer*, *ewe*, *alien*, *union*, *companion*, *dernier*, and many others.

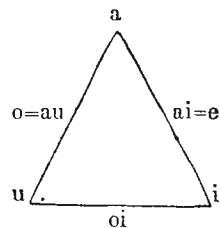
Mr. Walker says, (in his direction to foreigners, prefixed to his large Dictionary, p. 12,) that "*w* is no more than the French diphthong *ou*; thus, *West* is equivalent to *Ouest*, and *wall* to *ouall*:" and that "*y* is perfectly equivalent to the French letter of that name, and may be supplied by *i*; thus, *yoke*, *you*, &c., are expressed by *ioke*, *iou*, &c.," and then four pages after, he lays it down as an established doctrine, "that *y* and *w* are *consonants* when they begin a word." Such a contradiction needs no comment.

Y is a vowel "sometimes at the beginning of a syllable, as in *beryl*, *paroxysm*." Cobb's Speller, p. 163.

Utterance.

The sound of *a* is less artificial, and more easily produced, than any other sound in the composition of speech. It consists of a mere emission of voice through the unclosed lips, with a slight and very natural change in the position of the organs, to produce the vanish. On this account this sound is represented by the first letter in the alphabet of nearly every nation that has an alphabet.

The sound of *u* requires the greatest approximation of the corners of the mouth, in its utterance; and the sound of *i* requires greater horizontal dilation of the mouth than any other sound in the language. These are the extremes of vowel and diphthongal sounds, between which all others range; as illustrated by the following diagram.



The sounds represented on the left side of the diagram, are produced by contracting the mouth horizontally from its natural position, in which the sound of *a* is uttered, to its greatest contraction, which is required in uttering the sound of *u*; and those on the right, by dilating the mouth in a similar manner. The sound of *oi* requires a union of the two extreme positions, in its utterance.—[See Nordheimer's Heb. Gram.]

Consonants.

The consonants represent *joints*, or *interruptions* of sound; formed by closing the organs more or less.

NOTE 1. The common definition of *consonant* is, "a letter which cannot be fully sounded without the help of a vowel." This definition is very inaccurate; for all the consonants that have any sound, *can* be sounded *without* a vowel; and secondly, some of them are *mutes*, that is, they have *no* sound at all, and therefore cannot possibly be sounded with any character.

NOTE 2. It will be perceived by the preceding note, that *consonant* is a very *inappropriate* name for this class of letters.

"The consonants are better called *articulations*." See Webster's 4to Dic., word consonant.

Classification.

The *consonants* or *articulations*, are of several kinds, and the following classification will exhibit their real character, instead of some *mere* circumstance respecting them.

The first class comprises those in which the *voice is heard*; and therefore they may be called *vocal* consonants.

The second class includes those in which a hissing sound is heard; produced by the mouth, *without the voice*; hence they may be called the *hissing consonants* or *articulations*.

The third class of articulations, includes those in which a breathing is heard, but no sound; and hence they may be called *breathing* articulations.

The fourth class, comprises the articulations which entirely interrupt the passage of the breath, and consequently all sound, and hence they may be called *mutes*.

ANALYSIS OF SOUNDS.

The following is an analysis of the elementary sounds and articulations of the English language, together with their principal representatives.*

NOTE 1. Care should be taken to distinguish between the *name* and *sound* of a consonant. *E, g, be* is the name of a letter. To produce the sound of *b*, leave the sound of *e* out of the name, and the balance of sound in the name is the sound of *b*. A little careful practice in this way will enable the pupil to produce *separately* all the articulations represented by the consonants.

NOTE 2. Some of the articulations are formed by the throat, hence called *gutturals*, by some authors, as those represented by *g* and *k*; and others are formed by the lips, hence called *labials*; as those represented by *b* and *m*. These are the extremes between which most articulations are formed. It is a very useful exercise to produce the articulations, with particular attention to the organs of speech most employed in their formation.

* "The material of language, when it is *sounded*, is capable of analysis into a definite number of simple elements."—[Brande's Encycl. Art. Gram.]

MONOTHONGS OR VOWELS.

1. Long e, as in me, edict.
2. Close e, as in err.
3. Short e, as in step, bet, end.
4. Short i, as in pit, in.
5. Close o, as in move; w, in water; u, in bush.

DIPHTHONGAL SOUNDS.

6. Long a, as in sale, late.
7. Short a, as in mat, can.
8. Broad a, as in fall, call; o, in lot, stop.
9. Italian a, as in father, palm, arm.
10. Long i, as in pine, define.
11. Long o, as in vote, hope.
12. Long u, as in tube, cure.
13. Short u, as in tub, nut.
14. Oi and oy, as in toil, joy.
15. Ou and ow, as in count, town.
16. Y; as in year, yankee; e in ewer, eulogy; and i in union.

ARTICULATIONS.

First Class. Vocal Articulations.

17. B, as in balm.
18. D, as do, aid.
19. F, and v, as in of, vale.
20. G, hard, as in go, gave, tug.
21. G, s, and z, as zh, as in rouge, vision, azure.
22. L, as in lawn, lilly.
23. M, as in man, mammon.
24. N, as in not, national.
25. N, as ng, as in rank, uncle, sing.
26. R, as in river, rarity.
27. Th, vocal, as in those, rather.
28. Z, as in zeal, and c, s, and x, as in suffice, wise, Xenia.

Second Class. Hissing Articulations.

29. C, soft, and s, as in civil, sun.
30. C, s, t, ch, and sh, as in ocean, sure, nuptial, machine, shad.

Third Class. Breathing Articulations.

31. F, ph, and gh, as in fife, sphere, laugh.
32. H, as in hard, annihilation.
33. Th, aspirate, as in thin, path.

Fourth Class. Mute Articulations.

34. C and ch, hard, k and q, as in cause, chord, kind, queen.
35. D, as t, as in faced, art.
36. P, as in pipe, poplar.

Remarks.

The monothongs or vowels will be understood as falling under the usual definition. Some of the diphthongs need illustration.

The diphthongal character of long *a* may be easily perceived by protracting its sound in the syllable *ra*. The first part of the sound of *a* is the nominal sound of this letter, and the last part is the sound of *e*, heard in *me*, and there is the difference of a tone between them, through which the voice rises by a concrete movement. The first is uttered with fulness of voice, hence Dr. Rush calls it the "radical;" and the last is uttered with feebleness of voice, diminishing to the close, hence called by the same author the "vanish." This sound of *a* will be still more apparent by uttering the syllable *ra* with the earnest and protracted interrogation of great surprise. In this case the interval between the "radical" and "vanish" will be much more than a tone. Again: let *a* and *e* be sounded as notes on the scale, with a slight pause between them, and *e* one tone above *a*, until their relation is perceived, and then sound them in a concrete movement.

In the other sounds of *a*, as in *awc*, *art*, *an*, the radical of each is the sound on which the voice opens in the words respectively, and the vanish of each is the sound of *e* in *err*. The vanish in each of these is very faint, but it can be distinctly perceived by employing the words severally in earnest interrogation, in which the sound of *a* will terminate at a high pitch in a feeble sound of *e* in *err*.

I in *isle* has its own peculiar radical, and its vanish is *e* in *me*.

O in *ode*, has its own peculiar radical, and its vanish is the sound of *oo* in *ooze*.

U in *rule*, has its own proper radical, and its vanish is the sound of *oo* in *ooze*.

U in *tub*, has its own peculiar radical, and its vanish is the same as in *rule*.

Y is a monothong when followed by a consonant in the same syllable, as in system, paroxysm; but at the end of syllables, it is a diphthong with its regular vanish, as in defy; and when it is followed by a vowel or a diphthongal sound, it has a diphthongal sound but no vanish, because the voice passes from it to the

radical of the next, and there cannot be two radicals, separated by a vanish or articulation, in the same syllable.

The sound of *g* soft and *j* is compound, equivalent to *dzh*. And both sounds of *x* are compound, one is that of *gz*, and the other, that of *ks*.—[See Rush on the Human Voice.]

SPELLING.

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

NOTE. In spelling, words should be divided into syllables, according to their combinations of sounds; so as to indicate to the learner, in the clearest possible method, the correct pronunciation.

EXCEPTION. The class of words, in which *ti*, *si*, &c., have the sound of *sh*, seems to require a different division.

Rules for Spelling.

RULE 1. *Monosyllables*, ending with a single consonant, preceded by a short vowel, and words of more syllables than one, ending with an accented consonant, preceded by a short vowel, *double* the final consonant in derivatives, when the additional syllable begins with a vowel, as *fit*, *fitted*, *fitting*, *fitter*; *tan*, *tanned*, *tanning*, *tanner*; *allot*, *allotted*, *allotting*.

RULE 2. When the final consonants, in the above described words, are preceded by long vowels, or are unaccented, they should *not* be doubled in derivatives; as *meet*, *meeting*; *bemoan*, *bemoaning*, &c.

NOTE 1. The above rules are general in their application; and special reasons may indicate some exceptions to them.

NOTE 2. Other rules for spelling, are *reduced* by so many exceptions, that they are of *little* or *no use*.

REMARK. The Orthography of the English language is attended with so much *uncertainty* and *perplexity*, that it can be learned *well*, only by a *thorough course in the SPELLING BOOK*, and *DICTIONARY*: and this *elementary* and *MOST USEFUL PART* of the education of youth, *should be most strenuously adhered to*, by *parents, guardians, and teachers*.

Words in General.

Words are *articulate* or *jointed sounds*, used by common consent, as the *signs* of our ideas.

A word of one syllable, is called a monosyllable.

A word of two syllables, a dissyllable.

A word of three syllables, a trissyllable.

A word of four or more syllables, a polysyllable.

Words are divided into two general classes; primitive and derivative.

Primitive words are those which cannot be reduced to any simpler words in the language; as *man*, *good*, *content*.

Derivative words are those which are formed from some other words; as *manful*, *goodness*, *contentment*.

ETYMOLOGY.

‡. The second part of Grammar is Etymology, which treats of the different classes, or sorts of words, their derivation; and their various inflections and changes, to express gender, person, number, case, time and manner.

‡. There are *eight sorts*, or *classes* of words; commonly called Parts of Speech: I. The Noun, or Name; II. The Verb; III. The Pronoun, or Substitute; IV. The Adjective or Attribute; V. The Adverb or Modifier; VI. The Preposition; VII. The Conjunction, or Connective; VIII. The Interjection, or Exclamation.*

NOTE. These eight sorts of words are ranked in two general divisions; an account of their relative importance in sentences; viz. *Primary* and *Secondary*.

Primary words are those which are essential to the formation of a sentence: they are *names* and *verbs*: thus, *rain falls*. It would destroy this sentence, to take away either of the words, and hence both words are essential to the existence of the proposition.

First Lesson for Beginners.

1. NOUNS† OR NAMES.

Grammar is the science of language, and language is made up of words:

Hence in studying Grammar, we have to study words.

Question. What is the first inquiry we naturally make about any person or thing?

* For Articles and Participles, see pp. 48, 104.

† The word *noun* is the Att. accusative case of the Greek word *noos*, *thought*, and is most likely adopted from that language, as a suitable title for the class of words that represent the *most elementary* thoughts or ideas.

Answer. What is the *name* by which such person or thing is known.

Hence NAMES are the *most important class* of words, and therefore they should be studied first, in etymology.*

NOTE. Most grammarians call *names*, NOUNS; but *noun*, is a *technical* word, which means *name*, and therefore we will use the word *name* more generally than the word *noun*, especially in the first part of this work; for every body understands what the word *name* means, which is not the case with the word *noun*.

METHOD OF STUDY. The learner should not attempt to commit the definition to memory at first, but read it until he gets the IDEA, that is, until he understands it, and then *practice on the idea*, as directed after the definition, until it is well understood, and then commit the definition to memory. This is the plan to be pursued throughout the grammar.

DEFINITION. Nouns or Names are the words by which persons or things are called; as, man, tree, Eric, love, justice.

PLAN OF EXERCISE. Now speak the name of any thing that you can see, or hear, or taste, or smell, or feel, or think of: take time to go through the list deliberately, and call as many *names* as you can. All names belong to this part of speech.

NOTE. Let the learner now write *names* on a black board, slate, or paper, until the habit of distinguishing them, is acquired; and then take a blank book, and rule the pages in the first part of it, into three equal parts, perpendicularly; and then commence at the top of the *left hand space*, to write a column of names, leaving as much room to the left of the names as possible, for other words to be written before them: write a dozen names in the column; after this

Model of Composition:

man	
boy	
house	
book	

* "The first class of words corresponds to the faculty called by logicians, apprehension, or simple apprehension. They are commonly named *nouns* or *substantives*, or *nouns substantive*; and express either individuals; as, 'John, Charles;' or classes; as, 'man, animal.'"—Brande's Encycl. Art. Gram.

CLASSIFICATION.

Names are of *two kinds*; *common* and *proper*.

A *common* name is a *general* name; as man, animal, tree, knowledge.

What kind of a word is man?

Ans. It is a name.

What kind of a name?

Ans. A common name.

Why?

Ans. Because it is a general name. It is applicable to all men.

Parse animal, tree and knowledge, as I have parsed man.

Now write six common names in the column of names in your blank book, as before.

A *proper* name is a *particular* name, given to an individual person or thing, to distinguish it from all others; as Laura, Thomas, Detroit, Erie, New York.

What kind of a name is Laura? and why?

Ans. It is a proper name, because it is a particular name.

Why is it a particular name?

Ans. Because it distinguishes one particular person from all others.

Parse all the examples as Laura is parsed above.

Write several proper names on a slate or blackboard, and then write several in your column of names, as before.

NOTE. Proper names should always begin with a capital letter.

‡ If a proper name has *an*, *a* or *the* before it; or if it admits the plural form, it is used as a common name; as he is the Cicero of his age, he is not a Newton, the twelve Cæsars, the seven Jameses.

‡ When a noun or name signifies many individuals, it is called a collective name, or name of multitude; as people, army, company, flock, herd.

‡ Names of substances are called *substantive nouns*; as earth, iron, wood, cotton, man, state.

‡ Names of *immaterial* things; such as *qualities* and *actions*; are called *abstract* names; as virtue, knowledge, kindness, truth, love, joy.

NOTE. An *immaterial* thing, is a thing which has *no bodily existence*; as love, hatred, joy, gladness, &c.

To names belong gender, person, number and case.

GENDER.

Gender is a modification of names to distinguish the *sexes*.

Names have two genders, the *masculine* and *feminine*.

The masculine gender denotes males; as man, boy, James, George, son, brother.

Model of Parsing.

Man is a name, common, because it is a general name, masculine gender, it denotes a male.

Parse all the examples according to the above model, and write in your list of names three common names, and three proper names in the masculine gender.

The feminine gender denotes females; as woman, girl, daughter, Susan, sister.

Parse and write as before.

N. B. If the student would be *faithful* and *true* to his own interest, and advance rapidly and thoroughly, *he must parse every example given, and be sure to understand it before he quits it.*

‡ The names of some things without sex, are, by a figure of speech, put in the masculine or feminine gender; as when we say of the sun, "he is setting;" of a ship, "she sails well."

‡ When this figure of speech is used, the things which are strong, controlling, or producing, should be put in the masculine; and the things which are beautiful, dependent, or containing, should be put in the feminine gender.

REMARK. Nouns that do not distinguish sex, have no gender, which it is as useless to mention in parsing, as it would be to say, that they have no mode or tense.

There are three methods of distinguishing the sexes.

I. By different words; as,

Bachelor	maid	Earl	countess
Beau	belle	Father	mother
Boy	girl	Friar	nun
Brother	sister	Hart	roe
Buck	doe	Husband	wife
Drake	duck	Master	mistress
King	queen	Nephew	niece
Lad	lass	Sir	madam
Lord	lady	Son	daughter
Man	woman		

II. By different terminations; as,

Abbot	abbess	Host	hostess
Actor	actress	Jew	jewess
Administrator	administratrix	Landgrave	landgravine
Arbiter	arbitress	Marquis	marchioness
Baron	baroness	Patron	patroness
Bridegroom	bride	Peer	peeress
Caterer	cateress	Poet	poetess
Chanter	chantress	Priest	priestess
Czar	czarina	Prince	princess
Deacon	deaconess	Prophet	prophetess
Duke	duchess	Shepherd	shepherdess
Emperor	empress	Songster	songstress
Executor	executrix	Seamster	seamstress
God	goddess	Tiger	tigress
Heir	heiress	Tutor	tutress
Hunter	huntress	Widower	widow

III. By prefixing some word to the name; as, a man servant, a maid servant—a male child, a female child.

In exercising on these lists, cover the column of the feminine gender, and repeat it by looking at the other column.

PERSON.

The *person* of a name, is its position in discourse.

Names cannot have more than three positions in discourse, which are those of the speaker, hearer, and subject; and therefore can have only three persons, the first, second and third.

The first person is the position of the speaker, as I, John Doe.

The second person is the position of the individual or thing spoken to; as, ye Jews, hear O heavens, give ear O earth.

The third person is the position of the name spoken of; as, Paul and Silas were imprisoned, the earth thirsts, the sun shines.

MODEL OF PARSING.—John Doe is a name, proper, because it is a particular name, masculine gender, it denotes a male, first, person, it is the name of the speaker.

Parse all the examples after this model; and write three common names, masculine gender, first person; and then as many in each of the other persons.

N. B. Let *reflection* be your GREAT WORK—your *constant* work. *Think* closely upon *every point* as you proceed, and ask explanations until you are sure you understand your subject. Remember, you might as well undertake to learn mathematics without *reflection*, as grammar.

REMARK.—The plan of writing, which is here introduced, will assist the pupil very much, if it is faithfully followed; for it will *learn him to think*, by *leading him*, in an *easy* and *progressive method*, to *reflect*.

☞ The learner should write exercises on every point as he proceeds.

NUMBER.

Number denotes the different forms of names to express *one or more*; as book, books, man, men.

NOTE. There are two properties of nouns that vary verbs, *person* and *number*; as, I, John Doe, learn; thou James, learnest; William learns; boys learn.

Names have *two* numbers, the *singular*, and the *plural*. The *singular* number expresses but one object; as pen, table, chair, house.

The *plural* number expresses more objects than one; as pens, tables, chairs, houses.

Now parse all the examples under the head of number, in the large type, after the following

MODEL.—Book is a name; common, because it is a general name; third person, spoken of; singular number, it denotes but one book.

Write three proper names, third person, and singular number; and three common names, masculine gender, third person, and plural number.

The plural is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular; as house, houses, river, rivers, rock, rocks.

‡ EXCEPTION 1. Nouns ending with *x*, *s*, *sh*, *ch* soft, and *o* preceded by a consonant, form their plurals by adding *es* to the singular; as box, boxes; glass, glasses; church, churches; hero, heroes.

NOTE. Nouns ending in *eo*, *io*, and the words *junto*, *canto*, *tyro*, *grotto*, *portico*, *solo*, *halo*, *quarto*, and perhaps a few others, have regular plurals.

‡ EXCEPTION 2. Nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, change this ending into *ves* in the plural; as loaf, loaves; knife, knives.

NOTE 1. Grief, relief, reproof, and a few others, have regular plurals.

NOTE 2. Nouns ending with *ff* have regular plurals, except staff, staves.

‡ EXCEPTION 3. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *ie*, and add *s* in the plural; as vanity, vanities; body, bodies.

NOTE. Nouns ending with *y* preceded by a vowel, form their plurals regularly; as boys, keys, delays, valleys, chimneys, moneys, attorneys, &c.

‡ EXCEPTION 4. Some nouns form their plurals by changing the word; as man, men; woman, women; child, children; foot, feet; ox, oxen; goose, geese; brother, brothers or brethren; penny, pennies or pence; die, dies, for coining; dice, for play; mouse, mice; cow, cows or kine.

‡ EXCEPTION 5. "Words from foreign languages sometimes retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in *um* or *on* have *a* in the plural; but those in *is* in the singular, change it into *es* in the plural. The following are the most common:"

Animalculum	animalcula	Genus	genera
Antithesis	antitheses	Genius (an aerial spirit)	genii
Apex	apices	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Appendix	{ appendixes appendices	Ignus fatuus	ignes fatui
Arcanum	arcana	Index (a pointer)	indexes
Automaton	automata	Index (an algebra)	indices
Axis	axes	Lamina	laminae
Bandit	{ banditti bandits	Magus	magi
Basis	bases	Memorandum	memoranda
Calx	calces	Metamorphosis	metamorphoses
Cherub	{ cherubim cherubs	Monsieur	messieurs
Crisis	crises	Phenomenon	phenomena
Criterion	criteria	Radius	radii
Datum	data	Stamen	stamina
Desideratum	desiderata	Seraph	{ seraphs seraphim
Effluvium	effluvia	Stimulus	stimuli
Ellipsis	ellipses	Stratum	strata
Emphasis	emphases	Thesis	theses
Encomium	{ encomia encomiums	Vertex	vertices
Erratum	errata	Vortex	vortices
Focus	foci	Virtuoso	virtuosi
		Mr. (master)	Messrs. (messieurs)

‡ Some names are used only in the singular form, as wheat, pitch, gold, sloth, pride, and others, only in the plural form; as bellows, riches, scissors, lungs, snuffers, tongs, wages, pains.

‡ Some names are the same in both numbers; as deer, sheep, swine, series, species.

‡ *News* is always singular; and *means* should always be in the plural form.

CASE.

Case means the position of the name in the sentence, with respect to other words.

Names have three cases; the Nominative, Possessive and Objective.

The nominative case is the position of the name when it

is the subject of the proposition; as *Thomas* writes, *girls* reads, *birds* fly, *dog* runs.

Let the pupil parse the *name* in each example after the following

MODEL OF PARSING A NAME.—*Thomas* is a name, proper, because it is a particular name; masculine gender, it denotes a male; third person, it is spoken of; singular number, it denotes but one; and in the nominative case, it is the agent or actor.

‡ The *nominative* case is the **NAMING CASE**; and therefore when a *name* is expressed in its simple form, without being the object of some action or relation, it is always in the *nominative* case.

NOTE 1. The *nominative* case is that which is chiefly spoken of; as, the pupil learns his lesson. Here *pupil* is the principal word in the sentence, and it is the *nominative*.

NOTE 2. To find the *nominative*, the beginner should be taught to ask the question; who or what performs the act asserted? thus: who learns? and the answer must always be the *nominative* case; thus, the pupil.

The *Possessive case* denotes *ownership*; as *John's* hat, *Eliza's* book, the *boy's* stick, *Henry's* horse, *William's* farm.

Parse the first name in each example, as before directed.

‡ The *possessive* case is generally formed by adding an apostrophe to the word, and the letter *s* after it; thus, *Peter's* cane; but when the name ends in *s* or *ce*, the apostrophic *s* is not added; as, *eagles'* wings, *Achilles'* shield, *peace'* sake, *conscience'* sake, except the name *witness*; as *witness's* deposition.

Foundation of Rule IV. in Syntax.

Mark the following plain principle. The *relation* of the hat to *John*, makes it the duty of *John* to show his title to the *hat*; therefore the *relation* of property requires the name of the owner to be in the *possessive* case to show *that relation*; hence, in *Syntax*, we have

RULE IV. The relation of property requires the name or pronoun of the owner to be in the *possessive* case; as *Mary's* hat. *Henry's* book. The man's cane. Men's clothes. His books. Their pens.

Parse the first name in each example after the following

MODEL FOR PARSING A NAME.—*John's* is a name; proper, because it is a particular name; masculine gender, it denotes a male; third person, it is spoken of; singular number, it denotes but one; and it is in the *possessive* case, it denotes the owner of hat, and is governed by it according to rule 4th (which repeat.)

Let the pupil write the following names both in the singular and plural numbers, and in the *possessive* case, viz., man, boy, girl, book, animal, horse, peace, conscience; the last two, only in the singular.

N. B. Be careful to place your apostrophes in the right places; and the teacher should inspect the black board, slate or book.

The *Objective* case denotes the object of an action or of a relation; as, James struck *Charles*, they live in *Boston*, Perry conquered the *Britons* on *Eric*.

NOTE. The *nominative* and *objective* cases have the same form, and are known only by the different offices they perform in the sentence; which are easily distinguished by a little reflection. The *possessive* may always be known by the apostrophe.

A general Rule to distinguish the cases. The *nominative* case does something—the *possessive* case owns something—the *objective* case has something done to it.

Declension.

The *declension* of names is their variations by numbers and cases, in the following manner:

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.			SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Son	Sons	<i>Nom.</i>	Man	Men	<i>Nom.</i>	Man	Men	
<i>Poss.</i>	Son's	Sons'	<i>Poss.</i>	Man's	Men's	<i>Poss.</i>	Man's	Men's	
<i>Obj.</i>	Son	Sons	<i>Obj.</i>	Man	Men	<i>Obj.</i>	Man	Men	

In declining names, the pupil should be careful to describe the *possessive* case thus: in the singular, *poss. son's* with an apostrophe and the letter *s* after it; plural *sons'*, with an apostrophe after the *s*.

Write on the black board, the possessive case of four proper names, singular, and of four common names, singular and plural. Turn to your list of names to find them, if you choose.

Promiscuous Exercises.

James struck Charles. William tore Henry's book. The servant whips John's horse. The boy broke the lady's knife. A lady made the boys' caps. The horses draw the plow. Richard drives the oxen.

Parse the names as directed in the models under the nominative and possessive cases. Those in the objective case are parsed according to those models, but put in the objective case because they are the objects of the action.

II. VERBS.

Having given a general description of *names*, which are the most important class of words, we will now proceed to consider words that *assert action*; which are next to names in *importance*.

Here we are introduced to a large class of words called verbs.

A verb is a word that *asserts action*, or *being*, or a *state of being*; as I *write*, he *reads*, John *sits*, she *sleeps*, fire *burns*, the horse *eats*, dogs *run*, children *play*, it *is*.

Parse all the verbs in the examples after the following

MODEL OF PARSING.—*Write* is a verb, because it asserts action.

Write verbs on a black board or slate, and repeat verbs without writing them, until you can distinguish them readily; then take your writing book, and turn to the first name you have written, and write a verb opposite to it, in the middle of the second space, which will make sense with the name, after the following

Model of Composition.

men	write	
boys	play	
horses	draw	
dogs	bark	

Continue this exercise until you write fifteen or twenty examples, and be sure to know *why* the word you write, is a verb, in every instance.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

Verbs are of two kinds, *transitive* and *intransitive*.

A *transitive* verb asserts action which *does* or *can*, terminate on some object: as, John *strikes* James. The dog bit the boy. The man drives the horse. The horse draws the plow. The pupil learns the lesson.

Parse the verb in each example after the following

MODEL OF PARSING.—*Strikes* is a verb, because it asserts action; transitive, the action terminates on the object, James.

Write several transitive verbs on a slate, or black board, and in your book, as above directed.

Now select all the *transitive* verbs you have written in your book, and write a name after each one, that will make sense with it, as far to the right as you can, after the following

Model of Composition.

men	write	letters
boys	play	
horses	draw	wagon
dogs	bark	

This model contains four propositions or sentences. The first has three parts—*men* is the subject, *write* is the verb, and *letters* is the object. Some sentences have three parts, and others only two. Analyze each sentence in the model, and all the sentences you write, as I have showed you under the foregoing models.

Foundation of the First Part of Rule IX. in Syntax.

Consider this sentence. "The dog bit the boy." The action of the dog terminated on the boy—the boy was the *object* of the action. Hence, the first part of Rule 9th, in Syntax.

RULE IX.—Transitive verbs govern the objective case; as Charles loves his *lesson*. John performed his task. William obeys his mother. Pupils learn their lessons. They sung the tune. He wrote a letter. She read the book. Thomas bought a hat.

Parse all the objective words in the examples under transitive verbs after the following

Model for Parsing.

Boy is a name; common, because it is a general name; masculine gender, it denotes a male; third person, spoken of; singular number, it denotes but one; and in the objective case, because it is the object of the action *bit*, and governed by *bit*, according to Rule IX. (which repeat.)

An *intransitive* verb asserts being, or a state of being; as *to be, to sit*; or action which cannot terminate on an object; as, The ship *sails*. The birds *fly*, The sun rises. Boys skate.

Parse all the verbs in the preceding examples.

MODEL OF PARSING.—*To be* is a verb, because it asserts being; intransitive, it cannot take an object after it.

ANOTHER—*Sails* is a verb, because it asserts action; intransitive, the action cannot terminate on an object. We cannot say the ship *sails any thing*.

Write six intransitive verbs, as before.

NOTE 1. In the *classification* of verbs, I have followed Webster, Bullions and others. This division avoids several serious objections, which lie against the classifications of Murray, Kirkham, Smith, and others.

1. It avoids the absurdity of making two kinds of verbs out of one verb—the active and passive being nothing more than two forms of the same verb.

2. It avoids the impropriety of confining the word *transitive* to the active voice; the verb being as perfectly *transitive* in the passive voice as it is in the active.

3. It avoids the use of the *evasive* term *neuter*, in designating the character of verbs; and

4. The distinction between active intransitive, and neuter verbs, which is utterly useless, for they are equally without regimen, and construed in precisely the same way in Syntax.

5. It avoids uniting in one class, in Etymology, transitive and intransitive verbs, which must be distinguished in Syntax, the transitive verb always having a regimen in the active voice, but the intransitive, never.

This classification of verbs is founded on their use in the construction of sentences, and has the following advantages:—

1. It is clear, characteristic, and easily understood.
2. It employs the terms *active* and *passive*, only to distinguish

the two forms of transitive verbs, called the active and passive voice.

NOTE 2. “This classification of the verb has been adopted in the best grammars of the Greek and Latin Languages, and in some respectable English grammars lately published; it is advocated by Mr. Webster, in his dissertations on the English language;—is adopted in his English Grammar and Dictionary; and from its greater simplicity, accuracy, and utility, appears likely to prevail.”—[Bullions' Eng. Gram. p. 202.]

VOICE.

Voice, in grammar, means a particular modification of *transitive* verbs by which they show whether the action is performed *by* the nominative, or by some other agent, *upon* the nominative.

Transitive verbs have two forms, called the *Active* and *Passive* voices.

In the *active* voice, a transitive verb asserts action performed by the subject or nominative, upon some object; as, John makes shoes.

Here *John* is the subject and agent, or actor, *makes* is the verb, and *shoes*, the object or effect produced.

In the *passive* voice, a transitive verb asserts, action received or suffered by the subject or nominative, as shoes are made by John.

In this form *shoes* is the subject, *are made* is the verb, and *John* is the object preceded by a preposition. In this form the agent and object have changed places.

NOTE. The action passes over from the agent and terminates upon the object in each voice: hence, the propriety of appropriating the term *transitive* to the verb in both voices.

Intransitive verbs have no distinction of voice, being always in the active; as I sit, I run; except in a few instances; as “He is come.” “They are gone,” for “He has come.” “They have gone.”

These two forms should be parsed in the same way.

Transitive verbs in the active voice, and intransitive verbs, have the same form, and can be distinguished only

by their meaning and construction. They can be distinguished with ease and certainty, by the following characteristics :

1st. In the use of transitive verbs, *three* things are always implied;—the *agent* or *actor*, the *act*, and an *object* on which the action terminates. In the use of intransitive verbs, only *two* things are implied—the *subject*, or thing chiefly spoken of, and the *being*, *state* or *action* asserted of it.

2d. A transitive verb can be changed from the active voice to the passive; as, Peter caught the bird. The bird was caught by Peter: and from the passive to the active. But intransitive verbs cannot be so changed; thus *I live* cannot be changed into *I am lived*.

Exercises.

James writes. William reads. Henry sings. The song was sung. The fish is taken. The bird is snared. He caught a jay. John is struck by Charles. Pompey was conquered by Cæsar. Miriam is loved by me. I am loved. He learns the lesson.

Parse the verb in each example thus:—

Writes is a verb because it asserts action; transitive, the action can pass over to an object; active voice, the action is performed by the subject or nominative.

Change each transitive verb from the voice in which you find it, to the other; and

Write several verbs of each kind in your book, as before directed.

REMARK 1. The learner will perceive, by reflecting on the foregoing exercises, that when a transitive verb is in the active voice, its nominative is *active*, that is, it is the *actor*; and when the verb is in the passive voice, its nominative is *passive*, that is, it *receives* or *suffers* the action, which is performed by some other agent.

REMARK 2. The principal uses of the passive voice, are, 1st. to conceal the agent; 2d. to give the sufferer the principal place in the proposition; and, 3d. to give beauty and variety to language.

Promiscuous Exercises.

The boy studies. Judgment was rendered. The child sleeps. The girls learn. The day came. The coat hangs. The sun shines. The child is taught. The boys rest. The stars twinkle. The hat is made. The lamb lies. The man is cured. The crop was sold. Mountains stand. Sheep feed. The horse draws. Birds fly. The nightingale sings. The pupil learns. The book is sold. The lesson was recited.

Parse the verb in each example, and

Change each transitive verb from the voice in which you find it, to the other.

Verbs are varied by *modes*, *tenses*, *persons* and *numbers*.

MODES.

Mode is the *modification* of the verb, by which its *assertion* is varied.

NOTE. Observe, it is *not the action* which is varied by the modes, but the *assertion*. An *act* may be asserted in a *general way*, which differs but little from naming it, as in the *infinitive mode*; or it may be *simply asserted*, as in the *indicative*; or it may be asserted as *possible* or *necessary*, as in the *potential*; or it may be asserted as *contingent* or *hypothetical*, as in the *subjunctive*; or it may be asserted as *allowed* or *enjoined*, as in the *imperative*.

Verbs have five modes; the *Infinitive*, the *Indicative*, the *Potential*, the *Subjunctive*, and the *Imperative*.

The *Infinitive Mode* is that form of the verb in which its assertion is *not limited* by person or number; as to act, to learn, to sit, to love, to run, to stick, to live.

Parse all the above examples, thus:

To act is a verb, because it asserts action; transitive, the action can pass over and terminate on an object; in the active voice, the action is performed by the subject; and in the infinitive mode, it is unlimited by person or number.

Write, in your list of verbs, six verbs in the infinitive mode, but place them where there are no names at the left, because they must not be limited by nominatives.

NOTE 1. The particle *to* is generally prefixed to the verb in the infinitive mode; and it is a part of the verb, as clearly as any other auxiliary. Verbs are sometimes used without it, as I saw him do it.

To is derived from a word which means *acted*; hence, when prefixed to *names* or *adjectives*, it changes them to verbs, as love, *to love*; cool, *to cool*, by showing that they are used *to assert*, and not *to name*, in the latter form.

NOTE 2. A verb in the infinitive mode asserts action or being in a general manner, and therefore it has no nominative, and hence it is not limited by person or number.

The *Indicative Mode* is the form of the verb in which it *simply* asserts action and being, or asks questions; as, William walks, the boy reads, Henry rides, who rides? what is it?

Parse, as before, remembering to give the mode correctly, and the *reason* of it.

Write six verbs in the indicative mode, such as will make sense with some of the names, you have written, as before directed.

The *Potential Mode* is the form of the verb in which it asserts action and being as *possible* or *necessary*; as, I can ride. It may rain. He must walk. She would talk. They should learn; and in the same manner, it asks questions; as, can I ride? must he go? could she walk?

Parse the verb in each example, and

Write six verbs in the potential mode, as before.

The *Subjunctive Mode* is the form of the verb in which it asserts action and being as *contingent* or *hypothetical*; as if he desires it, unless it ripens, although they are poor, Suppose Henry goes, lest ye die, were it otherwise, if he had been there.

Parse the verb in each example; giving the mode correctly and the reason, and

Write six verbs, in this mode, in your list, after writing some on the black board.

NOTE 1. The verb, in the Subjunctive Mode, is generally preceded by some word, expressing doubt or uncertainty. The

word prefixed is sometimes a conjunction; as, *lest*; and sometimes a verb; as, *if, although, suppose, except*; sometimes, however, the hypothesis is expressed by a certain form of the verb, without any word prefixed; as, had I been there—i. e. if I had been there.

NOTE 2. The Subjunctive Mode is used when we wish to *subjoin* an *assertive* sentence, to a *conditional* or *hypothetical* sentence—hence the term *subjunctive*.

The *Imperative Mode* is the form of the verb used for *commanding, entreating, exhorting, and permitting*; as, *depart* thou, *mind* ye, let us stay, go in peace, come to me, learn your lesson.

Parse the verb in each example as before, and

Write six verbs in the imperative mode.

N. B. You must write this mode, where you have not written any names, and put the nominative *thou, ye, or you, after* the verb in the third space.

Signs of the Modes.

The Infinitive Mode usually has the sign *to* prefixed; as, to sing, to live, to run.

The Indicative Mode has no sign, but asserts action and being in the simplest manner; and asks questions in the same manner; as, he loves, does he love? It sometimes has the auxiliary *do*, in the present tense, and *did* in the past; as, he does love, did he love?

The Potential Mode has the signs, *may, can, must, might, could, would, should*; as, I may go, he might come.

The Subjunctive Mode usually has some word prefixed expressing doubt or condition; as if he goes, or the verb itself expresses hypothesis; as, were I there, it would receive attention.

The Imperative Mode is known by its expressing command, &c., as, go ye, depart thou.

Promiscuous Exercises.

They might learn. He wrote. If John learns. Learn thou. To learn. The boys play. The girls must study. To run. If James studies. Come thou. Love ye.

Parse the *verb* in each exercise, as directed under the modes.

TENSES.

Tense is the *modification* of the verb which denotes the *time* of the action or being. Verbs have six tenses.

NOTE 1. The general divisions of time are three—the present, past, and future. To each of these divisions, the English verb gives two distinctions, which arranges the six tenses in three couples, thus:

Present ;	Prior-present, or perfect.
Past ;	Prior-past, or pluperfect.
Future ;	Prior-future.

This arrangement and these designations of the tenses, show that the same relation subsists between the members of each couple, and exhibit the beautiful symmetry of our system of tenses.

NOTE 2. *Prior-present*, *prior-past* and *prior-future*, are adopted from other grammars, because they show the relations of these tenses to the others, hence they are much more appropriate, than the names, perfect, &c.—[See Webster's and Pierce's Grams.]

The *Present Tense* is the form of the verb that denotes *present* time; as, I write, he rides, they may go, if you come, John must learn.

Parse the verb in each example, thus:

Write is a verb, because it asserts action; transitive, the action can pass over to an object; in the active voice, the action is performed by the subject or nom. indicative mode, it simply asserts action; present tense, it denotes present time.

Write six verbs in the Present Tense—two in the Indicative, two in the Potential, and two in the Subjunctive.

‡ The Present Tense is often indefinite, applicable to Past, Present and Future Time; as the sun rises in the east and sets in the west. Trees put forth every spring. He makes a trip every year. The paper is issued once a week.

NOTE 1. The Present Tense is often used to express future acts; the mind being carried forward, by the expression, *till*, *when*, or *as soon as*; to the time of the event, so as to conceive it as present; as, we cannot decide till the mail arrives.

“As soon as it is light, we shall depart.”

NOTE 2. The sayings and doctrines of eminent personages, long since dead, are elegantly expressed in the present tense; as “He being dead, yet speaketh.” “Seneca reasons and moralises well.”

NOTE 3. It gives great life and effect to description, to represent past, or future events as present; to introduce them to the view of the reader or hearer, as having a present existence: hence the frequent use of the present tense instead of the past and future, by the historian, the poet, and the orator.

NOTE 4. There are other idiomatic expressions of future time, in the present tense; as,

1. “I am going to write.” “I am about to write:” which some call the *inceptive future*, because they note an intention to commence an action without delay.

2. “I have to pay a sum of money to-morrow;” that is, I am under a present necessity to do a future act.

3. “John is to command a regiment.” “Eneas went in search of the seat of an empire, which *was*, one day, to command the world.” The last sentence is *past*, as to the narrator, but *future*, as to the event, at the time specified.

The *Prior-Present* or *Perfect Tense* is the form of the verb that denotes *past* time, and conveys an allusion to the *present*; as, he has come; they have gone; it has grown; I have sinned; they have prospered.

Parse the verb in each example, as above; giving the tense correctly and the reason; and

Write as before directed, on the black board, and in your book.

The *Past Tense* is the form of the verb which denotes *past* time; as, Henry rode; William loved; the girl learned; “Jesus wept.”

Parse as last directed, and

Write six verbs in your book, in different modes.

NOTE 1. When the *time* of a past act is specified as *past*, the past tense should be used; as John wrote yesterday. “Philosophers made great discoveries in the last century.”

NOTE 2. The prior-present tense is commonly used as follows:

1. It is often used when the time of a past act is not specified; as, "I have read Virgil several times." He has often visited me.

2. It is used when the time of a past act is specified as including the present time; as, "Philosophers have made great discoveries the present century." He has been much afflicted this year.

3. It is used when the time of a past act is past, but the act itself continued to the present time; as, "I have lived in this house two years." I have been engaged in this work six months.

The Prior-Past Tense is the form of the verb that denotes past time, but as *prior* to some other *past* act specified; as, he *had heard* the news when I arrived, she had written before the message came, they had spoken, John had read, the girls had recited.

Parse, as above directed, and

Write six verbs in this tense, in different modes.

The Future Tense is the form of the verb which denotes *future* time; as, John *will come*, you shall go, they will learn, the sun will rise to-morrow, he will return next week.

Parse the verb in each example; giving the tense correctly, and the reason; and write, as before.

The Prior-Future, is the form of the verb that denotes *future* time, but as *prior* to some other *future* act specified; as, he *will have written* when the mail arrives, the two houses of Congress will have finished their business, when the day of adjournment comes. They will have come, we shall have gone.

Parse the verb in each example, as before; and

Write several verbs in this tense in your book; and write often on the black board.

Signs of the Tenses.

The most simple form of the verb is the sign of the present tense; as, live, walk, run, sing; except the occasional use of *do*; as, I do learn, we do study, she does sing.

Have and *has* are signs of the prior-present tense; as, we have loved, they have written, he has gone.

The indication of past time without any auxiliary verb, is the sign of the past tense; as, he loved, she wrote, they walked, except the occasional use of *did*; as, we did write, they did learn.

Had and *hadst* are the signs of the prior-past tense; as, Paul had talked, they had heard, we had eaten.

Shall and *will* are the signs of the future tense; as, I shall go, he will come, they will agree.

Shall have and *will have* are the signs of the prior-future tense; as, I shall have gone, he will have come, they will have agreed.

The Infinitive Mode has two tenses—the Indicative, six—the Potential, two—the Subjunctive, six, and the Imperative, one.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

There are a few monosyllabic verbs, chiefly used to form the modes and tenses of other verbs, which are, therefore, called *auxiliaries*, or *helping verbs*.

NOTE. Some of these are always auxiliaries, to wit, *may*, *can* and *shall* with their variations, and *must*, which has no variation; and others are sometimes auxiliaries, and sometimes principal verbs, to wit, *will*, *have*, *do* and *be*. These are principal verbs when they are not immediately followed by other verbs; as, he *willed* it to her; I *have* the pen; he *did* it; they *are* here.

Remarks on the Auxiliaries.

May asserts liberty, permission or possibility to act or exist, as, he *may go*; she *may have written*.

Can implies power to act; as, he *can write* much better than he *could* last year.

Must asserts necessity; as, we *must speak* the truth.

Shall, in the first person, simply foretells, but in the second and third persons, it expresses promise, command or determina-

tion in the speaker; as, *I shall remain*, but you *shall depart*, and he *shall accompany* you, and foretells with *emphasis*.

Will, in the first person, asserts a determination or promise, but in the second and third persons, it only foretells; as, *I will maintain* my rights, which you *will acknowledge* to be proper, and they *will accede* to the terms.

Do, is used as an auxiliary, to give emphasis to assertion; as, he *does know* it; at least he *did know* it, for he related it.

NOTE. This verb is sometimes used to supply the place of a principal verb; as, "It was hardly possible that he should not distinguish you as he has *done*."—Cowper. Here *done* stands in the place of *distinguished you*: supplying the place of both the *verb* and its *object*.

"He loves not plays
As thou *dost*, Anthony."

Here *dost* is a substitute for *lovest plays*.

Do, is almost universally used in interrogative and negative sentences.

Have, is much used as an auxiliary; as, he *has gone*; they *had come*.

Be, is in very common and extensive use, both as a principal verb and an auxiliary.

CONJUGATION.

The Conjugation of a verb is a regular combination and arrangement of its several modes, tenses, persons, and numbers.

NOTE. A small italic *n* is inserted with the verb, through the following conjugations, in the place where *not* should stand in negative sentences, after the plan of Mr. Webster's Grammars. The word *never*, generally occupies the same place, but not in every case. This plan is adopted with the belief, that it will be very useful in acquiring the idiom of the English language, especially to foreigners.

Learners should conjugate the verb, *both with* and *without* the negation.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARIES.

May.

Present Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1st. Person,	I may <i>n</i>	We may <i>n</i>
2d. Person,	{ Thou mayest <i>n</i> *	{ Ye may <i>n</i> *
	{ You may <i>n</i> *	{ You may <i>n</i>
3d. Person,	{ <i>mas.</i> He may <i>n</i>	{ They may <i>n</i>
	{ <i>fem.</i> She may <i>n</i>	{ They may <i>n</i>
	{ It may <i>n</i>	{ They may <i>n</i>

Past Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
	I might <i>n</i>	We might <i>n</i>
{	Thou mightest <i>n</i>	Ye might <i>n</i>
	You might <i>n</i>	You might <i>n</i>
	He might <i>n</i>	They might <i>n</i>

Can.

Present Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
	I can <i>n</i>	We can <i>n</i>
{	Thou canst <i>n</i>	Ye can <i>n</i>
	You can <i>n</i>	You can <i>n</i>
	He can <i>n</i>	They can <i>n</i>

Past Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
	I could, <i>n</i>	We could <i>n</i>
{	Thou couldst <i>n</i>	Ye could <i>n</i>
	You could <i>n</i>	You could <i>n</i>
	He could <i>n</i>	They could <i>n</i>

Shall.

Present Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
	I shall <i>n</i>	We shall <i>n</i>
{	Thou shalt <i>n</i>	Ye shall <i>n</i>
	You shall <i>n</i>	You shall <i>n</i>
	He shall <i>n</i>	They shall <i>n</i>

* The pronouns *thou* and *ye* are used in sacred style, and sometimes in other grave discourses. In other cases *you* should be used in the second person *singular*, as well as plural.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.
I should *n*
{ Thou shouldst *n*
{ You should *n*
He should *n*

PLURAL.
We should *n*
{ Ye should *n*
{ You should *n*
They should *n*

*Will.***Present Tense.*

SINGULAR.
I will *n*
{ Thou wilt *n*
{ You will *n*
He will *n*

PLURAL.
We will *n*
{ Ye will *n*
{ You will *n*
They will *n*

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.
I would *n*
{ Thou wouldst *n*
{ You would *n*
He would *n*

PLURAL.
We would *n*
{ Ye would *n*
{ You would *n*
They would *n*

Must.

Must has no change of termination, and is used in present, past and future time.

*Do.**Present Tense.*

SINGULAR.
I do *n*
{ Thou dost *n*
{ You do *n*
He does *n*, or doth *n*†

PLURAL.
We do *n*
{ Ye do *n*
{ You do *n*
They do *n*

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.
I did *n*
{ Thou didst *n*
{ You did *n*
He did *n*

PLURAL.
We did *n*
{ Ye did *n*
{ You did *n*
They did *n*

* *Will* is conjugated regularly, when it is a principal verb, as, present, I will, past, I willed, &c.

† *Doth* is used in sacred, or lofty style, and *does* in common language.

ROOT OF THE VERB.

The Root of a verb is that form which is found in the present tense of the Infinitive.

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE VERB.

The principal parts of the verb are three—the forms which are found in the first person singular, of the present and past tenses of the indicative, and the perfect participle.

CONJUGATION,

Of the auxiliary and principal Verb

To Have.

Root. To Have.

PRIN. PARTS. Present, Have. Past, Had. Perf. Part, Had.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

To have.

Prior-Present, or Perfect Tense.

To have had.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

I have *n*
{ Thou hast *n*
{ You have *n*
He has or hath *n**

PLURAL.

We have *n*
{ Ye have *n*
{ You have *n*
They have *n*

Prior-Present, or Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

I have *n* had
{ Thou hast *n* had
{ You have *n* had
He has, or hath *n* had

PLURAL.

We have *n* had
{ Ye have *n* had
{ You have *n* had
They have *n* had

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

I had *n*
{ Thou hadst *n*
{ You had *n*
He had *n*

PLURAL.

We had *n*
{ Ye had *n*
{ You had *n*
They had *n*

* "*Hath* is used in solemn style; *has*, in familiar."

NOTE. The forms of this verb, in the present and past tenses, are used, both as auxiliary, and principal verb.

Prior-Past, or Pluperfect Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
I had <i>n</i> had		We had <i>n</i> had	
{ Thou hadst <i>n</i> had		{ Ye had <i>n</i> had	
{ You had <i>n</i> had		{ You had <i>n</i> had	
He had <i>n</i> had		They had <i>n</i> had	

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
I shall or will <i>n</i> have		We shall or will <i>n</i> have	
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> have		{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> have	
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have		{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have	
He shall or will <i>n</i> have		They shall or will <i>n</i> have	

Prior-Future Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
I shall <i>n</i> have had		We shall <i>n</i> have had	
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> have had		{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> have had	
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have had		{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have had	
He shall or will <i>n</i> have had		They shall or will <i>n</i> have had	

NOTE. *Compound Tenses* are those in which the verb has one or more auxiliaries.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Indefinite Tense.

SINGULAR.*	
I may, can, must, might, could, would or should <i>n</i> have	
{ Thou mayest, canst, must, mightest, couldst, wouldst or shouldst <i>n</i> have	
{ You may, can, must, might, could, would or should <i>n</i> have	
He may, can, must, might, could, would or should <i>n</i> have	

PLURAL.	
We may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have	
{ Ye may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have	
{ You may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have	
They may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have	

* *May* and *can* are applicable to *future time*, as well as present: as,

Prior-Present, or Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

I may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have had	
{ 'Thou mayest, canst, must, mightest, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst <i>n</i> have had	
{ You may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have had	
He may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have had	

PLURAL.

We may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have had	
{ Ye may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have had	
{ You may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have had	
They may, can, must, might, could, would, or should <i>n</i> have had	

NOTE. The arrangement of the verb in the potential mode, seems to have been very generally overlooked or neglected by grammarians. That the common paradigm of this mode is very defective, I think must be evident to every one who has carefully reflected on the subject.

NOTE 2. A synopsis of the old paradigm of the Potential, is here given, that teachers may be prepared to follow it, if they so elect:

Pres. I may, can, or must have.

Perf. I may, can, or must have had.

Past. I might, could, would, or should have.

Prior-Past. I might, could, would, or should have had.

You *may go* to-morrow. He *can go* after he gets his lesson. I *must be* at home to-morrow. The present of the Subjunctive in Latin is translated by "can," "may," "should," and "would," when indicatively used; and it, generally refers to future time. "I may go," and "I might go," are radically future. "I should go," and "I shall go," are equally future. [See Edin. Encycl. Art. Grammar.]

Must, might, could, would and *should*, in connection with a principal verb, are applicable to the present and future, as well as the past; as "I would not change, if I could, our subjection to physical laws, our exposure to hunger and cold, and the necessity of constant conflicts with the material world. I would not, if I could, so temper the elements, that they should infuse into us only grateful sensations, that they should make vegetation so exuberant as to anticipate every want, and the minerals so ductile as to offer no resistance to our strength and skill.

[Channing's Works, vol. v. p. 157.]

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

The Subjunctive Mode is usually the same as the Indicative and Potential, with some preceding word expressing condition, supposition, or contingency.

‡ These words are *if, though or although, unless, whether, lest, admit, grant, allow, suppose, except*, most of which are verbs; and perhaps some others.*

The learner should conjugate the verb in the subjunctive, by prefixing some word expressing doubt, throughout the indicative and potential modes; thus

Present Tense.

If I have <i>n</i>	If we have <i>n</i>
{ If Thou hast <i>n</i>	{ If Ye have <i>n</i>
{ If You have <i>n</i>	{ If You have <i>n</i>
If He has or hath <i>n</i>	If They have <i>n</i> , &c

‡ *Subjunctive Forms.**Present Tense.*

Hypothetical Forms.

If I had <i>n</i>	If we had <i>n</i>
{ If Thou hadst <i>n</i>	{ If Ye had <i>n</i>
{ If You had <i>n</i>	{ If You had <i>n</i>
If He had <i>n</i>	If They had <i>n</i>
Had I <i>n</i>	Had we <i>n</i>
{ Hadst thou <i>n</i>	{ Had ye <i>n</i>
{ Had you <i>n</i>	{ Had you <i>n</i>
Had he <i>n</i>	Had they <i>n</i>

NOTE. These forms have but one meaning; and are placed in the present tense, because they are used with a present signification; and grammarians so explain them.

EXAMPLE. "But had we feelings and principles worthy of men and Christians, should we wait for the evil to stand at our door, before walking up to the use and means for averting it?" [Channing on War.]

* "If is a corruption of *gif*, the imperative of *gifan*, the Saxon orthography of *give*. *Though*, the Saxon *theah*, signifies permit, allow. *Although* is a compound of *all* and *though*, give or allow all. The old

Future Tense.

Elliptical Form.

If I have <i>n</i>	If We have <i>n</i>
{ If Thou have <i>n</i>	{ If Ye have <i>n</i>
{ If You have <i>n</i>	{ If You have <i>n</i>
If He have <i>n</i>	If They have <i>n</i>

NOTE. This is the *elliptical future*: and it is generally described by grammarians, as having a future signification, yet most of them place it in the present. Dr. Webster puts it in the *future*. See his Phil. Gram., Conjugation of Love. See also his Imp. Gram. Remarks, page 137.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

SINGULAR.	FLURAL.
Have <i>n</i> , or have thou <i>n</i>	Have ye <i>n</i> , or have you <i>n</i>
Have you <i>n</i> , or do <i>n</i> you have	Do <i>n</i> you have

PARTICIPLES.

Present,	Having
Perfect,	Had
Compound Perfect,	Having Had

Exercises on the Verb Have.

To have. Have, had had. I had. They had. We had. Thou hadst had. She has had. We had. You have had. It has had. They have. I have. Susan has.

We will have. Thou shalt have. I shall have. They shall have. It will have. Thou wilt have had. We shall

word *thof*, still used in some parts of England, is the imperative of the Saxon *thofian*, to allow. *Unless* is the imperative of the Saxon *onlesan*, to loose, or dissolve. *Except* is the imperative of that verb. *Lest* is from *lesan*, to loose or dissolve."—[Webster's Imp. Gram.]

"It has been, and is still, customary for authors to omit the personal terminations of the second and third persons of the verb in the present tense, to form the subjunctive mode; if thou go, if he write."

"The correct construction of the subjunctive mode is precisely the same as that of the indicative; as it is used in popular practice, which has preserved the true idiom of the language; *if thou hadst, if he has or hath*; to denote *present uncertainty*. But a *future contingency* may be expressed by the omission of the personal terminations; *if he go*, that is, *if he shall go*."—[Ibm.]

have had. They will have had. We must have. They may have had. Thou wilt have. They will have had. We shall have.

We have. Thou hast. He has. To have had. I can have. Thou mayest have. Thou canst have had. Have ye. Do thou have. She may have. He must have. We might have. He could have. We may have had. Thou mayest have had. They may have had.

Thou wouldst have. You could have. He may have. Thou hadst. We had had. I have had. They might have had. You should have had. We would have.

If I have. If thou hadst. If they had. If we have had. If thou have. If he have. If she shall have. If they will have had. If I may have. If thou canst have had. If he should have had. If they could have had.

Parse the verb in each example as before directed.

Participles.*

Participles are certain forms of the verb, used to describe nouns. There are three, the Present, the Perfect, and the Compound Perfect.

NOTE 1. Participles resemble adjectives in their office of qualifying nouns; and verbs, by expressing action and time; hence their name.

NOTE 2. The principal difference between participles and other forms of the verb, is, that it *asserts* action in the other forms, which is its essence there; but, in the participles, it merely *specifies* action, as *descriptive* of nouns.†

NOTE 3. The minor points of difference between the participles and other forms of the verb, are in the participles' being without *modes*, *persons* and *numbers*.

* Some grammarians give participles the rank of a separate part of speech; but they place them in the conjugation of verbs, as a part of the different inflections of the verbs; and the perfect participle is placed, by them, in the list of the principal parts of irregular verbs; thus they make participles two distinct things at the same time.

† See the able article of Dr. Cleig on General Grammar.
[Encycl. Brit.]

"The participle may be said to hold the same intermediate place between a verb and an adjective, as the infinitive holds between a verb and a substantive."—[Brande's Encycl. Art. Grammar.]

The Present Participle denotes *continued* action, and may be known by its ending in *ing*; as *turn*, *turning*.

‡. The *time* of the Present Participle is *indefinite*, like that of the present tense of the indicative, often being *past*, *present* and *future*, in meaning.

NOTE. The present participle is formed by dropping *e* from verbs ending with that letter, and adding *ing*; as *place*, *placing*. "But *e* is retained in *dyeing*, from *dye*, to color, to distinguish it from *dying*, the participle to *die*; in which word *y* is used to prevent the duplication of *i*. In *singeing* from *singe*, *e* is retained to soften *g*, and to distinguish the word from *singing*. So also is *twingeing*."

‡. When this participle is used to *describe* nouns, in such a way as to deprive it of its verbal character, it is an attribute or adjective, and is called a *participial adjective*; as, a *loving* friend, *lasting* friendship. In this use, it admits of comparison; as *more lasting*, *most promising*, *less willing*, *least willing*.

NOTE. This participle becomes an adverb by taking the termination *ly*; as *lovingly*, *laughingly*, which also admits the degrees of comparison; as *more lovingly*, *most lovingly*.

‡. This participial is also used to *name* actions, in such a way as to deprive it of its verbal character, and admit the definitive *the* before it, and, in some cases, the plural number; as, "The *burning* of London in 1666." "The *overflowings* of the Nile." "He seeth all his *goings*." "Stars of the dawning!" Dana. In such positions it is called a *participial noun*.

NOTE 1. In a few instances this participle becomes a name by taking the termination *ness*; as *willingness* from *willing*.

NOTE 2. De War observes, "the participle in *ing* is also passive in many instances; as, "the house is *building*," "I heard of a plan *forming* for his rescue." "The money is *owing*,"

"The money was owing." "The money will be owing."—
[See Edin. Encycl.]

The Perfect Participle denotes finished action; as *loved*, written; and may be known by its making sense after *having*.

I found the letter *sealed*. In this sentence the word *sealed* does not assert the action of any agent, but it specifies a finished act, as descriptive of *letter*, and therefore it is a perfect participle.

‡. This participle is often used to qualify nouns, in such a way as to deprive it of its verbal character; as "a *concealed* plot;" a "*painted* house." In this use of it, it may be called a participial adjective, and admits of comparison; as, "a more admired artist," "a most respected magistrate."

The Compound Perfect Participle is formed by prefixing the participle *having* to the perfect participle; as, *having loved*, having written, and it expresses an action finished before some other action specified; as, having written his letter, he sealed it.

Foundation of Rule 1. in Syntax.

Now, if you have learned the preceding conjugation well, you are prepared to understand the first and second Rules of Syntax, which pertain to names and verbs.

NOTE. The words I, thou, &c. which we place before the verb, in the conjugation, are called *Pronouns*, or *Substitutes*, because they are used instead of names, and have *numbers* and *persons*, like names, as we shall hereafter explain.

Consider the following sentence.—John runs. The action, *runs*, depends on the agent, *John*; for it could not exist without him; and it is plain that John governs his own action; because he can *run fast*, or *slow*, or he can *cease* to run, as he pleases.

Now notice the following sentences. John runs,—boys run—thou runnest. You perceive the different endings of the verb, in these sentences. The agents differ in person and number, and therefore the verb must have different inflections to express their actions appropriately; hence,

As the Agent governs his own action, so the NAME of the agent, or nominative, governs the verb asserting its action. Hence, in Syntax,

RULE I. The nominative case governs the verb which asserts its action or being, in person and number; as, John runs, boys run, thou runnest, we run, girls study, birds sing, the wind blows, the waters roar, the rain falls.

Parse the name in each example under Rule I; thus,

John is a name; proper, because it is a particular name; masculine gender, it denotes a male; third person, spoken of; singular number, it denotes but one; and in the nominative case, it is the subject and agent of the verb runs, and governs it according to Rule I. (Repeat the Rule.)

Foundation of Rule II. in Syntax.

It has been shown that the nominative case necessarily governs the verb which asserts its action; therefore the verb is bound to submit to, or agree with, its nominative or agent; and hence, in Syntax,

RULE II. The verb must agree with its subject-nominative, in person and number; as, I write, thou writest, Henry writes, boys write, we learn, you study, the girls recite, the birds sing, the swallow chatters, the sea roars, the billows roll, the snow drifts, the ships sail.

Parse the verb in each example after the following

MODEL. *Write* is a verb, because it asserts action; its root, to write; principal parts: present, write; past, wrote; perfect part. written; it is in the active voice, it asserts action performed by the subject or nominative; in the indicative mode, it simply asserts action; present tense, it denotes present time; and in the first person, and singular number, to agree with its subject-nominative, *I*, according to Rule II. (which repeat.)

Review the exercises under Rule 2, and parse all the names and verbs in them, carefully after the foregoing models: then

Write the third person singular of the verb *have*, throughout the conjugation, with some nominative; and then, the second person, singular, with the pronoun *thou*, and then the *same*, with the pronoun *you*; and write without looking on the book, and afterwards compare them, to see whether you have written correctly.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

To Be.

NOTE. "*Be* is a verb denoting existence, and therefore called the *substantive* verb. It is very irregular, being derived from different radicals, and having undergone many dialectical changes." [Webster's Imp. Grammar.]

ROOT. To be.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, Am, Past, Was, Perf. Part. Been.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

To be.

Prior-present, or Perfect Tense.

To have been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

I am <i>n</i>	We are <i>n</i>
{ Thou art <i>n</i>	{ Ye are <i>n</i>
{ You are <i>n</i>	{ You are <i>n</i>
He is <i>n</i>	They are <i>n</i>

Prior-present, or Perfect Tense.

I have <i>n</i> been	We have <i>n</i> been
{ Thou hast <i>n</i> been	{ Ye have <i>n</i> been
{ You have <i>n</i> been	{ You have <i>n</i> been
He has or hath <i>n</i> been	They have <i>n</i> been

Past Tense.

I was <i>n</i>	We were <i>n</i>
{ Thou wast <i>n</i>	{ Ye were <i>n</i>
{ You was or were <i>n</i> *	{ You were <i>n</i>
He was <i>n</i>	They were <i>n</i>

* "As *you* was originally in the plural number, grammarians insist that it must still be restricted to that number. But national usage rejects the arbitrary principle. The true principle, on which all language is built, rejects it. What fundamental rule have we to dispose of words but this, that when a word signifies *one* or *unity*, it belongs to the singular number? If a word, once exclusively plural, becomes, by universal use, the sign of individuality, it must take its place in the singular number. That this is a fact with *you*, is proved by national usage. To assign the substitute to its verb, is to invert the order of things. The verb must follow its nominative—if that denotes unity, so does the verb."—See Authorities on next page.

Prior-Past, or Pluperfect Tense.

I had <i>n</i> been	We had <i>n</i> been
{ Thou hadst <i>n</i> been	{ Ye had <i>n</i> been
{ You had <i>n</i> been	{ You had <i>n</i> been
He had <i>n</i> been	They had <i>n</i> been

Future Tense.

I shall or will <i>n</i> be	We shall or will <i>n</i> be
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> be	{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> be
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> be	{ You shall or will <i>n</i> be
He shall or will <i>n</i> be	They shall or will <i>n</i> be

Prior-Future Tense.

I shall <i>n</i> have been	We shall <i>n</i> have been
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> have been	{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> have been
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have been	{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have been
He shall or will <i>n</i> have been	They shall or will <i>n</i> have been

AUTHORITIES.

'When *you* was at Athens, you attended the schools of the philosophers.'—Cicero. Tusc. Quest. Trans. b. 2.

'On that happy day when *you* was given to the world.'—Dodd's Massillon, Sermon 1.

'Unless *you* was ill.'—Boswell's Life of J. A., 68.

'*You* was on the spot where your enemy was found killed.'—Guthrie's Quintilian, b. 2.

'*You* was in hopes to have succeeded to the inheritance.'—Ibm. b. 5.

'When *you* was here comforting me.'—Pope's Let.

'I am as well as when *you* was here.'—Guy's Let. to Swift.

'Why *was* *you* glad?'—Boswell's Life of Johnson.

These writers did not commit mistakes in the use of the verb after *you*—they wrote the language as established by national usage—the foundation of all language. So is the practice in the United States—not merely popular usage, though this, when general, is respectable authority; but the practice of men of letters.

'Where *was* *you* standing during the transaction?'

'How far *was* *you* from the defendant?'

'How far *was* *you* from the parties?'—Judge Parker. Trial of Selfridge, p. 58.

'*Was* *you* acquainted with the defendant at College?'—Mr. Dexter Ibm. p. 60.

'*Was* *you* there when the pistol was fired?'—Mr. Gore. Ibm. p. 60.

'*Was* *you* in the office?'—Att. Gen. Ibm. 68.

This use of *was* is from the Gothic dialect; but it is primitive and correct."—Webster's Imp. Grammar, p. 25.

POTENTIAL MODE.*
Indefinite Tense.

SINGULAR.

I may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* be.
 { Thou mayest, canst, must, mightest, couldst, wouldst or shouldst
 n be.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* be.
 He may, can, must, might, could would or should *n* be.

PLURAL.

We may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* be.
 { Ye may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* be.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* be.
 They may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* be.

Prior-present, or Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

I may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* have been.
 { Thou mayest, canst, must, mightest, couldst, wouldst or
 shouldst *n* have been.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* have been.

PLURAL.

We may, can, must, might, could would or should *n* have been.
 { Ye may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* have been.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* have been.
 They may, can, must, might, could, would or should *n* have been.

NOTE. *Were* is sometimes used in the third person singular, in the Potential mode, for *would be*; as "That *were* low indeed." Milt. "It *were* easy." Miller's Letters, p. 281, for, it *would be* easy. "For that *were* to imagine people to be reasonable."—*would be*. Bacon on Kingdoms.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Conjugate this verb in the common form of the subjunctive as directed on page 46; thus.

If I am <i>n</i>	If We are <i>n</i>
{ If Thou art <i>n</i>	{ If Ye are <i>n</i>
{ If You are <i>n</i>	{ If You are <i>n</i>
If He is <i>n</i>	If They are <i>n</i> &c.

* Synopsis of the old paradigm of this mode. Prest. I may, can or must be. Prior-present. I may, can or must have been. Past. I might, could, would or should be. Prior-past. I might, could, would or should have been.

‡ Subjunctive Forms.

Present Tense.

Hypothetical Forms.

If I were <i>n</i>	If We were <i>n</i>
{ If Thou wert <i>n</i>	{ If Ye were <i>n</i>
{ If You was or were <i>n</i>	{ If You were <i>n</i>
If He were <i>n</i>	If They were <i>n</i>
Were I <i>n</i>	Were We <i>n</i>
{ Wert Thou <i>n</i>	{ Were Ye <i>n</i>
{ Were You <i>n</i>	{ Were You <i>n</i>
Were He <i>n</i>	Were They <i>n</i>

NOTE I. These forms have one meaning, and are put in the present tense because they denote *present time*; which is the only *proper rule* by which to determine the tense of a verb; and, moreover, most grammarians define this form of the verb as having a *present signification*, though many put it in the past tense, which shows that they are governed more by the form of the verb, than by the *time* of the action.

NOTE 2. *If I were*, implies, I am *not*; *If I were not*, implies, I am. "No fault is more common," says Webster, "than the misapplication of this tense."

"The following is the true sense of *were* in the singular number—'Were it necessary for you to take your books with you,'—Judge Parker, Selfridge's Trial, p. 159. 'If it *were* possible, they would deceive the elect.'—Mat. xxiv, 24. This is the only legitimate use of this tense."

"*Were* it not lamentable."—Latrobe's Rambler,—for, *if it were not lamentable*.

Past Tense.

Hypothetical Forms.

If I had <i>n</i> been	If We had <i>n</i> been
{ If Thou hadst <i>n</i> been	{ If Ye had <i>n</i> been
{ If You had <i>n</i> been	{ If You had <i>n</i> been
If He had <i>n</i> been	If They had <i>n</i> been
Had I <i>n</i> been	Had we <i>n</i> been
{ Hadst thou <i>n</i> been	{ Had ye <i>n</i> been
{ Had you <i>n</i> been	{ Had you <i>n</i> been
Had he <i>n</i> been	Had they <i>n</i> been

NOTE. *Had I been*, implies that I had *not* been; and *had I not been*, implies that I *had* been: as,

"*Had* the colonists and the Indians *been* men without interests, passions, and vices, occasions of collision and bloodshed on both sides might have been avoided."—Everett's Address, September 30, 1835.

"*Had* these only *been* realized, the expenditures of the year would have been also proportionally reduced."—J. Q. Adams' Message, Dec. 2, 1828.

"*Had* he *been* more a man of facts, one less under the influence of his own imagination; *had* it *been* his good fortune to live even in contact with those he now so devoutly worshipped, in a political sense at least, their influence over a mind as just and clear-sighted as his own, would soon have ceased."—Cooper's *Two Admirals*, Vol. 2, p. 45.

Future Tense.

Elliptical Form.

If I be <i>n</i>	If We be <i>n</i>
{ If Thou be <i>n</i>	{ If Ye be <i>n</i>
{ If You be <i>n</i>	{ If You be <i>n</i>
If He be <i>n</i>	If They be <i>n</i>

NOTE. This form is often used in the present, but *improperly*. Grammarians generally define it as having a future signification, though many put it in the present tense; which has greatly promoted the *improper* use of this form of the verb in the present. The verb is without the sign of the future—*If he be*, for *If he shall be*.

IMPERATIVE MODE.*

Be *n*, be thou *n*, do *n* thou be, Be *n*, be ye *n*, do *n* you be, do
or do *n* be you *n* be, or do *n* be.

PARTICIPLES.

Present,	Being
Perfect,	Been
Compound Perfect,	Having been

* The verb in the imperative mode, is essentially future, for a command cannot be obeyed during its utterance, and consequently must be future; as, "Go, sell what thou hast, and give to the poor, and come and follow me." Here are five verbs in the imperative, all which were of necessity to be obeyed after they were uttered.

This doctrine of the imperative is sustained in the able article of De War. See Edin. Encycl. (Brewster,) Art. Gram.

Exercises On The Verb Be.

To be. Am, was, been. It is. Thou art. Thou wast. I was. We are. They were. Thou hast been. He has been. We have been. Thou hadst not been. He had been. You have not been. She has been. We were not. They had been. We are not. I am not.

I shall be. Thou shalt be. We shall be. Thou wilt be. They shall not be. It will be. Thou wilt have been. We have been. They will have been. We shall have been. I am. It is not.

I can be. Thou mayest be. Thou canst not be. She may be. You may be. He must be. They should be. Thou mightest be. He would be. It could not be. Thou wouldst be. You could not be. He may have been. Thou wast. He had been. They were.

We may have been. Thou mayest have been. They may have been. I might have been. You should have been. Thou wouldst have been. You was.

If thou art. If we are. If he is. If they are. If thou wert. If we were. If I am. If you are. If I have been. If thou hadst been. If she shall be. If he be. If we be. If they be. If he could be. If I should be. If they must be.

Be thou. Be ye. Do ye be. Be. Being. Been. To have been. Having been. If I be.

Parse the verb in each example thus: *Is*, is a verb, because it asserts being—root, to be—principal parts; present, am; past, was; perf. part. been—it is intransitive, it cannot take an object after it; indicative mode, it simply asserts being; present tense, it denotes present time; and in the third person, singular number, to agree with its nom. *it*, according to Rule II., (which repeat.)

Write on the black board or slate, the third person singular, throughout the conjugation, and then the second person singular, then the participles—then the root and principle parts.

INTERROGATIVE CONJUNCTION OF

Be.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Am I <i>n</i> ?	Are we <i>n</i> ?
{ Art thou <i>n</i> ?	{ Are ye <i>n</i> ?
{ Are you <i>n</i> ?	{ Are you <i>n</i> ?
Is he <i>n</i> ?	Are they <i>n</i> ?

Prior-Present, or Perfect Tense.

Have I <i>n</i> been?	Have we <i>n</i> been?
{ Hast thou <i>n</i> been?	{ Have ye <i>n</i> been?
{ Have you <i>n</i> been?	{ Have you <i>n</i> been?
Has or hath he <i>n</i> been?	Have they <i>n</i> been?

Past Tense.

Was I <i>n</i> ?	Were we <i>n</i> ?
{ Wast thou <i>n</i> ?	{ Were ye <i>n</i> ?
{ Was, or were you <i>n</i> ?	{ Were you <i>n</i> ?
Was he <i>n</i> ?	Were they <i>n</i> ?

Prior-Past, or Pluperfect Tense.

Had I <i>n</i> been?	Had we <i>n</i> been?
{ Hadst thou <i>n</i> been?	{ Had ye <i>n</i> been?
{ Had you <i>n</i> been?	{ Had you <i>n</i> been?
Had he <i>n</i> been?	Had they <i>n</i> been?

Future Tense.

Shall I <i>n</i> be?	Shall we <i>n</i> be?
{ Shalt thou <i>n</i> be?	{ Shall ye <i>n</i> be?
{ Shall you <i>n</i> be?	{ Shall you <i>n</i> be?
Shall he <i>n</i> be?	Shall they <i>n</i> be?

Prior-Future Tense.

Shall I <i>n</i> have been?	Shall we <i>n</i> have been?
{ Shalt thou <i>n</i> have been?	{ Shall ye <i>n</i> have been?
{ Shall you <i>n</i> have been?	{ Shall you <i>n</i> have been?
Shall he <i>n</i> have been?	Shall they <i>n</i> have been?

The auxiliaries are the same as in the affirmative, but I have left some of them out in the future tenses of the interrogative conjugation, for the sake of brevity.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Indefinite Tense.

May I <i>n</i> be?	May we <i>n</i> be?
{ Mayest thou <i>n</i> be?	{ May ye <i>n</i> be?
{ May you <i>n</i> be?	{ May you <i>n</i> be?
May he <i>n</i> be?	May they <i>n</i> be?

Prior-Present, or Perfect Tense.

May I <i>n</i> have been?	May we <i>n</i> have been?
{ Mayest thou <i>n</i> have been?	{ May ye <i>n</i> have been?
{ May you <i>n</i> have been?	{ May you <i>n</i> have been?
May he <i>n</i> have been?	May they <i>n</i> have been?

Conjugate, with the other auxiliaries, in the same way.

Exercises.

Can I be? Mayest thou be? Must he be? Might we be? Could ye be? Should you be? Would they be?

Am I? Is he? Art thou? Are they? Was you? Were we? Wast thou? Have I been? Has he been? Hast thou not been? Have they been? Have you not been? Had he been? Had you not been? Hadst thou been? Had I been? Have they not been? Have we been? Shall you be? Wilt thou have been?

Shall he be? Shalt thou be? Will they have been? Shall we have been? Shall it be? Will they be? Shall we have been?

May I have been? May he have been? Canst thou have been? Could we have been? Might ye have been? Should they have been? Would we have been? Mightest thou have been?

Parse the verb in each of these exercises, as in the preceding.

Write examples of interrogative sentences on the black board, and in your book.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

A verb is called *Regular*, when it forms its past tense and perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present; as, pres. *love*; past, *loved*; perf. part. *loved*.

All other verbs are called *Irregular*.

THE CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR TRANSITIVE VERB,

To Love.

IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

ROOT. To Love.

PRINCIPAL PARTS, Love, loved, loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

To love.

Prior-Present Tense.

To have loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

I love <i>n</i>	We love <i>n</i>
{ Thou lovest <i>n</i>	{ Ye love <i>n</i>
{ You love <i>n</i>	{ You love <i>n</i>
He loves or loveth <i>n</i>	They love <i>n</i>

With the auxiliary *do*.

I do <i>n</i> love	We do <i>n</i> love
{ Thou dost <i>n</i> love	{ Ye do <i>n</i> love
{ You do <i>n</i> love	{ You do <i>n</i> love
He does or doth <i>n</i> love	They do <i>n</i> love

Prior-Present Tense.

I have <i>n</i> loved	We have <i>n</i> loved
{ Thou hast <i>n</i> loved	{ Ye have <i>n</i> loved
{ You have <i>n</i> loved	{ You have <i>n</i> loved
He has or hath <i>n</i> loved	They have <i>n</i> loved

Past Tense.

I loved <i>n</i>	We loved <i>n</i>
{ Thou lovedst	{ Ye loved <i>n</i>
{ You loved <i>n</i>	{ You loved <i>n</i>
He loved <i>n</i>	They loved <i>n</i>

With the auxiliary *did*.

I did <i>n</i> love	We did <i>n</i> love
{ Thou didst <i>n</i> love	{ Ye did <i>n</i> love
{ You did <i>n</i> love	{ You did <i>n</i> love
He did <i>n</i> love	They did <i>n</i> love

Prior Past.

I had <i>n</i> loved	We had <i>n</i> loved
{ Thou hadst <i>n</i> loved	{ Ye had <i>n</i> loved
{ You had <i>n</i> loved	{ You had <i>n</i> loved
He had <i>n</i> loved	They had <i>n</i> loved

Future Tense.

I shall or will <i>n</i> love	We shall or will <i>n</i> love
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> love	{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> love
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> love	{ You shall or will <i>n</i> love
He shall or will <i>n</i> love	They shall or will <i>n</i> love

Prior-future Tense.

I shall <i>n</i> have loved	We shall <i>n</i> have loved
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> have loved	{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> have loved
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have loved	{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have loved
He shall or will <i>n</i> have loved	They shall or will <i>n</i> have loved

POTENTIAL MODE.

Indefinite Tense.

I may <i>n</i> love	We may <i>n</i> love
{ Thou mayest <i>n</i> love	{ Ye may <i>n</i> love
{ You may <i>n</i> love	{ You may <i>n</i> love
He may <i>n</i> love	They may <i>n</i> love

Prior-present Tense.

I may <i>n</i> have loved	We may <i>n</i> have loved
{ Thou mayest <i>n</i> have loved	{ Ye may <i>n</i> have loved
{ You may <i>n</i> have loved	{ You may <i>n</i> have loved
He may <i>n</i> have loved	They may <i>n</i> have loved

In the same way, with the auxiliaries, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would* and *should*; throughout this mode.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Conjugate *love*, in the common form of the subjunctive as directed on page 46: thus

Present Tense.

If I love <i>n</i>	If we love <i>n</i>
{ If thou lovest <i>n</i>	{ If ye love <i>n</i>
{ If you love <i>n</i>	{ If you love <i>n</i>
If he loves or loveth <i>n</i>	If they love <i>n</i> &c.

The learner should prefix the sign of condition in the same way throughout, the indicative and potential mode, to form the subjunctive.

‡ *Subjunctive Forms.*

NOTE. "Some authors omit the personal terminations in the second and third persons present, *if thou love*, *if he love*,—which I deem contrary to the principles of our language." Webster.

Besides the common form of the subjunctive, there are *hypothetical forms* of the present and past, and an *elliptical form* of the future.

Present Tense.

Hypothetical Forms.

If I loved <i>n</i>	If we loved <i>n</i>
{ If thou lovedst <i>n</i>	{ If ye loved <i>n</i>
{ If you loved <i>n</i>	{ If you loved <i>n</i>
If he loved <i>n</i>	If they loved <i>n</i>
Did I <i>n</i> love	Did we <i>n</i> love
{ Didst thou <i>n</i> love	{ Did ye <i>n</i> love
{ Did you <i>n</i> love	{ Did you <i>n</i> love
Did he <i>n</i> love	Did they <i>n</i> love

N. B. There is an idiomatic peculiarity in the subjunctive forms. When I say, "*if it rains*," it is understood that I am not *certain*, whether it rains or not: but when I say, "*if it rained*, we should be obliged to seek shelter;" it is understood that I am certain it *does not rain*. If I say, "*if it did not rain*, I would take a walk;" I convey the idea that it *does rain*, at the time of speaking, *If it rained*, or *did it rain*, in the present time, implies, it does not rain; *if it did not rain*, or *did it not rain*, in present time, implies that it *does rain*; thus in this peculiarity, an *affirmative* sentence always implies a *negation*, and a *negative sentence*, an *affirmation*.

Past Tense.

Hypothetical Forms.

If I had <i>n</i> loved	If we had <i>n</i> loved
{ If thou hadst <i>n</i> loved	{ If ye had <i>n</i> loved
{ If you had <i>n</i> loved	{ If you had <i>n</i> loved
If he had <i>n</i> loved	If they had <i>n</i> loved
Had I <i>n</i> loved	Had we <i>n</i> loved
{ Hadst thou <i>n</i> loved	{ Had ye <i>n</i> loved
{ Had you <i>n</i> loved	{ Had you <i>n</i> loved
Had he <i>n</i> loved	Had they <i>n</i> loved

In these forms also, an affirmative sentence implies a negation, and a negative sentence, an affirmation: thus, *had he loved* implies *he had not loved*, &c. "Had ye endured like those great sufferers." Hillhouse' Scene from Hadad—for *if ye had endured*.

Future Tense.

Elliptical Form.

If I love <i>n</i>	If we love <i>n</i>
{ If thou love <i>n</i>	{ If ye love <i>n</i>
{ If you love <i>n</i>	{ If you love <i>n</i>
If he love <i>n</i>	If they love <i>n</i>

NOTE. *If I love*, &c., for *If I shall or will love*, &c. "In the future tense the auxiliary may be, and often is, suppressed."

"It is further to be remarked, that *should* is very often used to form the conditional future—*if I should*, *thou shouldst*, &c. This tense is inflected like the past tense, but is probably more used for the conditional future than *shall* and *will*." "The other auxiliaries also (*might*, *could* and *would*) in the past time are used in this conditional mode in a very indefinite sense."

[Webster's Improved Grammar, p. 68.]

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Love <i>n</i>	Love <i>n</i>
Do <i>n</i> love	Do <i>n</i> love
Do thou <i>n</i> love	Do ye or you <i>n</i> love
Do you <i>n</i> love	

PARTICIPLES.

Present,	Loving
Perfect,	Loved
Comp. Perf.	Having loved

Exercises on the Verb Love.

He loves. We love. Thou lovest. She loveth. You love. They loved. Thou lovedst. We loved. He loved. You have loved. We have loved. He hath loved. Thou hast loved.

We had loved. She had loved. Thou hadst loved. They had loved. You shall love. He will love. They shall love. To love. Thou shalt have loved. He will have loved. To have loved. It may love. He might love. Thou shouldst love.

We can have loved. They might have loved. You should have loved. Love thou. If he loves. Though they love. Admit he loved. If they loved. If you have loved. If we had loved. If thou hadst loved. If we shall love. If you will have loved. If they shall have loved. If they can love. If thou canst love.

If we might love. If you could love. If they may have loved.

If thou couldst have loved. If you should have loved. Loving Loved. Love ye. Do ye love.

Parse the verb in each exercise after the following

Model.

Loves is a verb, because it asserts action; root, to love; principal parts—pres. love—past, loved—perf. part, loved; regular, it forms its past tense, and perf. part, by adding *d* to the present; transitive, the action can pass over to an object; active voice, the action is performed by the subject or nominative; indicative mode, the action is simply asserted; present tense it denotes present time; and in the third person, singular number, to agree with its nominative *he*, according to rule II. (which repeat.)

Parse the names and verbs in the following

Exercises.

The boy writes. The boat sails. The sun rises. The stars twinkle. The horse runs. The boys play. Grass grows. Men labor. Children play. Is it James? Will Thomas come? Shall the messenger depart? The lady can sing. The musician can play. Go thou. Depart in peace.

INTERROGATIVE CONJUNCTION OF

Love.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Love I <i>n</i> ?	Love we <i>n</i> ?
{ Lovest thou <i>n</i> ?	{ Love ye <i>n</i> ?
{ Love you <i>n</i> ?	{ Love you <i>n</i> ?
Loves or loveth he <i>n</i> ?	Love they <i>n</i> ?

The foregoing form is but little used. The following is the usual form of asking questions.

Do I <i>n</i> -love?	Do we <i>n</i> love?
{ Dost thou <i>n</i> love?	{ Do ye <i>n</i> love?
{ Do you <i>n</i> love?	{ Do you <i>n</i> love?
Does or doth he <i>n</i> love?	Do they <i>n</i> love?

Prior-Present Tense.

Have I <i>n</i> loved?	Have we <i>n</i> loved?
{ Hast thou <i>n</i> loved?	{ Have ye <i>n</i> loved?
{ Have you <i>n</i> loved?	{ Have you <i>n</i> loved?
Has or hath he <i>n</i> loved?	Have they <i>n</i> loved?

Past Tense.

Did I <i>n</i> love?	Did we <i>n</i> love?
{ Didst thou <i>n</i> love?	{ Did ye <i>n</i> love?
{ Did you <i>n</i> love?	{ Did you <i>n</i> love?
Did he <i>n</i> love?	Did they <i>n</i> love?

The other form of this tense—*loved he?*—is seldom used.

Prior-Past Tense.

Had I <i>n</i> loved?	Had we <i>n</i> loved?
{ Hadst thou <i>n</i> loved?	{ Had ye <i>n</i> loved?
{ Had you <i>n</i> loved?	{ Had you <i>n</i> loved?
Had he <i>n</i> loved?	Had they <i>n</i> loved?

Future Tense.

Shall I <i>n</i> love?	Shall we <i>n</i> love?
{ Shalt or wilt thou <i>n</i> love?	{ Shall or will ye <i>n</i> love?
{ Shall or will you <i>n</i> love?	{ Shall or will you <i>n</i> love?
Shall or will he <i>n</i> love?	Shall or will they <i>n</i> love?

Prior-Future Tense.

Shall I <i>n</i> have loved?	Shall we <i>n</i> have loved?
{ Shalt or wilt thou <i>n</i> have loved?	{ Shall or will ye <i>n</i> have loved?
{ Shall or will you <i>n</i> have loved?	{ Shall or will you <i>n</i> have loved?
Shall or will he <i>n</i> have loved?	Shall or will they <i>n</i> have loved?

POTENTIAL MODE.

Indefinite Tense.

May I <i>n</i> love?	May we <i>n</i> love?
{ Mayest thou <i>n</i> love?	{ May ye <i>n</i> love?
{ May you <i>n</i> love?	{ May you <i>n</i> love?
May he <i>n</i> love?	May they <i>n</i> love?

In the same way with the other auxiliaries of this tense.

Prior-Present Tense.

May I <i>n</i> have loved?	May we <i>n</i> have loved?
{ Mayest thou <i>n</i> have loved?	{ May ye <i>n</i> have loved?
{ May you <i>n</i> have loved?	{ May you <i>n</i> have loved?
May he <i>n</i> have loved?	May they <i>n</i> have loved?

In the same way with the other auxiliaries of this tense.

Exercises.

Does he love? Do we love? Dost thou love? Does she love?
Did it love? Did I love? Did you love? Have they loved?
Hast thou loved? Had we loved? Had you loved?

Shall we love? Will they love? Shalt thou have loved?
Shall they have loved? Canst thou love? May it love? Could
they love? Wouldst thou love? Can he have loved? Could
you have loved? Would they have loved?

Parse the verb in each of these examples according to the
model given.

CONJUGATION OF LOVE, WITH THE AUXILIARY,

*Be.**

ROOT. To be loving.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Am loving, Was loving, Been loving,

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

To be loving.

Prior-present Tense.

To have been loving.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

I am <i>n</i> loving	We are <i>n</i> loving
{ Thou art <i>n</i> loving	{ Ye are <i>n</i> loving
{ You are <i>n</i> loving	{ You are <i>n</i> loving
He is <i>n</i> loving	They are <i>n</i> loving

* This form constitutes what some grammarians call the *definite* tenses; but if it is any more definite than the other form, it must be only *conventionally so*; for the present participle *loving*, is indefinite, as well as the present tense *loves, am, &c.*, and it is impossible for two indefinite words, of themselves, to constitute one definite one. *Is writing*, is, conventionally, more definite than *writes*: but it will be difficult, on careful reflection, to perceive that *was writing*, or *shall be writing*, is any more definite than *wrote* or *shall write*. To say that the participle in *ing* renders the tenses definite, is to make that participle, the *definite present*, the *definite past*, and the *definite future*: which is to say that it possesses *definitely*, all the qualities that constitute a tense *indefinite*.

Prior-present Tense.

I have <i>n</i> been loving	We have <i>n</i> been loving
{ Thou hast <i>n</i> been loving	{ Ye have <i>n</i> been loving
{ You have <i>n</i> been loving	{ You have <i>n</i> been loving
He has or hath <i>n</i> been loving	They have <i>n</i> been loving

Past Tense.

I was <i>n</i> loving	We were <i>n</i> loving
{ Thou wast <i>n</i> loving	{ Ye were <i>n</i> loving
{ You was or were <i>n</i> loving	{ You were <i>n</i> loving
He was <i>n</i> loving	They were <i>n</i> loving

Prior-Past Tense.

I had <i>n</i> been loving	We had <i>n</i> been loving
{ Thou hadst <i>n</i> been loving	{ Ye had <i>n</i> been loving
{ You had <i>n</i> been loving	{ You had <i>n</i> been loving
He had <i>n</i> been loving	They had <i>n</i> been loving

Future Tense.

I shall or will <i>n</i> be loving	We shall or will <i>n</i> be loving
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> be loving	{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> be loving
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> be loving	{ You shall or will <i>n</i> be loving
He shall or will <i>n</i> be loving	They shall or will <i>n</i> be loving

Prior-Future Tense.

I shall <i>n</i> have been loving	We shall <i>n</i> have been loving
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> have been loving	{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> have been loving
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have been loving	{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have been loving
He shall or will <i>n</i> have been loving	They shall or will <i>n</i> have been loving

POTENTIAL MODE.

Indefinite Tense.

I may <i>n</i> be loving	We may <i>n</i> be loving
{ Thou mayest <i>n</i> be loving	{ Ye may <i>n</i> be loving
{ You may <i>n</i> be loving	{ You may <i>n</i> be loving
He may <i>n</i> be loving	They may <i>n</i> be loving

In the same way with all the auxiliaries of this tense.

Prior-present Tense.

I may <i>n</i> have been loving	We may <i>n</i> have been loving
{ Thou mayest <i>n</i> have been loving	{ Ye may <i>n</i> have been loving
{ You may <i>n</i> have been loving	{ You may <i>n</i> have been loving
He may <i>n</i> have been loving	They may <i>n</i> have been loving

In the same way with the other auxiliaries of this tense.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Conjugate this verb through the common form of the subjunctive as directed on page 46.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

This form is seldom used in the imperative.

Exercises.

He is loving. Thou art loving. I am loving. You are loving. We were loving. You was loving. They were loving. Thou hadst been loving. She had been loving. We had been loving.

It will be loving. They shall be loving.

You will have been loving. They shall have been loving. Thou wilt have been loving.

We may be loving. Thou shouldst be loving. I would be loving. He could be loving. They can have been loving. We might have been loving. You should have been loving.

Parse the verb in each of the foregoing examples, as in the model previously given.

NOTE. It will be perceived that this form of the verb is parsed in the same way in which the other form is parsed. The present participle in this form, has no better claim to be parsed, as a participle, separate from its auxiliary *is*, than the perfect participle has, in the passive voice; and therefore it should always be parsed as a verb.

‡ INTERROGATIVE FORM WITH THE AUXILIARY

Be.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Am I <i>n</i> loving?	Are we <i>n</i> loving?
{ Art thou <i>n</i> loving?	{ Are ye <i>n</i> loving?
{ Are you <i>n</i> loving?	{ Are you <i>n</i> loving?
Is he <i>n</i> loving?	Are they <i>n</i> loving?

Prior-Present Tense.

Have I <i>n</i> been loving?	Have we <i>n</i> been loving?
{ Hast thou <i>n</i> been loving?	{ Have ye <i>n</i> been loving?
{ Have you <i>n</i> been loving?	{ Have you <i>n</i> been loving?
Has or hath he <i>n</i> been loving?	Have they <i>n</i> been loving?

Past Tense.

Was I <i>n</i> loving?	Were we <i>n</i> loving?
{ Wast thou <i>n</i> loving?	{ Were ye <i>n</i> loving?
{ Was or were you <i>n</i> loving?	{ Were you <i>n</i> loving?
Was he <i>n</i> loving?	Were they <i>n</i> loving?

Prior-past Tense.

Had I <i>n</i> been loving?	Had we <i>n</i> been loving?
{ Hadst thou <i>n</i> been loving?	{ Had ye <i>n</i> been loving?
{ Had you <i>n</i> been loving?	{ Had you <i>n</i> been loving?
Had he <i>n</i> been loving?	Had they <i>n</i> been loving?

Future Tense.

Shall I <i>n</i> be loving?	Shall we <i>n</i> be loving?
{ Shalt or wilt thou <i>n</i> be loving?	{ Shall or will ye <i>n</i> be loving?
{ Shall or will you <i>n</i> be loving?	{ Shall or will you <i>n</i> be loving?
Shall or will he <i>n</i> be loving?	Shall or will they <i>n</i> be loving?

PRIOR FUTURE. This form of the verb is little used in this tense.

Will, is not elegant, in the first person, in this tense.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Indefinite Tense.

May I <i>n</i> be loving?	May we <i>n</i> be loving?
{ Mayest thou <i>n</i> be loving?	{ May ye <i>n</i> be loving?
{ May you <i>n</i> be loving?	{ May you <i>n</i> be loving?
May he <i>n</i> be loving?	May they <i>n</i> be loving?

In the same way with the auxiliaries can, must, might, could, would and should. This form is little used in this tense.

REMARK 1. The same sentence cannot be a question and command at the same time, hence there is no interrogative form in the imperative mode.

REMARK 2. The learner should observe that in interrogative sentences, the nominative follows the verb, when alone; and the first auxiliary, when one or more are used; and the sign of negation, *not*, (and generally *never*.) comes immediately after the nominative.

Exercises.

Art thou loving? Are they loving? Am I loving? Was he loving? Were they loving? Were you loving? Have they been loving? Has he been loving? Has it been loving? Canst thou be loving? May we be loving? Could they be loving? Should he be loving?

Parse the verb in each example, and write several questions.

REMARK. The learner will perceive that in all the preceding forms of the verb *love*, it asserts the action of the subject or nominative; hence it is active and belongs to the active voice.

PASSIVE VOICE.

The Passive Voice is formed by adding the perfect participle of a transitive verb in the active voice to the verb *be* in all its inflections.

NOTE 1. In this combination the perfect participle is *passive*; but otherwise it is active.

NOTE 2. Action, which cannot pass over to an object, cannot be received or suffered; hence intransitive verbs cannot have a passive voice.

Display of the Active and Passive Voices.

<i>Intr. Verb BE.</i>	<i>Active Voice.</i>	<i>Passive Voice.</i>
I am	I love	I am loved
Thou art	Thou lovest	Thou art loved
He is	He loves	He is loved
We are	We love	We are loved
You are	You love	You are loved
They are	They love	They are loved

THE CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR TRANSITIVE VERB,

Love.

IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

ROOT. To be loved.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Am loved, Was loved, Loved, or been loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

To be loved.

Prior-present Tense.

To have been loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

I am <i>n</i> loved	We are <i>n</i> loved
{ Thou art <i>n</i> loved	{ Ye are <i>n</i> loved
{ You are <i>n</i> loved	{ You are <i>n</i> loved
He is <i>n</i> loved	They are <i>n</i> loved

Prior-Present Tense.

I have <i>n</i> been loved	We have <i>n</i> been loved
{ Thou hast <i>n</i> been loved	{ Ye have <i>n</i> been loved
{ You have <i>n</i> been loved	{ You have <i>n</i> been loved
He has or hath <i>n</i> been loved	They have <i>n</i> been loved

Past Tense.

I was <i>n</i> loved	We were <i>n</i> loved
{ Thou wast <i>n</i> loved	{ Ye were <i>n</i> loved
{ You was or were <i>n</i> loved	{ You were <i>n</i> loved
He was <i>n</i> loved	They were <i>n</i> loved

Prior-Past Tense.

I had <i>n</i> been loved	We had <i>n</i> been loved
{ Thou hadst <i>n</i> been loved	{ Ye had <i>n</i> been loved
{ You had <i>n</i> been loved	{ You had <i>n</i> been loved
He had <i>n</i> been loved	They had <i>n</i> been loved

Future Tense.

I shall or will <i>n</i> be loved	We shall or will <i>n</i> be loved
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> be loved	{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> be loved
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> be loved	{ You shall or will <i>n</i> be loved
He shall or will <i>n</i> be loved	They shall or will <i>n</i> be loved

Prior-Future Tense.

I shall <i>n</i> have been loved	We shall <i>n</i> have been loved
{ Thou shalt or wilt <i>n</i> have been loved	{ Ye shall or will <i>n</i> have been loved
{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have been loved	{ You shall or will <i>n</i> have been loved
He shall or will <i>n</i> have been loved	They shall or will <i>n</i> have been loved

POTENTIAL MODE.

Indefinite Tense.

I may <i>n</i> be loved	We may <i>n</i> be loved
{ Thou mayest <i>n</i> be loved	{ Ye may <i>n</i> be loved
{ You may <i>n</i> be loved	{ You may <i>n</i> be loved
He may <i>n</i> be loved	They may <i>n</i> be loved

Prior-Present Tense.

I may <i>n</i> have been loved	We may <i>n</i> have been loved
{ Thou mayest <i>n</i> have been loved	{ Ye may <i>n</i> have been loved
{ You may <i>n</i> have been loved	{ You may <i>n</i> have been loved
He may <i>n</i> have been loved	They may <i>n</i> have been loved

In the same way with the auxiliaries can, must, might, could, would and should.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Besides the common forms of this mode, there are the following

‡ *Subjunctive Forms.**Present Tense.*

Hypothetical Forms.

If I were <i>n</i> loved	If we were <i>n</i> loved
{ If thou wert <i>n</i> loved	{ If ye were <i>n</i> loved
{ If you was or were <i>n</i> loved	{ If you were <i>n</i> loved
If he were <i>n</i> loved	If they were <i>n</i> loved
Were I <i>n</i> loved	Were we <i>n</i> loved
{ Wert thou <i>n</i> loved	{ Were ye <i>n</i> loved
{ Were you <i>n</i> loved	{ Were you <i>n</i> loved
Were he <i>n</i> loved	Were they <i>n</i> loved

NOTE. *If I were loved*, and, *were I loved*, imply, I am not loved; *if I were not loved*, and, *were I not loved*, imply, I am loved, A negative sentence implies an affirmation; and an affirmative sentence implies a negation, in these forms of the subjunctive.

Past Tense.

Hypothetical Forms.

If I had <i>n</i> been loved	If we had <i>n</i> been loved
{ If thou hadst <i>n</i> been loved	{ If ye had <i>n</i> been loved
{ If you had <i>n</i> been loved	{ If you had <i>n</i> been loved
If he had <i>n</i> been loved	If they had <i>n</i> been loved
Had I <i>n</i> been loved	Had we <i>n</i> been loved
{ Hadst thou <i>n</i> been loved	{ Had ye <i>n</i> been loved
{ Had you <i>n</i> been loved	{ Had you <i>n</i> been loved
Had he <i>n</i> been loved	Had they <i>n</i> been loved

In this form, also, an affirmative sentence implies a negation, and a negative sentence implies an affirmation.

Elliptical Future.

If I be <i>n</i> loved	If we be <i>n</i> loved
{ If thou he <i>n</i> loved	{ If ye be <i>n</i> loved
{ If you be <i>n</i> loved	{ If you be <i>n</i> loved
If he be <i>n</i> loved	If they be <i>n</i> loved

This form is often used in the present tense, but it is, properly, the elliptical future. If I be loved, &c., for, if I shall or will be loved, &c.; and grammarians usually explain it as having a future signification.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Be <i>n</i> loved	Be <i>n</i> loved
{ Be thou <i>n</i> loved	{ Be ye <i>n</i> loved
{ Be you <i>n</i> loved	{ Be you <i>n</i> loved
Do you <i>n</i> be loved*	Do you <i>n</i> be loved

THIRD PERSON.*

Be it <i>n</i> loved	Be they <i>n</i> loved or
Loved be he	Loved be they.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being loved	Perfect, Loved, or been loved
Compound Perfect, Having been loved.	

Exercises.

Thou art loved. We are loved. To be loved. You was loved. He was loved. To have been loved. They were loved. We have been loved. Thou hast been loved. It had been loved. You have been loved. They had been loved. We shall be loved. You will be loved. They will have been loved. He will have been loved.

You may be loved. She can be loved. He might be loved. We could be loved. They should be loved. We could have been loved. They would have been loved. Being loved. Been loved.

Be loved. Be ye loved. Do you be loved. If I am loved. If he is loved. If we were loved. I was loved. If I had been loved.

‡. If thou wert loved. If I were loved. Had he been loved. Were we loved. Wert thou loved. Had I been loved. Hadst thou been loved. Were I loved. If I be loved. If thou be loved. If he be loved. If we be loved. If you be loved.

* The negative *not* is often placed after *do*, and contracted into *don't*.

Parse the verb in each example after the model already given, remembering to give the voice correctly, and the reason of it; then

Change the exercises from the passive, to the active voice.

‡ INTERROGATIVE PASSIVE.

The learner should conjugate the passive verb interrogatively; and, if any further assistance is needed, turn to the interrogative conjugation of *be*, and add the perfect participle *loved*; thus, am I loved? &c.

NOTE 1. Usage authorizes the employment of a few intransitive verbs in the passive form; as, "We are arrived." Blackstone. "When the whole evidence has been gone through." Story. "The army, indeed, is come to fine pass." Junius. "I am come." Barber. "When Saul was come to Jerusalem." Acts ix. 26. This mode of expression is, by no means, the most elegant.

Parse these, and all such expressions, with *intransitive* verbs, without distinction of voice, as if written, "We have arrived."

NOTE 2. There is a kind of passive use of verbs, often employed at the present day, which seems to be faulty; as, "The house is being built." This expression is egregiously *tautological*; for it has two forms of the verb *to be*, in immediate succession, of nearly the same import; moreover, *is built* and *being built*, are both passive forms of the verb; hence *IS BEING BUILT* is a *double passive*.

AGAIN. The passive voice is formed by adding the perfect participle of the active voice to the verb *to be*, but this expression is formed by adding the *present participle passive*, to the verb *to be*, and therefore it cannot be a *proper* passive verb.

This awkward sentence does not properly express the idea intended by it; for *being* is equivalent to *existing*; hence *the house is being built*, is equivalent to, *the house is existing built*. Furthermore, *built*, being a perfect participle, cannot be applied to unfinished action.

ONCE MORE. Conjugate the verb in this form, thus:—Inf. present, to be being built—past, to have been being built. Ind. The house is being built—the house has been being built—the house was being built—the house had been being built—the house shall be being built—the house shall have been being built, &c. This sets this expression in its true light.

The correct expression is, *the house is building*.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

All verbs whose past tense and perfect participle are *not* formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the verb in the present, are called *irregular*.

In the following list of irregular verbs, the *obsolete* and *obsolescent* forms of the past tense and perfect participle, are distinguished in separate columns.

List of Principal Parts.

Present	Past	Perf. Part.	Past Tense Obsolete	Perf. Part. Obsolete.
Abide	abode	abode		
Am*	was	been		
Arise	arose	arisen		
Awake	awoke, R†	R		
Bear	bore	borne	<i>bare</i>	
Beat	beat	beat, beaten		
Become	became	become		
Begin	began, begun	begun		
Bend	bent, R	bent, R		
Bereave	bereft, R	bereft, R		
Beseech	besought	besought		
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid		
Bind	bound	bound		<i>bounden</i>
Bite	bit	bit, bitten		
Bleed	bled	bled		
Blow	blew	blown		
Break	broke	broke, broken	<i>brake</i>	
Breed	bred	bred		
Bring	brought	brought		
Build	built R	built		
Burst	burst	burst		
Buy	bought	bought		
Cast	cast	cast		
Catch	caught R	caught, R		
Chide	chid	chid		<i>chidden</i>
Choose	chose	chose, chosen		
Cleave, to adhere	R		<i>clave</i>	
Cleave, to split	cleft	cleft, clove, cloven		
Cling	clung	clung		
Clothe	R	clad R		
Come	came, come	come		
Cost	cost	cost		

* *To be* is the root of *am*; to form the roots of all other verbs in the list, the learner has only to prefix the particle *to* to the present.

† *R* indicates that the verbs thus marked have also regular forms in those places.

Present	Past Tense	Perf. Part.	Past Tense Obsolete	Perf. Part. Obsolete.
Crow R				
Creep	crept	crept		
Cut	cut	cut		
Dare, venture, durst, R		R		
Dare, to challenge R				
Deal	dealt	dealt		
Dig	dug R	dug R		
Do	did	done		
Draw	drew	drawn		
Drive	drove	driven, drove	<i>drave</i>	
Drink	drank	drank		<i>drunken, drunk</i>
Dwell	dwelt R	dwelt R		
Eat	ate	eat, eaten		
Engrave	R	engraven R		
Fall	fell	fallen		
Feed	fed	fed		
Feel	felt	felt		
Fight	fought	fought		
Find	found	found		
Flee	fled	fled		
Fly	flew	flown		
Fling	flung	flung		
Forget	forgot	forgot, forgotten	<i>forgot</i>	
Forsake	forsook	forsaken		
Freeze	froze	frozen, froze		
Get	got	got, gotten	<i>gat</i>	
Gild	gilt R	gilt R		
Gird	girt R	girt R		
Give	gave	given		
Go	went	gone		
Grave	R	graven R		
Grind	ground	ground		
Grow	grew	grown		
Have	had	had		
Hang	hung R	hung R*		
Hear	heard	heard		
Hew	R	hewn R		
Hide	hid	hid, hidden		
Hit	hit	hit		
Hold	held	held		<i>holden</i>
Hurt	hurt	hurt		
Keep	kept	kept		
Knit	knit	knit		
Know	knew	known		

* "*Hang*, to take away life, is regular; as, the robber was *hanged* but the gown was *hung up*."—Bullions' Gram. In the above examples, *hang* is transitive; it is often, however, used intransitively; as, the hat hangs on a pin.

Present	Past	Perf. Part.	Past Tense Obsolete	Perf. Part. Obsolete
Lado	R	laden		
Lay	laid	laid		
Lead	led	led		
Leave	left	left		
Lend	lent	lent		
Let	let	let		
Lie (down)	lay	lain		
Load	R	laden R		
Lose	lost	lost		
Make	made	made		
Mean	meant	meant		
Meet	met	met		
Mow	R	mown R		
Pay	paid	paid		
Put	put	put		
Quit	quit R	quit R		
Read	read	read		
Rend	rent	rent		
Rid	rid	rid		<i>ridden</i>
Ride	rode	rid		
Ring	rung, rang	rung		
Rise	rose	risen		
Rive	R	riven R		
Run	run, ran	run		
Saw	R	sawn R		
Say	said	said		
See	saw	seen		
Seek	sought	sought		
Sell	sold	sold		
Send	sent	sent		
Set	set	set		
Shake	shook	shaken, shook		
Shape	R			<i>shapen</i>
Shave	R			<i>shaven</i>
Shear	R	shorn R		
Shed	shed	shed		
Shine	shone R	shone R		
Shew	shewn	shewn (Pron. show, &c.)		
Show	R	shown R		
Shoe	shod	shod		
Shoot	shot	shot		
Shrink	shrank	shrunk		
Shred	shred	shred		
Shut	shut	shut		
Sing	sung	sung	<i>sang</i>	
Sink	sunk	sunk	<i>sank</i>	
Sit	sat	sat		<i>sitten</i>
Slay	slew	slain		
Sleep	slept	slept		
Slide	slid	slid		<i>slidden</i>

Present	Past	Perf. Part.	Past Tense Obsolete	Perf. Part. Obsolete.
Sling	slung	slung		
Slink	slunk	slunk		
Slit	slit R	slit R		
Smite	smote	smitten, smit		
Sow	R	sown R		
Speak	spoke	spoke, spoken	<i>spake</i>	
Speed	sped	sped		
Spend	spent	spent		
Spill	spilt R	spilt R		
Spin	spun	spun		
Spit	spit	spit	<i>spat</i>	<i>spitten</i>
Split	split	split		
Spread	spread	spread		
Spring	sprung	sprung	<i>sprang</i>	
Stand	stood	stood		
Steal	stole	stole, stolen		
Sting	stung	stung		
Stink	stunk	stunk	<i>stank</i>	
Stick	stuck	stuck		
Stride	strode, strid	strid		<i>stridden</i>
Strike	struck	struck		<i>stricken</i>
String	strung	strung		
Strive	strive	striven		
Strow	R	strown R		
Strew	R			
Swear	swore	sworn	<i>sware</i>	
Sweat	sweat	sweat		
Swell	R			
Swim	swum, swam	swum		<i>swollen</i>
Swing	swung	swung		
Take	took	taken		
Teach	taught	taught		
Tear	tore	torn		
Tell	told	told		
Think	thought	thought		
Thrive	throve R	R		<i>thriven</i>
Throw	threw	thrown		
Thrust	thrust	thrust		
Tread	trod	trod, trodden		
Wax R				
Wear	wore	worn		<i>wazen</i>
Weave	wove	woven, wove		
Weep	wept	wept		
Win	won	won		
Wet	wet R	wet R		
Wind	wound	wound		
Work	wrought R	wrought R		
Wring	wrung R	wrung R		
Write	wrote	written		

ETYMOLOGY.

CONJUGATION.

NOTE 1. The irregular verbs in our language number about one hundred and seventy-seven. They are of three classes.

I. Those whose past tense and perfect participle are the same as the present; as, beat, burst, cast.

II. Those whose past tense and perfect participle are alike, but different from the present; as, meet, met; sell, sold.

III. Those in which the present, past tense and perfect participle all differ; as, know, knew, known.

NOTE 2. Some regular verbs suffer a contraction of *ed* into *t*, as, snatcht for snatched; checkt for checked; snapt for snapped; mixt for mixed; dwelt for dwelled; past for passed. Some have a digraph shortened; as, dream, dreamt; sleep, slept; read, read; deal, dealt.

NOTE 3. *Gat, sang, spake, &c.*, are obsolete forms of the past tense; but their place is well supplied with the modern forms *got, sung, spoke, &c.*, for the sound of *a* in all such cases, was, originally, the broad *a* or *aw*, corresponding, in the Gothic, Saxon, and modern Scotch, nearly with *o* in *spoke*. Therefore, *spoke* is nearer the original than *spake*, as we now pronounce it. *Wrought* is obsolescent.

NOTE 4.—The participials, *fraught, drunken, molten, shorn, bounden* and *cloven*, having lost their verbal character, are used only as attributes.

NOTE 5.—Authority is every thing, in language, and it consists in reputable, national, present usage.

† In the Compound Tenses, the verb is always formed by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary.

It is a very common error, in the use of some of the irregular verbs, to form the compound tenses with the past tense, instead of the perfect participle. Let the learner carefully correct the following examples of incorrect construction upon this point, and give the reason, in each instance.

Incorrect Construction.

TO BE CORRECTED BY THE LEARNER.

The sun had arose. He shall have rose. It has arose. She has awoke. The tree has bore much fruit. He has began. She had bade it depart. The wind had blew very hard. It had came before. I done it myself. He done the work. He had drunk too much. She has ate her dinner. He eat an hour ago. it has fell. The bird had flew. She has forsook him. He has gave a present. They have went home. The child had grew rapidly. The robber was hung.

The hat was hanged on a pin. I have never knew one. She has rode to-day. They rid yesterday. He has ran away. I seen it last week. Has he saw it yet? Samson had slew many men, he had smote them with a jaw-bone. He has strode. They had strove together. He will have swore to the truth. He had took his book. The coat was tore. He has throve. It is wore out. The letter is wrote. He writ yesterday.

Correct, thus:—*Had rose—had risen*, because *risen* is the perfect participle, and *rose* the past tense; the compound tenses must be formed by the participle and not the past tense.

† The following examples are incorrect, because the forms are obsolete. It bare fruit last year. They are bounden. The storm brake the tree yesterday. He was chidden. It clave to him. The cock crew. He drave them out. He has drunk. They have drunken. She forgat her friend. He gat a book. They are holden. The horse was ridden. We are shapen in iniquity. He was shaven. The company sang. The ax sank. She has sitten for her portrait. It has slidden. He spake. He spat. They had spitten on him. It sprang. They have stridden. It was stricken from the list. He sware to it. The part was swollen. They had thriven. They have waxen strong.

Let the learner correct, and give the reason in every case. If any difficulty occurs, refer to the list of irregular verbs.

† DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective verbs are those which are used in only part of the conjugation.

The following list contains the principal ones:

Present Tense	Past Tense	Perf. Part.
May	might	—
Can	could	—
Must	must	—
Will	would	—
Shall	should	—
Ought	ought	—
—	quoth	—
Methinks	methought	—

And *if*, *though* and *although*, which are imperatives; *to wit*, an infinitive, and *during* a present participle. The verbs from which these are derived, are obsolete, except in these forms.

Quoth is entirely obsolete, except in poetry and burlesque, and is chiefly used in the third person, with the nominative following it; as, *quoth he*.

Methinks is in use, but it is not elegant.

III. PRONOUNS, OR SUBSTITUTES.

If I say, James has been going to school, James has learned fast, and James excels; you perceive that I use the word *James* so often that it sounds badly.

The word *James* occurs three times in the sentence. Now I will repeat the sentence, and use the word *James* once, and then use another word instead of *James*, in the other two places.

James has been going to school, *he* has learned fast, and *he* excels. Observe, the word *he* is used twice, in this sentence, instead of the word *James*; and therefore the word *he* stands for the word *James*,—it is a *substitute* for the name, *James*.

The word *Pronoun* means, *for a noun*. The word *he* stands for the noun, *James*; and therefore the word *he* is a *pronoun*. Hence,

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word; as, “The man is happy, he is benevolent, he is useful.”

† Some Pronouns or Substitutes often stand for clauses or sentences; as, The messenger has not returned: *that* is very strange. Here the word *that* stands for the preceding sentence; which will appear by answering this question, What is very strange? The messenger has not returned. All *that* is very strange.

NOTE 1. Pronoun is an appropriate name for this class of words when they stand for *names*, but not when they stand for clauses or sentences. *Substitute* is an appropriate name for them in all cases; for they are *substitutes* for *names, clauses, &c.* as the case may be.

NOTE 2. The principal distinction between nouns and pronouns or substitutes, consists in this; the meaning of a noun is *fixed* and *permanent*, but the meaning of a substitute is *temporary*; e. g. the word *book* is applied to a certain class of things, and to no others; the word *it* may be applied to a book, a table, a child, a bird, an insect, a garden, a field, the world, &c. Some words, commonly called nouns, have much the same character that substitutes have; as witness, opponent, client, visitor.

Hence substitutes may be called a species of nouns.—See Edin. Encycl. Art. Gram.

When Substitutes are used to represent clauses or sentences, their meaning is the complex sentiment of the whole clause which they represent.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The pronouns or substitutes are learned by lists.

LIST 1.—*I, thou* or *you*, *he, she, it*, with their plurals, *we, ye* or *you, they*. These are called personal pronouns, because their forms show what person they are in.

Declension of Personal Pronouns.

		Singular	Plural
1st Person.	{ Nom.	I	We
	{ Poss.	My*	Our
	{ Obj.	Me†	Us
2d Person.	{ Nom.	Thou or you	Ye or you
	{ Poss.	Thy or your	Your
	{ Obj.	Thee or you	You
3d Person, Masculine.	{ Nom.	He	They
	{ Poss.	His	Their
	{ Obj.	Him	Them
3d Person, Feminine.	{ Nom.	She	They
	{ Poss.	Her	Their
	{ Obj.	Her	Them
3d Person.	{ Nom.	It	They
	{ Poss.	Its	Their
	{ Obj.	It	Them

The pronoun of the first person stands for the name of the speaker, that of the second person, for the name of the person addressed, and those of the third person, for the name of the person or thing spoken of.

Gender is applied only to the third person singular; *he, she, it*. The first and second persons being always present, their sex is supposed to be known.

* For an explanation of *mine, thine, &c.* see list 2.

† *Me* and *Not-me* are nouns, in a certain use, in the philosophical language of continental Europe.

"The *me*, and the *not-me* are phrases used to express personality and its opposite, the soul and that which is not the soul, or rather nature."—Meth. Quart. Review, 1842, p. 170.

"Is it not this force, which we call *I, me*, our individuality, our personality—that personality of which we never doubt, which we never confound with any other?"

"The *me*, then, is revealed to us in the character of cause or force."—Cousin's Elements of Psychol.

Exercises.

He respects *me* as *his* friend, and *I* regard *him* as *my* friend. "*Thou* art also of *them*." *Your* interest controls *you*. They respect her wishes, because she has shown them great kindness. Thy friend salutes thee. The lad loves his parents, and they are delighted with him.

Parse the pronouns in the preceding exercises, after the following.

MODEL. *He* is a pronoun, because it stands for a noun; personal, its form shows its person; masculine gender, third person, singular number, to agree with the noun for which it stands; and in the nom. case to *respects*, because it is the subject and agent of the verb, and governs it, according to Rule 1. (which repeat.) Decline *he*.

NOTE. The distinction of gender is to be applied, in parsing, only to *he* and *she*. The pronouns should be disposed of as the nouns, for which they stand, would be.

Now write a sentence with a name, and then another on the same subject, with a pronoun, after this

Model of Composition.

John	writes	letters
he	reads	his books
girls	love	books
they	learn	their lessons

Write several exercises of this kind, and continue them through the pronouns, writing on each list as you proceed.

Foundation of Rule XII. in Syntax.

As an agent or representative is bound to exercise the leading traits of his principal or constituents, when he acts for them; so a pronoun (which may be called the agent, or representative of a noun) must have the leading traits of the noun for which it stands. Hence in Syntax.

RULE XII. Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in person and number; as, John is studious, *he* will excel. Susan is industrious, she will prosper. If they are children, they are heirs.

Now parse all the names, verbs, and pronouns, under Rule 12.

Remarks.

In the Anglo-Saxon, nouns, pronouns and adjectives, have three genders and four cases. Some of our pronouns may be illustrated by the following

Saxon Declension of He.

	M.	F.	N.	Plural, all Genders.
Nom.	he	<i>heo</i>	hit	<i>hi</i>
Gen.	his	hire	<i>his</i>	<i>hira</i>
Dat.	him	hire	<i>him</i>	<i>him</i>
Acc.	<i>hin</i>	<i>hi</i>	hit	<i>hi</i>

All these are inflected forms of *he*, in the Saxon. The parts in italics are not in the present English. Instead of *heo*, we have *she*, from the Saxon definitive, *se—the* or *that*, which see declined at p. 108. *It* has lost the *h*, (*hi-t*—the *t* being added as the sign of the neuter) which has much disguised its character. Instead of the plural, we have *they*, &c. from the Saxon *thage*. See Bosworth's Saxon Gram.

It will be observed, that the most of what follows on the substitutes, is marked for the review. The pupil should not undertake to learn more than the lists, and models of parsing the following substitutes, before the review; but these should be learned at an early stage of his progress.

† IT.

The rain descends upon the earth, and *it* refreshes the plants. Here *it* stands for *rain*, to prevent the repetition of the word *rain*.

The bird was singing most sweetly, but *it* has flown. In this example *it* stands for *bird*.

It, though neuter, is often used in the beginning of sentences for the names of persons, when the name for which it stands follows the verb, thus, *It* was James that informed me. *It* was Henry who possessed such fine rhetorical powers.

It, also stands for the names of persons, as well as things, in interrogative sentences; as, Who is *it*? What is *it*?

It, has in many instances, a kind of impersonal use; as, *It* rains. *It* will snow. *It* freezes. *It* has become very dry.

REMARK. For farther illustration of *it*, see under the substitute *that*, and under rule 12, in Syntax.

LIST 2.—*Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs.*

‡ These substitutes are constantly used in the nominative case to verbs, and in the objective case after verbs and prepositions, and therefore they cannot be in the possessive case.*

NOTE 1. *Mine* and *thine* are sometimes used in the possessive case, in sacred or lofty style, but not in common language.

NOTE 2. When *mine*, *thine* and *his*, are added to nouns, they are in the possessive case, but otherwise they are in the nom. or obj. case; as, "Unto thee lift I up *mine eyes*, O thou that dwellest in the heavens." Ps. 123. 1.

Examples.

"The silver is *mine* and the gold is *mine*." Hag. 2. 8. That book is *thine*. This map is *his*. This pencil is *hers*. These quills are *ours*. Those plants are *yours*. He left his books and brought *theirs*. "My friend sacrificed his fortune to secure *yours*." "His deeds deserve reward; *yours* merit disgrace." "Henry's labors are past; *thine* are to come." "We leave your forests of beast, for *ours* of men." My sword and *yours* are kin."

"Think not, a husband gained, that all is done;
The prize of happiness must still be won;
And, oft, the careless find out to their cost,
The lover in the husband may be lost;
The graces might alone his heart allure—
They and the virtues, meeting, must secure."

Lord Littleton.

Parse all the substitutes of list 2d, found in the preceding examples; thus:

Mine is a substitute, because it stands for *my silver*; personal, its form shows its person; first person, singular, to agree with the leading word for which it stands; and it is in the nom. case after *is*, because it includes the meaning of *silver*, which is the subject or nominative, according to Rule 8, (which repeat.)

Write exercises as before directed.

* "To say that *ours*, *yours*, *theirs* and *mine*, form a possessive case, is to make the possessive perform the office of a nominative case to verbs, and an objective case after verbs and prepositions—a manifest solecism." Webster's Imp. Gram. p. 27.

‡ COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The Compound Personal Pronouns are formed by adding the intensive word *self*,—in the plural *selves*,—to the pronouns, to give them emphasis; as, myself, themselves.

Declension.

Person	Case.	Singular.	Plural.
First	Nom.	Myself	ourselves
	Poss.		
	Obj.	myself [self	ourselves
Second	Nom.	thyslf or your-	yourselves
	Poss.		
	Obj.	thyslf	yourselves
Third	Nom.	himself	themselves
	Poss.		
	Obj.	himself	themselves
	Nom.	herself	themselves
	Poss.		
	Obj.	herself	themselves
	Nom.	itself	themselves
	Poss.		
	Obj.	itself	themselves

NOTE. It will be observed that *self* is added to the pronouns, only in part of their forms.

Exercises.

"He *himself* wrote a letter to the minister." "He wrote a letter *himself*." I went *myself*. Know *thyslf*. We saw it *ourselves*. You *yourselves* know the way. She flatters *herself*. "They injure *themselves*." "This is the book *itself*."

Parse the compound pronouns in the preceding examples, after the following

MODEL. *Himself* is a pronoun, because it stands for a name; personal, its form shows its person; compound, it is formed of *him* and *self*; masculine gender, third person, singular, to agree with the noun for which it stands according to Rule xii. and in the nom. case, put by opposition with *he*, because it means the same person, according to Rule vii. (which repeat.)

Exercises.

I will assist him. Thou shalt see them. You may have it. He teaches her. She visited us. They called you. We left our books, and he brought them. He brought her book, and she took it out of his hand. They injure themselves. He did it himself. She herself wrote the letter.

Parse the pronouns in the foregoing exercises; according to the preceding models: then

Review these exercises, and parse all the names, verbs, and pronouns in them.

‡ OWN.

Own is sometimes used as a substitute; as, "He came unto his *own*, and his *own* received him not." John 1, 11. "The world will love its *own*." "This is an invention of his *own*." "That they may dwell in a place of their *own*." 2 Sam. 7.

Parse *own* in each exercise.

Write exercises on a slate or black board, and then in your book—employ all the compound pronouns, and *own*.

LIST 3.—*Who, which, that* and *what*.*

‡ *Who* is applied to persons, but never to brutes nor things; as, The man *who* informed me. The woman *who* performed so well. "The master *who* taught us." "The boy *who* reads." The men *who* came. The girls *who* sung. The boy whom I taught.

Who is the same in both numbers, and is thus declined; Nom. *who*; Poss. *whose*; Obj. *whom*.

‡ *Which* is applicable to animals and things; as, The bird *which* sung. The trees *which* I pruned. The books *which* I left. The horse *which* I rode. The ox *which* he sold. The house *which* I bought. The pew *which* I use.

Which is the same in both numbers, and is thus declined: Nom. *which*; Poss. *whose*; Obj. *which*.

NOTE. *Whose* is equally applicable to persons and things, being the possessive of both *who* and *which*. The man *whose* duty it is. The woman *whose* performance was so much admired. The pupil *whose* task was performed. "The question

* "Who is called a *relative*, because it *relates* to an antecedent. But this is also true of *he, she, they*, and most of the substitutes. They all *relate* to the words which they represent." Webster's Imp. Gram. p. 26.

whose solution I require." "The tree *whose* mortal taste." "Is there any other doctrine *whose* followers are punished?"

‡ *That* is often used instead of *who* and *which*; as, The man *that* labors. The boy *that* plays. The girls *that* study. The birds *that* sing. The tree *that* blooms. The winds *that* blow. The doctrines *that* he taught.

That is applicable to persons and things, it is of both numbers, and indeclinable.

Parse the substitutes under consideration, in all the foregoing examples, after the following

Model.

Take *who* in the first example.

Who is a substitute, because it stands for man; third person, singular, to agree with *man*, for which it stands, according to Rule xii. (which repeat) and in the nom. case to informed, because it is the subject and agent of the verb, according to Rule I. (which repeat.) Decline *who*.

Write six exercises on each of these pronouns, *who*, *which*, and *that*; on the slate or black board, and in your book.

‡ Connecting Power of WHO, WHICH & THAT.

Who, *which* and *that*, have a connecting power, and each is equivalent to a conjunction, and another substitute; and in this character they often involve one member of a sentence within another; as, "He *that* handleth a matter wisely, shall find good." Prov. 16. 20. In this sentence, *that handleth a matter wisely*, constitutes a distinct affirmation, and it is between the nominative and verb of the other affirmation.

This character of these words, is illustrated by Mr. Harris in his *Hermes*, by the following examples, which are copied by the *Ency. Brit.* "Light is a body *which* moves with great celerity."

"Now instead of *which*, substitute the words *and it*, and in their united powers you see the force and character of the pronoun here treated." "Light is a body, *and it* moves with great celerity."

Man, *who* is mortal, should not boast. Man should not boast, because *he* is mortal. The learner will perceive that, because *he*, in the last form, are precisely equivalent to *who* in the first. Thus it is clear that *who*, is equivalent to a conjunction and another pronoun. And *which* and *that* have the same character.

NOTE. These substitutes seem to be used, principally, to express in the form of affirmation, circumstances, which qualify the words or phrases for which they stand: thus: Man, who is mortal, should not boast. Man should not boast, because he is mortal. Mortal man should not boast. In these forms the adjective *mortal*, in the last, supplies the place of a distinct affirmation, in the former two.

‡ WHICH.

Which has other uses besides those already illustrated. It often stands for sentences, or parts of sentences; as, "We are bound to obey all the divine commands, *which* we cannot do without divine aid." Here *which* represents the words, *obey all the divine commands*, and is in the obj. case, governed by *do*, according to Rule ix. (which repeat.)

He behaved well, *which* he was bound to do.

Which, sometimes stands for attributes or adjectives; as, You represented it to be good, *which* it is not. Here *which* stands for the adjective good.

Which, is sometimes equivalent to *that which*, and, like *what*, has two cases; as, choose *which* you please; (that is choose *that which* you please to choose.) Here the parenthetical clause, shows the construction, but the other is the authorized form. *Which* is the object of the verb *choose*, and also of the verb to *choose* understood after please; and hence it contains two objective cases.

Continue the exercises in writing, on slates, or black board, or both, and in your book as above directed, on each list of pronouns or substitutes.

‡ WHAT.

This word has several uses.

I. It is equivalent to *that which*, or the *thing which*; as, "This is what I wanted." "Say what you will." "I have heard what has been alledged."

RESOLUTION.—"This is *that which* I wanted." "This is *the thing which* I wanted." In this use of *what*, it contains two cases.

Model for Parsing WHAT.

What is a substitute, because it stands for *the thing which*; third person, singular, to agree with *thing*, for which it stands, according to Rule XII. (which repeat.) and in the nominative

case after *is*, according to Rule VIII. (which repeat,) and also in the objective case, governed by the transitive verb *wanted*, according to Rule IX. (which repeat.)

2. *What* is often used to represent any indefinite idea; as, they care not what they do. John cares not what he says. "We shall the better know what to undertake."—Locke. "To see what are the causes of wrong judgment."—Ibm.

In the first example, *what* is in the objective case, governed by *do* according to Rule IX. In the third, it has two objective cases, one governed by *know*, and the other by the verb to *undertake*, according to Rule IX.

3. *What* is sometimes used elliptically, for, *what is this?* or, *how is this?* as, "What! could ye not watch with me one hour?"

In this use of *what*, it is exclamatory; and is in the nominative case, independent, according to Remark under Rule V. in Syntax.

4. There is another elliptical use of *what*, in which it is equivalent to *what will follow*; as, what, if I undertake this business?

In this use of *what* it is disposed of as in the preceding.

Write exercises on *what*, until you can distinguish its different uses.

Interrogative Pronouns.

Who, *which* and *what*, are much used in asking questions, where they are called interrogative pronouns; as, *Who is it?* *Which suits you best?* *What did he say?* *Who came with you?* *Which is the book?* *What shall I do?*

Parse thus:

Who is an interrogative pronoun, and it stands for the word containing the answer, &c.

Write six questions with each of these pronouns, as before.

NOTE. The relation of *who* and *what* will be seen by the following

Saxon declension of WHO.

M. & F.		Neut.	
N.	Hwa, <i>who</i>	Hwæt,	<i>what</i>
G.	Hwæs, <i>whose</i>	Hwæs,	<i>whose</i>
D.	Hwam, <i>to whom</i>	Hwam,	<i>to what</i>
A.	Hwæne, <i>whom</i>	Hwæt,	<i>what</i>

These are inflected forms of the Saxon, *Hwa*, *who*, and they

show *what* to be derived from *who*, by the addition of *t*, (*hwa-t*) as the sign of the neuter; and that *whose* is properly the possessive of *what*, as well as *who*. They show also that *h* is written before *w*; as it is *pronounced* in our language. [See Bosworth's Saxon Gram.

Compound Forms.

Who, *which*, and *what* are often compounded with *ever* and *soever*; as, "*whoever* attends will improve." *Whichever* runs fastest, will win the prize. He usually accomplishes whatever he undertakes.

In these forms, the substitutes often contain two cases at the same time. See words of two cases. p. 174.

Write examples containing the compound pronouns, until you understand them well.

LIST 4.—*This*, *that*, *these*, *those*.

These words are in very common use as Pronouns or Substitutes.

‡ *This* and *these* usually denote the last mentioned or near objects; *that* and *those*, the first mentioned or distant objects; as, "*this* is true charity, *that* is only its image." "*Both wealth and poverty* are temptations; *that* tends to excite pride, *this* discontent." But this distinction is not uniformly observed.

‡ THIS.

This is used as a substitute for both *names* and *clauses*; as, "Certainly *this* was a righteous man." Here *this* stands for *this man*.

"*This* is the time, no more delay
This is the acceptable day."

In the first of these lines, *this* stands for *this time*; and in the second it stands for *this day*. In these examples, *this* stands for *names*.

"*This* is a faithful saying, and worthy of all acceptation, that *Christ Jesus came into the world to save sinners.*" 1 Tim. i. 15. Here *this* stands for the sentence in italics, which will be plain by answering the following question: What is a faithful saying?

"*This* know also, that *in the last days perilous times shall come.*" Know what? Ans. "In the last days perilous times shall come." Hence *this* represents all that part of the sentence in italics.

"Let no prince measure the danger of discontents by *this*, whether they be just or unjust; for that were to imagine people to be reasonable, who do often spurn at their own good; nor yet by *this*; whether the griefs whereupon they rise, be, in fact, great or small." Bacon on Kingdoms.

Here *this* is a substitute for the clause succeeding it in italics in each instance.

Parse the substitutes in the examples under *this*, observing to give the word or phrase for which they stand, in every instance.

Write three examples with *this* as a substitute for a name, and three with the same word as a substitute for clauses.

‡ THAT.

That is a substitute for both persons and things, and also for phrases and sentences, more frequently than any other word in the language.

NOTE 1. *That* is peculiar in respect to number, for when it is a definitive adjective, it is always singular; but when it is a substitute, it is either singular or plural.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—The student that came The birds that sing. The plant that grows. The man that lectured, and the doctrines that he taught. In these examples *that* stands for names.

The true use of *that* as a substitute for a clause, may be understood by the following examples and remarks.

"He recited his former calamities; to which *was* now to be added *that* he was the destroyer of the man who had expiated him." Beloes' Heroditus, Clio 45.

That, in this sentence, would be pronounced, by most grammarians, a conjunction; if so, the preceding *was* has no nominative word. What was to be added? Ans. All that follows the word *that* was to be added—for all which, *that* stands.

"He whom thou now hast is not thy husband; in *that* saidst thou truly." John iv. 18. Here *that* stands for the woman's declaration, "I have no husband;" and is in the objective case, governed by *in*, according to Rule IX.

"I have sinned in *that* I have betrayed the innocent blood." Matt. xxvii. 4. Here *that* stands for all that follows it, and is in the objective case, governed by *in*.

Horne Tooke does not allow the word *that* to be a conjunction in any case, as the following illustrations will show. "Thieves rise by night, *that* they may cut men's throats."

Mr. Tooke resolves this sentence thus: "Thieves may cut men's throats, (for) that (purpose) they rise by night."

"I wish you to believe that I would not wilfully hurt a fly."

Resolved thus: "I would not wilfully hurt a fly, I wish you to believe *that* (assertion)."

"You say *that* the same arm which, when contracted, can lift—; when extended to its utmost reach, will not be able to raise—. You mean *that* we should never forget our situation, and *that* we should be prudently contented to do good within our own sphere, where it can have an effect; and that we should not be misled even by a virtuous benevolence and public spirit, to waste ourselves in fruitless efforts beyond our power of influence."

Mr. Tooke resolves this long sentence thus.

"The same arm, which, when contracted, can lift—; when extended to its utmost reach, will not be able to raise—: you say *that*. We should never forget our situation,—you mean *that*:—and we should be contented to do good within our own sphere, where it can have an effect;—you mean *that*; and we should not be misled, even by a virtuous benevolence and public spirit, to waste ourselves in fruitless efforts beyond our power of influence;—you mean *that*." See Tooke's Purley.

—"If *that* the king

Have any way your good deserts forgot,
He bids you name your griefs."—Shakspeare.

To understand the resolution of this sentence, it is necessary to understand the word *if*. *If* is a verb, meaning *give* or *grant*;* then it is resolved thus:

"The king may have forgotten your good deserts,—*Give that* or *grant that* in any way,—he bids you name your griefs."—Ibm.

* *If* is in reality a verb. It is a contraction of *Gif*, the imperative of the Gothic and Anglo-Saxon verb *Gifan*, to give. It was formerly written *gif*, thus:

—"My largesse
Hath lotted her to be your brother's mistress—
Gif she can be reclaimed,—*Gif* not, his prey."

Sad Shepherd. See Tooke's Purley, vol. 1, ch. 7.

"*Gif* he passeth with honor,
Oure is the dishonor." Kyng Alisaunder.

"*If*, though, unless, notwithstanding, are called conjunctions, which is a most palpable mistake."—Webster's Phil. Gram. Advertisement.

"*If*, v. t., contracted from Saxon *gif*,—from *gifan*,—Gothic *giban*, to give. It is used as the sign of condition."—Webster's 4to Dic.

NOTE.—*That* should never be used after *if* when it would stand for a noun or pronoun; it may be used in such condition only when it would stand for a sentence; and even this use of it is generally omitted by modern authors; making the sentence, the object of the verb *if*; as, "If John shall arrive," instead of, "If that John shall arrive."

‡ IT AND THAT.

It is strange *that* the messenger does not return.

Here *that* stands for all that follows it; and *it* stands for the same, as will be seen by the following resolution. The messenger does not return; that is strange;—or, it is strange—or, this is strange.

"I knew a man that had *it* for a by-word, when he saw men hasten to a conclusion, 'Stay a little *that* we may make an end the sooner."—Bacon on Despatch.

In this sentence, *it* stands for the last part or *by-word*, and the last *that* for all that follows it.

"*It* came to pass in those days *that* there went out a decree from Cæsar Augustus, *that* all the world should be taxed."—Luke ii. 1. Here *it* stands for all that follows the word *days*; the first *that* stands for all that follows it, and is in the nominative case after came, according to Rule VIII. and the second *that* is a substitute for all that follows it, and is in the nominative case after went, according to the same Rule.

"I think it evident, that government can do nothing to facilitate exchanges by means of discriminating duties."—Wayland's Political Econ., p. 186.

Here *that* stands for all that follows it, and is in the objective case, by apposition with *it*; and *it* stands for the same, and is governed by the transitive verb *think*, according to Rule IX.

"It has been said, by a noble lord on my left hand, that I likewise am running the race of popularity."—Lord Mansfield's Speech.

Here *that* represents all that follows it: and is nominative after has been said, according to Rule VIII. and *it* represents the same.

NOTE 1.—"This inceptive use of *it* forms a remarkable idiom of our language, and deserves particular illustration. It stands as the substitute for a subsequent member or clause of a sentence, and is a sort of pioneer to smooth the way for the verb." Thus, "It is remarkable, that the philosopher Seneca makes use

of the same argument."—Porteus' Lec. 6. In this sentence, *that* stands for all that follows it, and *it* stands for the same.

NOTE 2.—Dr. Webster explains these substitutes in the above mode. He does not admit *that* to be a conjunction in any instance. See the advertisement to his Phil. Grammar, and also his Imp. Grammar. This is also the doctrine of Horne Tooke, Dr. Gleig De Sacy, and other able writers on universal Grammar.*

That is often used to introduce a sentence, thus: "*That* every day has its pains and sorrows, is universally experienced." *That* is a substitute for the simple sentence which follows, and nominative to the verb *is experienced*, which will be plain by the following transposition. "Every day has its pains and sorrows, *that* is universally experienced."

"That we may proceed." Here *that* stands for what follows it.

Parse *that* according to the model under List 3d, and the explanations given in illustrating it.

Write examples of the use of *that*.

‡. THESE AND THOSE.

These and *those* are rarely, if ever, used to represent sentences; but they are very frequently used as substitutes for names; as, *These* are my books, and *those* are yours. George brought *these* books with him, but he obtained *those* since he came.

Parse the substitutes in the above examples according to the model under list 3d.

Write several examples of the use of each pronoun.

LIST 5.—*As, both, same, such.*

‡ AS.

As is sometimes a substitute or pronoun; as, "Appoint to office *such* men as deserve public confidence." Here *as* stands

* *That* has a connecting power, and for this reason is called a conjunction by some grammarians; but *who* and *which* have likewise a connecting power, yet this is not considered a sufficient reason to call them conjunctions. *This*, also, has as extensive a connecting power as *that*, and may often be used interchangeably with it. Thus: The truth is *this*, he was present and witnessed the whole transaction. Here *that* may be substituted for *this* with propriety, and if *that* is a conjunction, then *this* should be also, for they fill precisely the same office in the sentence.

Horne Tooke shows most conclusively that the word *that* is never a conjunction. See his Purley. Also Art. Gram. in a late Edit. Enc. Brit.

for men, and is nom. to *deserve*. "Such schemes as I have seen." Webster. "Send him such books as will please him." "Jubal was the father of all such as handle the harp and organ." Gen. 4. 21.

As, sometimes represents a clause or sentence; as, On his receiving this information, as I learned by good authority, he embarked immediately for Europe. In this sentence *as* represents all of it, except the clause in which it stands; and its place may be supplied by *which*.

Parse, *as* in each example, after the model under list 3d.

Write several examples of the use of *as*.

‡ BOTH.

Both is often used as a substitute for names, adjectives or clauses; as, He saw John and Charles; both were at home.

"Lepidus flatters both, Of both is flattered." Shakspeare.

Some are young and others are beautiful; but she is both. Here *both* stands for two adjectives,—young and beautiful.

"He will not bear *the loss of his rank*, because he can bear *the loss of his estate*; but he will bear *both*, because he is prepared for *both*." Bolingbroke on Exile.

In this sentence, *both* stands for the two clauses in italics.

"I would to God that all that hear me this day, were both almost, and altogether such as I am, except these bonds." Paul.

Here *both* stands for two adverbs.

Parse as before directed, and

Write two examples of each kind.

‡ SAME.

Same is often used as a substitute for names, adjectives, or clauses; as, "The same came to Jesus by night." John 3. 2. "The ethereal vigor is all the same." Dryden.

John is very industrious, and Charles is the same.

"For brave and generous ever are the same." Lusiad 1.

"The same was in the beginning with God." John 1. 2.

John told me he had learned his lesson well; and his teacher told me the same.

Here *same* stands for what was told me.

Parse and write, as before directed.

‡ SUCH.

Such often stands for names, adjectives, or clauses: as, "Jubal was the father of all such as handle the harp and organ." Gen. 4. 21.

"Such is the state of man, that he is never at rest."

"The true worshippers shall worship the Father in spirit and in truth, for the Father seeketh such to worship him." John 4. 23.

Parse and write, as before.

LIST 6.—*Many, few, all, any, several.*

‡. These words are often used as substitutes for names; as, "For *many* shall come in my name, saying I am Christ; and shall deceive *many*." Mat. 24. 5. "For *many* are called but *few* are chosen." Mat. 20. 4. "All that ever came before me are thieves and robbers." John 10. 8. "Are there *few* that be saved?" Luke 13. 23. "Have *any* of the rulers, or of the Pharisees believed on Him?" John 7. 48. "If a soul sin against *any* of the commandments." Lev. 4. 2. *Several* of them made fine fortunes. "*Several* of my unknown correspondents." Spectator.

Parse the substitutes in the foregoing examples, according to the explanation and models already given, of substitutes.

Write several examples of the use of each substitute in list 6.

LIST 7.—*First, last, former, latter, less, least, more, most.*

‡. These words are often used as substitutes; as, "The *last* shall be *first*, and the *first*, *last*." Mat. 20. 19.

"The victor's laurel, as the martyr's crown,
The first I hope, nor less the last I prize."

Hoole's Tasso, 6, 8.

"Sublimity and vehemence are often confounded, the latter being considered as a species of the former." Campbell's Rhet. 1. 1.

"It was happy for the state, that Fabius continued in the command with Minucius: the former's phlegm was a check upon the latter's vivacity."

"A bad author deserves better usage than a bad critic; a man may be the former, merely through the misfortune of want of

judgment; but he cannot be the latter without both that and an ill temper." Pope.

"The children of Israel did so, and gathered, some more, and some less." Ex. 16. 17. "I am the least of the apostles." 1 Cor. 15. 9.

"Then began he to upbraid the critics wherein most of his mighty works were done." Mat. 11. 20. "I cannot go beyond the word of the Lord, my God, to do less or more." Num. 22. 18.

"The less is blessed by the better." Heb. 7.

Parse and write, as before.

LIST 8.—*Some, one, other, another, none.*

‡. These words are frequently used as substitutes.

One and *other* are used in both numbers, and are regularly declinable; and *another* is declinable in the singular.

Examples.

"Some talk of subjects they do not understand; others praise virtue who do not practice it." Johnson.

"Some to the shores do fly, some, to the woods." Daniel.

"Your edicts some reclaim from sins,
But most your life and blest example wins."

Dryden.

"They came with their little ones." "Love one another."

"Some fell among thorns;—but other fell into good ground." Mat. 13. "And leave their wealth to others." Psalm 49.

"What do ye more than others." "Bear one another's burdens." (One bear another's burdens.) "There is none that doeth good, no not one." Ps. 14. 3. "None of their productions are extant." Blair.

NOTE. *None* has a plural signification, as well as singular.

Parse and write, as before.

LIST 9.—*Each, every, either, neither, whether.*

‡. These words are often used as substitutes.

Examples.

"Each of his brothers is in a favorable situation." "It is our duty to assist each other." That is, it is the duty of each to assist the other. "Let each esteem other better than himself."

Every is used now as a substitute, only in technical law style; as, "All and every of them." "Every of the clauses and conditions." "I have not seen either of them." Or thus: I have seen neither of them.

Usage authorizes the appropriation of *either* and *neither*, to any number; as, "Here are ten oranges, take either of them."

"He neither loves

Nor either cares for him."

Shakespeare.

"Resolve whether you will go or not." That is, "you will go," or "you will not go:" resolve *whether—which*. *Whether* is not now used as a substitute for names.

Parse and write, as before.

NOTE 1. In the use of the substitutes, the words or clauses for which they stand must be obvious, so that the mind may readily supply them; otherwise the use of them is a *fault*.

NOTE 2. Many of the substitutes are also used as definitive adjectives, under which head the learner will find them arranged and explained.

Parse all the names, verbs, and substitutes, in the following

Exercises.

James loves his book. The pupil learned his lesson. He left your books, but he brought mine. I wear a hat, but you seem to prefer a cap. Some of her quills are better than others. A few of the class recited well, but most of them, were poorly prepared. Their children love one another. Philadelphia is a beautiful city, its streets cross each other at right angles. None are so blind as those who will not see.

IV. ADJECTIVES OR ATTRIBUTES.

When I say *good boy*, I use the word *good* to express a quality of the *boy*. What *kind* of a boy is he? He is a *good* boy. You perceive, I add the word *good* to the word *boy*, to express a quality of the boy; and therefore *good* is called an *adjective* or *added word*. Hence

Adjectives are words added to names, and some other words to qualify or define their meaning; as *good* boy, *modest* girl, *honest* man, *splendid* house, *fine* horse, *wise* ruler, *green* leaves, *ripe* fruit, *dark* clouds.

Tell which word is the adjective, in each example, and why.

Foundation of Rule III.

Consider this exercise. "Good boy." To whom does the quality of goodness belong? Ans. It belongs to the boy, and it cannot be separated from him. Then as the quality belongs to the person or thing named; so the *adjective*, or word expressing the quality, *belongs* to the *name* of the person or thing. Hence in *Syntax*,

RULE III. Adjectives belong to the nouns whose meaning they describe; as, a wise son, a glad father, a high tree, an old tune, the best way.

Parse the adjective in each of the foregoing examples, after the following

Model.

Good is an adjective, because it is added to the name *boy*, to express the quality of the boy; and it belongs to boy, according to Rule 3, (which repeat).

Now turn to your exercises in writing, and add an adjective to each name that you can, which will make sense with it: thus:

Model of Composition.

young man	writes	fine letters
sprightly boy	plays	
beautiful horse	draws	new carriage
red book	lies	
good girls	love	instructive books

Then use both adjectives and pronouns, thus:

good boys	study	their long lessons
they	learn	them

N. B. Continue this exercise throughout the adjectives, and use the adjectives of each list wherever you can make sense with them, and use the pronouns also as much as you can.

These words are also called *attributes*, because they express the qualities or *attributes* of persons or things.

Now parse all the words in the model of composition.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Now *compare* two boys; thus: James is a *tall* boy, but John is a *taller* boy than James. Then compare several boys; thus: James is a *tall* boy; John is a *taller* boy than James, but Thomas is the *tallest* boy in the company.

There are different degrees of qualities in different individuals, that is, some possess more, and some less of the same quality,

Adjectives are varied to express the different *degrees* of quality.

Most adjectives admit three degrees of comparison—a few admit four degrees: the *imperfect*, the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative* degrees.

The *imperfect degree* expresses a *slight* degree of the quality; as, saltish, blackish, brownish.

The *positive degree* expresses the quality as *distinct* and *positive*; as, wise, good, honest.

The *comparative degree* expresses a *greater* or *less* degree of the quality than the positive; as, wiser, better, less honest.

The *superlative degree* expresses the highest or lowest degree of the quality; as wisest, best, least honest.

Adjectives Compared.

Imperfect.	Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
whitish	white	whiter	whitest
sweetish	sweet	sweeter	sweetest
	wise	wiser	wisest
	mindful	more mindful	most mindful
	cheerful	less cheerful	least cheerful

Let the learner now compare all the adjectives in the list, looking only at the column of the Pos. degree. Repeat thus: Pos. wise; Comp. wiser; Sup. wisest. Imp. saltish; Pos. salt; Comp. salter, or more salt; Sup. saltiest, or more salt.

In like manner, compare tall, low, lofty, humble, proud, teachable, stubborn, industrious, frugal, high, wide, deep, prudent, attentive, common, fine, bold, modest, retiring, willing, and

Tell how the other degrees are formed from the positive.

Adjectives of one syllable are generally compared as wise, and those of more syllables than one, as mindful; except such as may be easily pronounced; as, lofty, loftier, loftiest.

To express a *decrease* of quality, *less* and *least* must be used in comparing most adjectives.

The above method of expressing the different degrees of quality, is called the *regular* comparison of adjectives, on account of its uniformity. The degrees of some qualities, are

expressed by different words: this is called *irregular comparison*.

‡ *Irregular Comparison.*

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
good	better	best
bad or evil	worse	worst
fore	former	first
little	less or lesser*	least
much or many	more	most
near	nearer	nearest or next
old	older	oldest or eldest
late	later	latest or last

Compare these adjectives, looking only at the Pos.

Different degrees of quality are expressed by the use of many other words: thus the intensive word *very* is used to express a high degree of quality, but not the highest. John is much older than James. Here *much* increases the comparative degree. *Far*, *extremely*, *exceedingly*, and many other similar words, are in common use for the purpose of increasing the comparative and superlative degrees.

Exercises.

Good boy. Modest girl. Fine house. Wise man. Better way. Poor soil. Honest officer. Wiser man. Tallest woman. Whitest cloud. Coldest day. Warmer weather. Oldest book. Least person. Little pen. Higher tower. Larger tree.

Parse the adjective in each exercise.

Own is an intensive adjective added, mostly, to pronouns—sometimes to nouns—in the passive case, for emphasis; as, He will have his own way. The world will love its own people.

‡ NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Numeral adjectives are words which simply express number. They are of two kinds:

First. *Cardinal*; as, one, two, three, four, &c.

Second. *Ordinal*; as, first, second, third, fourth, &c.

* *Lesser* is a corruption, but too well established to be discarded. Authors always write "lesser Asia." "By the same reason may a man in a state of nature, punish the lesser breaches of the law." Locke. "God made the lesser light to rule the night." Gen. 1.

Exercises.

Two men. Four books. One quill. Three trees. Fourth page. Third line. Second head.

NOTE. The cardinal numerals *include* all below them in the series, and the ordinal, *exclude* all below them.

REMARK. Page four—chapter seven—and all such expressions, are improper; for the plain reason, that *one* page can never be *four*.

Parse the adjective in each exercise under numerals, thus:

Two is a numeral adjective, because it simply expresses number; of the cardinal kind, and it belongs to men, according to Rule III., (which repeat.)

‡ PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES.

When participles are used to qualify nouns, in such a way as to deprive them of their verbal character, they are called participial adjectives.

Exercises.

James was an educated man. That company was made up of well drilled soldiers. William saw five singing women. The pupil described a moving body. We are pleased with a growing season. Julia is a beloved friend. A humane general pities a conquered enemy. A punctual debtor will use unremitting efforts to pay a renewed note.

Parse the participial adjectives in those exercises, then;

Review the exercises, and parse all the names, verbs, substitutes, and adjectives in them: and

Write several exercises on participial adjectives.

DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES.

In the phrase *this book*; the word *this*, is added to *book*, not to express any quality of the book, as *good* or *bad*; but because it has been shown, in some way, which book is meant. So in the phrase *a book* or *one book*, *a* or *one*, simply defines, or specifies the application of the word *book*. Such words are called *definitive adjectives*, or *definitives*: hence,

Definitive adjectives are words added to nouns, to define their application; as, a man, the woman, this book, that pen, some trees, any way, those toys, every word.

Parse the definitive in each exercise, thus

A is a definitive adjective, because it is added to the noun, to define its application, and belongs to man, according to Rule III.

The definitives are known by lists.

LIST 1.—*Each, every, either and neither.**

Exercises.

"Each man took his sword." "He gave to each soldier a portion." "Every man should have some employment." "Take either orange of the ten." Neither John, James nor Peter was there.

Parse the adjective in each exercise, as above.

Write exercises on the list.

LIST 2.—*The,† this, that, these, those, former, latter, yon.*

* Usage authorizes the appropriation of these words to any number of individuals; as, "Neither of the ten was there."

† *The* and *an* or *a* are ranked under the head of adjectives, according to the classification of Mr. Webster's Grammar's and Dictionaries. Of these words he observes; "They are *definitive attributes*, and have, grammatically considered, the like use as *this, that, some, one, any*."

"The words called *Articles*, are, in all languages, *Adjectives*." Webster's Phil. Gram. Advertisement.

"In a scientific arrangement of grammatical principles, *a* and *the* belong to that class of adjectives denominated *definitives* or *restrictives*." Kirkham's Gram. p. 65.

Article is an improper term to express the true character of these words. See Webster's 4to Dic. *Article*.

De Sacy observes that *an* and *a* are regarded as articles *without reason*; and he ranks *the* with *this, that, &c.* See also Encycl. Brit. and Edinb. Encycl. Art. Gram.

"*The Article* may properly be regarded as an *adjective word*;" Bullions' Gram. p. 192.

The is one of the three kinds of demonstrative pronouns laid down by Mr. Latham. See his Gram. London 1843.

Several French grammarians, M. du MARSATS; M. L'ABBE FROMANT, and others, pronounce the words called *articles* in that language, to be *Adjectives*, since they modify their substantives.

The definitives "*un* and *une*, in French, are indeterminate *pronouns* and *adjectives* of number." Cobbett's French Gram. p. 205.

The definitives called articles, are of much more importance in Greek than in our language, and in that, they are considered as *improperly*

NOTE 1. These definitives do *not* "point out what things are meant," but they are added to nouns whose meaning has been otherwise pointed out or made specific.

NOTE 2. The relation of *the* and *that* may be illustrated by the following

Saxon Declension of SE.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Plural, all genders.
N.	Se	Seo	thæt, <i>the, that</i>	tha, <i>the, those,</i>
G.	Thæs	thære	thæs, <i>of the, that</i>	thæra, <i>of the, those</i>
D.	Tham	thære	tham, <i>to the, that</i>	tham, <i>to the, those</i>
A.	Thone	tha	thæt, <i>the, that</i>	tha, <i>the, those</i>

This declension shows *the* and *that* to be different forms of the same word, hence it demonstrates the propriety of ranking them in the same part of speech. See Bosworth's Saxon Gram.

NOTE 3. The definitive *the* has lost much of its original character, and came to be used more nearly without meaning than any other word in the language: often serving no other purpose than affording a sound to fill a hiatus, or smooth the path of another word. "The least definite of all the defining adjectives is the word *the*." Cardell's Gram. p. 63.

Exercises.

The heighth of this wall is six feet. That book is mine. These apples are sour. Those trees were planted by James. The former expression may be as correct as the latter one. See yon high mountain.

Parse the adjectives as before, and

Write exercises on the list.

erected into a distinct part of speech. "The *article* (in Greek) was properly and originally a demonstrative pronoun." Kühner's Greek Gram. p. 313.

"The *article* (in Greek) had originally the sense of both a demonstrative, and relative pronoun." *Ibm.* p. 326.

"The *article* (in Greek) is an *adjective* word of three genders." Bullions' Greek Gram. p. 42.

"The *article* (in Greek) was originally a demonstrative pronoun—*this, that*,—it sometimes losses—a portion of its strict demonstrative signification, and passes over into the meaning of the pronoun of the third person—*he, she, it*." Anthon's Greek Gram.

✂ Teachers who prefer to call *the* the definite article, and *an* and *a* the indefinite article, will find them sufficiently explained in this work.

LIST. 3.—*An* or *à*, *any*, *some*, *other*, *another*, *all*, *such*, *several*, *what*.

Exercises.

A gardener sold some fruit. A careless student injured all his books. Several men went in the pursuit. Some children love such fruit. He obtained another book. She went the other way. What colors are here? If any person comes.

What difficulty did Henry encounter the other day! Some person has made several attempts to get another agent appointed.

Parse the definitive in each exercise.

Write exercises on the list: then

Review the exercises, and parse all the names, verbs, substitutes, and adjectives in them.

NOTE 1. *An* is merely the adjective *one*. It drops the *n* before a *consonant* sound, *u* long and *eu*; as, a man, a universal deluge, a European. *An* is perfectly definite in number, and often so in specification; as, "Solomon built a temple." "London is a great commercial city." Perry won a splendid victory on Lake Erie.

An has two general uses. It denotes a class or sort; as an ox is a useful animal: or it denotes an individual; as, John sold an ox.

NOTE 2. *A* has several idiomatic uses, which are remarkable; as, "A few days." "A great many persons." "A dozen." "A hundred." "A hundred years."

"Full many a gem of purest ray serene." Gray.

"Full many a rose-bud rears its blushing head." Beattie.

These expressions are in violation of analogy, but they are well authorized by usage, and therefore, correct.

NOTE 3. *Several*, in old authors, is applied to singular names; as, "In every *several* city." 2 Chron. 11. 12.

"Each might his *several* province well command." Pope.

This use of *several* is now obsolete, except in technical law style; as, "A joint and several estate." "A joint and several note or bond." "A several fishery."

NOTE 4. The *possessive case* of names and substitutes, constitutes a class of *definitives*. In many of these, there is no ownership intended; as, "Washington's monument." "Men's clothes." "Boys' hats."

This use has, probably, arisen from the fact, that the *real use* of the possessive, where ownership is intended, is to *define* or *specify*. Names and substitutes in the possessive, retain, however, enough of their primary character to entitle them to the position they now occupy in grammar.

REMARK. The usual classification of definitives, is troublesome to learners, and useless in grammar; and as Dr. Webster observes, "by no means correct."

V. ADVERBS, OR MODIFIERS.

In the expression; *the boy behaves well*; the word *well* does not describe the *boy*, but his *action*. How does the boy behave? Ans. He behaves *well*. The word *well* is added to the verb to modify or describe the meaning of the verb; and hence it is called an adverb; that is a word added to a verb. Hence

Adverbs are words joined to verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, to *modify* their meaning; as, the boy runs *swiftly*, a *well* trained horse, a truly noble spirit.

Tell which word is the adverb in each of the above examples, and why it is so.

Foundation of Rule XIII. in Syntax.

Consider this sentence. The boy runs *swiftly*.

Swiftly expresses the *manner* of the action *runs*; and it is plain that the *manner* is entirely dependent on the action; and that it could not exist without it.

As the *manner* belongs to the *action*; so the word expressing the *manner*, belongs to the word which asserts the action. Hence in Syntax,

RULE XIII. Adverbs belong to verbs, adjectives and other adverbs; as, He lives well. She came early. The plant grows rapidly. I have never seen it.

Parse the adverb in each of the above exercises, after the following

MODEL. *Swiftly* is an adverb, because it expresses the *manner* of the action, runs; and belongs to runs, according to Rule XIII., (which repeat.)

In like manner parse the adverbs in the following

Exercises.

It is *not there*. He stays *nowhere*. William acted nobly. Henry studied industriously. Susan behaved modestly. We may live happily. They should talk peaceably. He never does *wrong*. She always does *right*. She acts prudently. He soon departed. They will return abruptly.

Write several exercises on adverbs.

Turn to your exercises in your book, and add adverbs to the verbs you have written, after the following

Model of Composition.

The young man	now writes	fine letters:
he	reads carefully,	his books.
All good boys	diligently study	their long lessons.
they	learn well.	

N. B. The attentive pupil begins to see, in these models for writing, much of the frame-work of the language.

Now parse all the words in the model.

‡ Many Adverbs admit the degrees of comparison to express different degrees of modification; as, soon, sooner, soonest. Pos. often; Com. oftener; Sup. oftenest—wisely, more wisely, most wisely.

NOTE 1. There is a class of adverbs or modifiers, usually called prepositions, which are used with verbs to vary their signification; as, to fall *on*, to bear *with*, to cast *up*, to think *of*; or they are prefixed and become a part of the word; as, over-*come*, under-*lay*.

NOTE 2. The chief use of Adverbs is to shorten discourse; as, *there*, for *in that place*; *now*, for *at the present time*; *nobly*, for *in a noble manner*, &c.

“Abbreviations are the wheels of language; the wings of Mercury,” says Ben Jonson, the author of an early English Grammar.

NOTE 3. The principal adverbs come under the following heads:—

1. Adverbs of time; as, now, already, ago, often, never, &c.
2. Place; as, where, yonder, hence, nowhere, whence, secondly, &c.
3. Manner; as, well, bravely, tamely, &c.

4. Direction; as, upward, homeward, heavenward, &c.
5. Quantity; as much, too, barely, only, enough, &c.
6. Interrogation; as, how? why? wherefore? whence? &c.
7. Affirmation; as, yes, certainly, truly, doubtless, &c.
8. Negation; as, no, nay, not, nowise, &c.
9. Uncertainty; as, perhaps, peradventure, possibly, &c.
10. Comparison; as, more, most, well, better, so, thus, rather, &c.

This list is given merely as a general guide to the pupil, for he should learn to distinguish adverbs by their office, and not depend on lists.

‡ The learner should now resolve as many of the foregoing adverbs as he can, by giving their equivalents; thus: *now* is equivalent to, *at this time*; already — by this time; ago — before this time, &c. Thus it appears that,

Every adverb is equivalent to a preposition and its subsequent term. On the other hand,

A *preposition* and its *subsequent term* may, in most instances, be changed into an adverb: thus, instead of saying, he lives in tranquility — he writes with rapidity — he is rich to excess:— we may say; he lives tranquilly — he writes rapidly — he is excessively rich.

The learner should often practice as above.

Write exercises on each kind of adverbs.

For Conjunctive Adverbs, see Conjunctions.

VI. PREPOSITIONS.

Apples grow — trees. These words make no sense, in this way. Now insert the little word *on*. Apples grow *on* trees. *On* connects the word *grow* with the word *trees*, and shows the relation between them; and thus makes the sense complete. Such words are called *Prepositions*, because they are placed before the subsequent term of the relation. Hence,

Prepositions are words used to connect words, and to show the relation between them; as, John went *from* the house. Julia came *to* town. A man of benevolence. He came from school. She rode in a carriage. I write with a pen. You mark on paper. John labors with his hands. He goes into the house.

Parse the Preposition in each example after the following

MODEL. *From* is a preposition, because it connects the words *went* and *house*, and shows the relation between them. *Went* is the *antecedent term*, and *house*, the *subsequent term*, of the relation.

Foundation of Rule IX. Part Second.

Consider this example. John went *from* the house. *From* means *leaving*. Then, *leaving* what? Ans. *Leaving house*. Therefore, *house* is the subsequent term, or *object*, of the relation expressed by *from*: hence, in Syntax, the 2d part of .

RULE IX. Prepositions govern the objective case; as Susan went *to* school. She rides in a carriage. William stands on the floor. Henry stepped over the stream. A man of benevolence.

Parse the preposition in each example:

Two words may have several different relations to each other: thus, between the expressions *he is*, and *house*, there may be a number of relations; as, he is *in* the house; he is *on* the house; he is *under* the house; he is *before* the house; he is *behind* the house; he is *by* the house; he is *over* the house; he is *at* the house; he is *from* the house, &c.

Write, in your exercises, prepositions and names, in the right hand space, after some of the intransitive verbs, so that the whole will make sense: leave as much room between the preposition and name as you can; thus:

Model of Composition.

The red book	lies there	on	the centre table,
it	appears well	to	little Virginia.
The cheerful boys	earnestly play	with	that ball,
they	have long been	at	the game.

Parse all the words in this model.

NOTE 1. The following are the most common prepositions: *to, for, by, of, in, into, on, upon, among, between, betwixt, up, over, under, beneath, against, from, with, through, at, towards, before, behind, after, without, across, &c.*

NOTE 2. According, concerning, except, excepting, notwithstanding, respecting, touching, and some others, are often called prepositions, but they are verbs and participles in all cases.

According is the present participle of the verb to accord; *notwithstanding* is the present participle of the verb *withstand*, with the prefix *not*; and so of the rest.

NOTE 3.—There are several *particles*, or *prefixes*, which serve to modify words by being placed before them in composition, called *inseparable prepositions*, because they are never used, except as *parts* of words. These are, *a, be, con, mis, pre, re, sub,*—in *abide, become, confirm, misrule, prefix, re-unite, submerge, &c.*

VII. CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions are words used to connect words or sentences; as, John *and* James are beloved, *because* they are good. Two *and* two make four. Thomas went to town to-day, and he will return to-morrow. James will go to the city to-morrow, or he will send.

Parse the conjunction in each example, after the following

Models.

And is a conjunction, because it connects the words *John* and *James*.

Because is a conjunction, because it connects the following sentence with the preceding one.

In like manner, parse the conjunction in each of the following

EXAMPLES. "Wheat grows in a field, and men reap it." "The Georgians cultivate cotton and rice." "The sun and the planets constitute the Solar System." "They came with her, but they went away without her."

Write exercises in your book, connecting sentences with conjunctions, thus:

Model of Composition.

The young man	lately wrote	some beautiful letters,
<i>and</i> he	mailed	them to his friends.
The industrious girl	learns well	her long lesson,
<i>for</i> she	diligently studies	through the day.

Now parse all the words in this model.

NOTE 1.—A distinguishing use of conjunctions, is to shorten discourse, by preventing the repetition of words; e. g., James, William and Henry reside in Boston. This is equivalent to three simple sentences: James resides in Boston; William

resides in Boston, and Henry resides in Boston. By the use of the conjunction, these three sentences are combined into one, by connecting the nominative words and making them the subject of one verb.

But it is not correct to say that conjunctions connect *sentences*, when they *appear* to connect *only words*: e. g. "John and Jane are a handsome couple." This sentence does not mean that *John is a handsome couple*; and that *Jane is a handsome couple*.

The principal conjunctions are, *and, or, nor, but, than, because, for, as, also, therefore, &c.*

NOTE 3.—Several of the words commonly called conjunctions, by some authors on grammar, belong properly to other parts of speech, as will be seen by the following derivation of them:

Horne Tooke's Table of Derivation.

If	} Are the imperatives	Gif	} of their respective verbs	Gifan, To give.
An		An		Anan, To grant.
Unless		Onles		Onlesan, To dismiss.
Eke		Eac		Eacan, To add.
Yet		Get		Getan, To get.
Still		Stell		Stellan, To put.
Else		Ales		Alesan, To dismiss.
Though		Thafig		Thafigan
or		or		or
Tho'		Thaf		To allow.
But		Bot		Botan, To boot, superadd.
But		Be-utan		Beon-utan, To be-out
Without		Wyrth-utan		Wyrthan-utan, To be out
And	An-Ad	Anan-Ad, Give a collect'n.		

Lest is the past participle *Lesed*, of *Lesan*, To dismiss.

Since { Siththan
Syne
Seand-es
Siththe
or
Sin-es } is the participle of *Seon*, To see

That is the article or pronoun *that*. Tooke's Purley.

As is *es*, a German article, meaning *it, that* or *which*. And *So* is *sa* or *so*, a Gothic article, of the same import with *As*.

The above table shows that several of the words, commonly called conjunctions, possess more of the nature of verbs, than they do of that part of speech. Encycl. Brit.

NOTE 3.—*And* implies addition: as, three and two make five. *Or* implies an alternative, and *nor* denies it.

But has three meanings:—1. More, noting addition; as, "Now abideth faith, hope, charity, these three; *but* the greatest of these is charity." 1 Cor. xiii. Here *but* means the same that *and* would. 2. *But* means *besides* or *except*; as, "there is none good *but* one." In this sense *but* is a participle, nor has it the least affinity to a conjunction. 3. *But* means *only*; as "Our light affliction, which is *but* for a moment." 2 Cor. iv. In this sense *but* is *likewise* a participle.—See Webster's 4to Dic.

NOTE 4. The old distinction of conjunctions into *copulative* and *disjunctive*, was founded in error, and is, happily, going into disuse, in our grammars. See Smith's Gram., Nutting's New Gram., and Webster's Phil. and Imp. Grammars.

The idea of a word's having the power of *joining* and *disjoining* at the same time, is absurd: and still more so, *to join* in a *disjoining* manner.

Conjunctive Adverbs.

Some adverbs have the power of conjunctions in connecting sentences, and are, therefore, called *Conjunctive Adverbs*; as, We will depart *when* the boat arrives. He lives *where* John did. They affirmed the fact, *hence*, I believe it.

VIII. INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections are words used to express the emotions of the speaker; as, "Ah me! for I am undone." "But alas! it was too late." "Pshaw! you awkward thing."

Parse the interjections, and write exercises on them.

MODEL.—*Ah* is an interjection, because it is used to express an emotion of the speaker.

Interjections are sometimes thrown between the parts of a sentence: at other times, used with a word or phrase; and often by themselves.

We express surprise or grief by the words Oh, O, Ah, Alas, &c., uttered with an unusual tone of voice, and expression of countenance. Pish, Pshaw, express contempt. Really, strange, &c. wonder.

Some names, verbs, and adjectives, are used in a detached manner, as interjections; as, Hail! Welcome! Bless me! &c.

DERIVATION.

However numerous the mass of words may be in a language, the *primitive* or *radical* words are few. Many words are formed by adding certain words or syllables, which were originally distinct words, but have lost their character as such; as, *er*, in *lover*, is a contraction of *wer*—a Saxon word meaning *man*—in the Latin *vir*.

The termination *ly* is a contraction of *like* or *liche*—*fy* is from the Latin *facio*, to make; &c.

E. g. from *Sign*, we have various families of derivatives; thus:

Sign—*signing*—*signed*—*signer*.
Signet—*sigil*—*seal*—*sealer*—*sealing*—*sigillative*.
Sign-al—*ize*—*ly*—*ity*—*ised*—*ising*, &c.
Sign-ation—*acle*—*atory*—*ature*, &c.
Sign-ify—*ificant*—*ificantly*—*ificance*.
Sign-ifying—*ed*—*er*—*cation*—*cative*—*catory*—*ly*.

With the prefixes, *as*—*con*—*de*—*re*—*en*—*pre*—*in*, we have—
As-sign-ment—*ation*—*er*—*ee*—*ed*—*ing*—*able*—*atory*—*ly*—
ative—*ificatory*—*ificable*, &c.

Con-sign-ment, &c.; six at least in family.

De-sign-er, &c.; nine compounds.

Re-sign-ed, &c.; six compounds.

En-sign—*s*—*ia*.

Pre-sign—*ify*, &c.

In-sign—*ificant*—*ificance*—*ificantly*.

In addition to these, we have *signless*, *signboard*, *signpost*, &c. See Lewis' Analytical Outlines, &c. p. 121.

Most of the derivatives in English come under the following heads.

I. Names are derived by adding,

1. *R*, *er* or *or* to names and verbs; as, *lover*, *assignor*, from *love*, *assign*.

2. *Ment* and *age*; to names and verbs; as, *commandment*, *punishment*, *parentage*, *stowage*, from *command*, *punish*, *parent*, *stow*.

3. *Dom* and *ric* to names; as, *kingdom*, *bishopric*, from *king*, *bishop*.

4. *Hood* and *ship* to names; as, *manhood*, *lordship*, from *man*, *lord*.

5. *Ess* to names; as *heiress*, from *heir*.

6. *Ate*, *ite* and *ret*; to names; as *carbonate*, *sulphite*, *sulphuret*, from *carbon*, *sulphur*.

7. *Cy* to names and attributes; as, *captaincy*, *currency*, from *captain*, *current*.

8. *Ian* to names; as, *physician*, from *physic*.

9. *Y* and *ery* to names; as, *grocery*, *foolery*, from *grocer*, *fool*.

10. *Kin* and *ling* to names; as, *lambkin*, *duckling*, from *lamb*, *duck*.

11. *Ist* to names and attributes; as, *psalmist*, *royalist*, from *psalm*, *royal*.

12. *Ee* to verbs; as *assignee*, from *assign*.

13. *Ness*, *ity*, &c. to attributes; as, *goodness*, *reality*, &c.

II. Verbs are derived from names and attributes.

1. By prefixing the particle *to*, as *to love*, *to cool*, from *love*, *cool*.

2. By adding *ize*; as, *systemize*, *moralize*, from *system*, *moral*.

3. By adding *n* or *en*; as *strengthen*, *deepen*, from *strength*, *deep*.

4. By adding *fy*; as, *stratify*, *beautify*, from *stratum*, *beauty*.

5. Many verbs are derived from other verbs by taking prefixes; as, *mistake*, *overtake*, *undertake*; from *take*.

III. Adjectives or Attributes are derived from names by adding;

1. *Y* and *ly*; as, *healthy*, *stately*, from *health*, *state*.

2. *Ful*; as, *hopeful*, from *hope*.

3. *Able* or *ible*; as, *creditable*, from *credit*: in the same way from verbs; as, *compressible*, from *compress*.

4. *Ish*; as, *waggish*, *childish*, from *wag*, *child*.

5. *Less*; as, *fatherless*, *pennyless*, from *father*, *penny*.

6. *Ous*; as, *famous*, *glorious*, from *fame*, *glory*.

7. *Some*; as, *burdensome*, from *burden*.

8. *Al*; as, *national*, *conventional*, from *nation*, *convention*.

9. *Ic*; as, *balsamic*, *poetic*, from *balsam*, *poet*.

10. *Ed*; as, *bigoted*, *talented*, from *bigot*, *talent*.

11. *N* and *en*; as, *silvan*, *silken*, from *silva*, *silk*.

12. From verbs by adding *ive* and *tory*; as, elective, defamatory, from elect, defame.

IV. Adverbs or Modifiers.

Many adverbs are derived from attributes and participles by adding *ly*; as finely, lovingly, from fine, loving.

A great many words, in the foregoing parts of speech, are formed by prefixing certain syllables; as, *re*, *pre*, *con*, *mis*, *sub*, *super*, &c., and many, by the union of two words; as, pen-knife, life-guard.

The words in the other parts of speech are mostly primitives.

RECAPITULATION OF ETYMOLOGY.

The second part of Grammar is Etymology, which treats of the different classes or sorts of words.

There are eight sorts, or classes of words—or parts of speech:

1. The Noun or name. 2. The Verb. 3. The Pronoun or Substitute. 4. The Adjective or Attribute. 5. The Adverb or Modifier. 6. The Preposition. 7. The Conjunction or Connective. 8. The Interjection or Exclamation.

I. NOUNS OR NAMES.

Nouns or Names are the words by which persons or things are called.

Names are of two kinds—*common* and *proper*.

A *common* name is a *general* name.

A *proper* name is a *particular* name.

GENDER. Gender is a modification of names to distinguish the sexes.

Names have two genders,—the masculine and feminine.

The *masculine* gender denotes *males*—the *feminine*, *females*.

PERSON. The person of a name, is its position in discourse. Names have three persons, or positions in discourse; the first, second and third.

The first person is the position of the speaker—the second is spoken to—the third person, is spoken of.

NUMBER. Number is the different forms of names to express one or more. Names have two numbers, the singular and plural.

The singular number denotes but one—the plural, more than one.

CASE. Case means the position of the name in a sentence, with respect to other words. Names have three cases—the nominative, possessive and objective.

The nominative, is the position of the name when it is the subject of a proposition.

The possessive case denotes ownership.

The objective case denotes the object of an action, or of a relation.

II. VERB.

A verb is a word that asserts action, or being, or a state of being.

Verbs are of two kinds—transitive and intransitive.

A transitive verb asserts action, which *does*, or *can*, terminate on an object.

An intransitive verb asserts being, or a state of being, or action, which cannot terminate on an object.

VOICE. Voice means a particular modification of transitive verbs, by which they show whether the action is performed by the nominative, or by some other agent upon the nominative.

Transitive verbs have two forms, called the active and passive voices.

In the active voice, a transitive verb asserts action *performed* by the subject or nominative.

In the passive voice, a transitive verb asserts action *received* or *suffered* by the subject or nominative.

Intransitive verbs have no distinction of voice.

MODES. Mode is the modification of the verb by which its assertion is varied. Verbs have five modes—the infinitive, indicative, potential, subjunctive and imperative.

The infinitive mode is that form of the verb, in which its assertion is not limited by person or number.

The indicative, is the form of the verb in which it simply asserts action and being, or asks questions.

The potential mode is the form of the verb in which it asserts action and being as possible or necessary.

The subjunctive mode is the form of the verb in which it asserts action and being as contingent or hypothetical.

The imperative mode is the form of the verb used for commanding, entreating and permitting.

TENSE. Tense is the modification of the verb, which denotes the time of the action or being. Verbs have six tenses—the present, prior-present, past, prior-past, future and prior-future.

The present tense is the form of the verb that denotes present time.

The prior-present tense is the form of the verb that denotes past time, and conveys an allusion to the present.

The past tense is the form of the verb which denotes past time.

The prior-past tense is the form of the verb that denotes past time, but as prior to some other past act specified.

The future tense is the form of the verb which denotes future time.

The prior-future tense is the form of the verb that denotes future time, but as prior to some other future act specified.

AUXILIARY VERBS. Auxiliary verbs, are chiefly used to form the modes and tenses of other verbs.

CONJUGATION. The conjugation of a verb is a regular combination and arrangement of its several modes, tenses, persons and numbers.

ROOT. The root of a verb, is the present, of the infinitive.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. Pres. past and perf. part.

Participles are certain forms of verbs used to describe nouns. There are three—the present, perfect and compound perfect.

The present participle denotes continued action.

The perfect participle denotes finished action.

The compound perfect participle is formed by prefixing the participle *having*, to perfect participle.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR. Regular verbs form the past tense and perfect part. by adding *d* or *ed* to the present—all others are irregular.

PASSIVE VOICE. The passive voice is formed by adding the perf. part. of a transitive verb in the active voice, to the verb *be* in all its inflections.

DEFECTIVE VERBS. Defective verbs are those which are used in only part of the conjugation.

III. PRONOUNS OR SUBSTITUTES.

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid a too frequent repetition of the same word.

LISTS OF THE SUBSTITUTES.

- Person { 1. I, thou or you, he, she, it—we, ye or you, they.
2. Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs.
Compound—myself, thyself, himself, ourselves, &c.

The above are personal, because their forms show what person they are in.

3. Who, which, that, what.

4. This, that, these, those.

5. As, both, same, such.

6. Many, few, all, any, several.

7. First, last, former, latter, less, least.

8. Some, one, other, another, none.

9. Each, every, either, neither, whether.

The distinctions of person, number and case belong to substitutes, as to names.

IV. ADJECTIVES OR ATTRIBUTES.

Adjectives are words added to names, to express the qualities of the things named.

Adjectives are varied, to express the different degrees of quality;—the variation is called,

COMPARISON. Adjectives have three degrees of comparison—some, four—the imperfect, positive, comparative and superlative.

The imperfect degree, denotes a slight degree of the quality—the positive, expresses the quality, as positive and distinct—the comparative increases the positive, in meaning—and the superlative expresses the highest or lowest degree of the quality.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES. These are of two kinds—*cardinal* and *ordinal*.

DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES. These are words added to names, to define their application: they are known by lists.

1. Each, every, either, neither.
2. The, this, that, these, those, former, latter, yon.
3. An or a, any, some, other, another, all, such, several, what.

V. ADVERBS OR MODIFIERS.

Adverbs are words added to verbs, adjectives and other adverbs, to modify their meaning.

VI. PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions are words used to connect words and show the relation between them.

VII. CONJUNCTIONS OR CONNECTIVES.

Conjunctions are words used to connect words or sentences.

VIII. INTERJECTIONS OR EXCLAMATIONS.

Interjections are words used to express the emotions of the speaker.

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*Promiscuous Exercises.*

—

A DIRGE.

CALM on the bosom of thy God,  
Young spirit! rest thee now!  
Even while with us thy footstep trod,  
His seal was on thy brow.

Dust, to its narrow house beneath!  
Soul, to its place on high!—  
They that have seen thy look in death,  
No more may fear to die.

Lone are the paths, and sad the bowers,  
Whence thy meek smile is gone;  
But oh!—a brighter home than ours,  
In heaven, is now thine own.

Mrs. Hemans.

## THE CHILD AND DOVE.

SUGGESTED BY CHANTREY'S STATUE OF LADY LOUISA RUSSELL.

Thou art a thing on our dreams to rise,  
'Midst the echoes of long-lost melodies,  
And to fling bright dew from the morning back,  
Fair form! on each image of childhood's track.

Thou art a thing to recall the hours  
When the love of our souls was on leaves and flowers;  
When a world was our own in some dim sweet grove,  
And treasure untold in one captive dove.

Are they gone? can we think it, while *thou* art there,  
Thou joyous child with the clustering hair?  
Is it not spring that indeed breathes free  
And fresh o'er each thought, while we gaze on thee?

No! never more may we smile as thou  
Sheddest round smiles from thy sunny brow;  
Yet something it is, in our hearts to shrine  
A memory of beauty undimm'd as thine:

To have met the joy of thy speaking face,  
To have felt the spell of thy breezy grace,  
To have linger'd before thee, and turn'd, and borne  
One vision away of the cloudless morn.

Mrs. Hemans.

## ORDER OF PARSING.

In parsing, the learner should give the reason of *every thing*, as he proceeds, until he is thoroughly familiar with all the definitions and reasons. Whenever a rule is applied, let it be repeated.

### I. NAMES.

A Name or Noun  
Com. or Prop.  
(— Gender\*)  
— Person  
— Number  
— Case  
Government  
Rule

### III. SUBSTITUTES.

A Pronoun or Substitute  
Stands for —  
(— Gender\*)  
— Person and  
— Number, to agree  
Rule —  
— Case  
Government  
Rule

### V. ADVERBS.

An Adverb  
Belongs to  
Rule

### VII. CONJUNCTIONS.

A Conjunction  
Connecting —

### II. VERBS.

A Verb  
Root, —  
Prin. parts —  
Reg. Irreg. or Def.  
Trans. or Intrans.  
(Voice, †)  
— Mode  
— Tense  
— Person  
— Number  
Agreement  
Rule

### IV. ADJECTIVES.

An Adjective  
(Numeral or Definitive Adj.)  
— Degree  
Belongs to —  
Rule

### VI. PREPOSITIONS.

A Preposition  
Connecting —  
The antecedent term, with —  
The sub'q't term of the relation.

### VIII. INTERJECTIONS.

An Interjection.

\* The distinction of gender is not to be mentioned in parsing nouns not masculine or feminine, nor in parsing any substitutes except *he* and *she*.

† The distinction of voice is not to be named in parsing intransitive verbs.

## SYNTAX.

SYNTAX is a system of Rules for the construction of sentences.

In other words :

Syntax is *sentence making*.

NOTE. The Rules of Syntax are comprised under four general divisions — *Government* — *Concord* or *Agreement* — *General Construction* and *Punctuation*.

A *Sentence* is an assemblage of words forming a complete *proposition*.

A *Phrase* is two or more words rightly put together.

Sentences are either *simple* or *compound*.

A simple sentence contains one subject, or nom. and one personal verb, that is, a *subject* and a *verb*, and without these, no proposition can be formed; as, Man lives.

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences connected together; as, God is good, and man is dependent.

Each division of a compound sentence, is a *clause*, or *member* of the sentence.

*Government* is the influence that one word has, in directing the person, number or case of another.

*Concord* is the agreement of one word with another in a sentence.

*General Construction* is the position of the different parts and phrases of a sentence, with reference to each other.

An *adjunct* is a phrase added to a word or sentence to illustrate or amplify the import of other words, or of the whole sentence.

## GENERAL ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

Some sentences consist of two parts, the *subject* or nom. case, and *verb*; and others, consist of three parts, the *subject*, the *verb* or *copula*;\* and a *predicate* or an *object*; and many have adjuncts in connection with these parts.

*Examples.*

"God is omnipotent." "The sun shines." The sun in his strength, rules the day. The sun rules the day, by divine appointment.

Analyze these sentences, after the following

*Models of Analyzing Sentences.*

God is the *subject*; *is*, is the *verb* or *copula*, and *omnipotent* is the *predicate*.

Second sentence thus. *Sun* is the *subject*, and *shines*, is the *verb*.†

Third sentence thus. *Sun* is the *subject*, *rules* is the *verb*, and *day* is the *object*, and, *in his strength*, is an adjunct of *Sun*.

Fourth sentence, in the same way—*by divine appointment*, is an adjunct of the whole sentence.

**NOTE.** The third member of a sentence should be called the *object*, when it is the object of a transitive verb; but in other circumstances, it should be called the *predicate*, being a noun or an adjective.

The phrases connected with sentences, are adjuncts.

☞ The learner should be well drilled in the general analysis of sentences. He should resolve compound sentences into their several simple ones, and then analyze each.

The particular analysis of sentences, is the parsing of all the words in them.

\* The *copula* is the *verb*, or affirming word, which connects the subject with the predicate or object.

† In this kind of sentences the *copula* and *predicate*, are both comprised in the verb.

## GOVERNMENT OF VERBS.

## RULE I.

The nominative case governs the verb, which asserts its action or being, in person and number; as, he learns; the boys learn; thou learnest.

Question. What is the foundation and reason of this rule?

See p. 50.

*Exercises.*

The pupil writes. Thou writest. You write. The boys play. The girls read. The bird sings. The lambs skip.

Parse the nominative word in each exercise, according to former models.

**REMARK.** Every nominative case, except the nom. independent, and absolute, must have a verb expressed or implied.

*General Directions.*

☞ These directions should be strictly followed by the learner.

1. Go through the rules carefully, omitting the notes, until the review, and then take both *rules* and *notes*, thoroughly.

2. Give the *general analysis* of each sentence, before parsing the words prescribed.

3. Parse *only* the words that come under the rule or note with which you are engaged, omitting all other parts of the sentence, for the time being.

4. Parse those words in the examples, and then correct the incorrect sentences, and parse in the same way.

5. Go through all the examples and exercises, and review until you are thoroughly familiar with the rule or note, and its use.

6. *Never quit a rule or note*, until you understand well, the reason of its use.

7. After sufficient exercise on the rule or note with which you are engaged; review the exercises, and parse all words that come under the rules; or rules and notes through which you have passed; omitting all others for the time being.

8. After going through, and reviewing as above, review again, and parse all the words in the exercises.

*Composition.*

Select three subjects, and write in your book, three simple sentences on each, after the following

*Model.*

Man is mortal.  
Man is liable to many accidents.  
Man is subject to death.

*Foundation of Note.*

It is sometimes necessary to make an assertion respecting an independent action or proposition; as, "*To see* is pleasant." *James departed*, is a short sentence. Hence the following,

## NOTE.

A verb in the infinitive mode; a sentence, or a clause, may be the subject of a verb; as, "*To die* is the inevitable lot of man."

Why is this note necessary? See above.

*Exercises.*

"To be blind is calamitous." To live in peace should be the aim of every one. "To attack vices in the abstract, without touching persons, may be safe fighting indeed, but it is fighting with shadows." Pope.

"To throw the fire-brand of war among the nations at this period, would be treason." Channing, on War.

His being at enmity with Cæsar was the cause of perpetual discord.

"I deny that men's coming to the use of reason, is the time of their discovery." Locke, 1, 2.

"To show how the understanding proceeds herein, is the design of the following discourse." Locke, 1, 4.

"To fear no eye and to suspect no tongue, is the great prerogative of innocence." Rambler.

Tell what is the subject of the verb in each of the foregoing examples and exercises, and then

Review, and parse, all the words that come under any of the rules, and this note.

Compose five sentences, with a verb in the infinitive, for the subject, and then several with a clause or sentence, as the subject.

## RULE II.

*A verb must agree with its subject-nominative in person and number; as, thou art; the man labors; Jane studies; they study; thou studiest.*

Why must a verb agree with its nominative? See p. 51.

NOTE. To find the nom. to any verb, ask a question with the verb, by prefixing *who* or *what*; as, John reads. Who reads? and the answer will always be the nominative.

Correct the following exercises, and parse the words that come under Rule II.

*Incorrect Construction.*

"A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye."

"A part only of the individuals are meant." Smith's Gram.

"Good order, and not mean savings, produce honest profit."

What avails the best sentiments, if persons do not live according to them.

"In the department of Philip, a degree of awkwardness and dignity were blended."

"He need not proceed in such haste."

"In him were happily blended true dignity, with softness of manners."

No longer fame the drooping hearts inspire.

"The side A, with the side B and C, compose the triangle."

So much both of ability and merit are seldom found.

A judicious arrangement of studies facilitate improvement.

To these precepts are subjoined a copious selection of rules and maxims.

There remains two points to be considered.

Review these exercises, and parse the words that come under the first and second rules. Then

Write several exercises, as under Rule I. and

Write exercises under all the rules and notes, as you proceed.

REMARK. Every verb, limited by person and number, must have a nominative case, expressed or understood; except those specified in the following ninth note.

*Foundation of the Notes under Rule II.*

(Except the 6th, 9th and 10th.)

When the word or words, which are in the nominative case to any verb, convey unity of idea, the verb must be in the singular; but if they convey plurality of idea, the verb must be in the plural form. Hence the following seven notes.

## NOTE I.

When a verb is governed by the infinitive mode, or a clause, it must be in the third person singular; as, "to ride is more pleasant than to walk." "To learn is desirable." "To read with propriety is a pleasing and important attainment."

Question. On what principle is this note founded. See above.

*Incorrect Construction.*

To live soberly, righteously, and godly, are required of all men.

"To do unto others as we would that they, in similar circumstances, should do unto us, constitute the great principle of virtue."

To give rules for the management of the voice in reading, by which the necessary pauses, emphasis, and tones may be discovered and put in practice, are not possible.

To maintain a steady and unbroken mind amidst all the shocks of the world, mark a great and noble spirit.

Parse, as before directed, then review the exercises and parse all the words that come under all the rules, and the foregoing notes, and write exercises under this note, and

Continue this practice *thoroughly* throughout Syntax.

## NOTE II.

Two or more infinitives, or clauses, connected by *and*, being the subject of a verb, require the verb to be in the plural; as, to eat and to play *constitute* the chief employment of some. "To be prosperous, and to be happy, require attention to our affairs."

On what principle is this note founded? See Found. p. 128.

*Incorrect Construction.*

To be wise in our own eyes, to be wise in the opinion of the world, and to be wise in the sight of our Creator, is three things so widely different as rarely to coincide.

"To be of a pure and humble mind, to exercise benevolence towards others, to cultivate piety towards God, is the sure means of becoming peaceful and happy."

"It is an important truth, that religion, vital religion, the religion of the heart, are the most powerful auxiliaries of reason, in waging war with the passions."

To fear God, and to keep his commandments, bespeaks a great and noble mind.

To minutely perceive the ideas, and enter into the feeling of the author, is essential to a complete reader.

To advise the ignorant, relieve the needy, and comfort the afflicted, constitutes an important part of the duties of the pious.

The thoughtless and intemperate enjoyment of pleasure, the criminal abuse of it, and the forgetfulness of our accountability, obliterates every serious thought of the proper business of life, and effaces the sense of religion and of God.

## NOTE III.

Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns in the singular number, connected by *and*, must have verbs, nouns and pronouns agreeing with them in the plural; as, Peter and Thomas are good boys, they have learned their lessons well.

What is the principle on which this note is founded? See page 128.

*Incorrect Construction.*

Warren and Putnam was brave men.

John and Thomas has returned.

"Both life and health is uncertain."

Why is redness and heat in fire?

Sincerity and truth forms the basis of every virtue.

And so was also William and John, the son of Henry, who was partners with Anthony.

"Five and eight makes thirteen." "Five from eight leave three."

"What is the latitude and longitude of that island?"

## NOTE IV.

If the singular nouns, connected by *and*, are limited by *each*, *every*, *either* or *neither*, the verb and pronoun must be in the singular; as, "Every leaf, and every twig, and every drop of water, teems with life." Each day and each hour brings its portion of duty.

What is the foundation of this note? See *Foundation*, page 128.

*Incorrect Construction.*

Each beast, and each insect, are happy in their own proper sphere.

"Every house, and even every cottage were plundered."

"Every man, woman, and child were numbered."

"Each one of his brothers are in a favorable situation."

Neither James nor John have permission to go.

Every thought, every word, and every action are to be remembered in judgment, whether they be good or evil.

"Let each esteem other better than themselves."

"The language should be both perspicuous and correct; in proportion as either of these two qualities are wanting, the language is imperfect." "Every one of the letters bear regular dates and contain proofs of attachment."

"Each of them, in their turn, receive the benefits to which they are entitled."

"Neither of those men seem to have any idea that their opinions may be ill founded."

"Neither of them (Tillotson and Temple) are remarkable for precision."—Blair.

## NOTE V.

Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns singular, connected by the *alternative*, or *or* or *nor*, must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns to agree with them in the singular; as, ignorance or negligence has caused the mistake. "Fear or jealousy affects him."

What is the foundation of this note? See *Foundation*, page 128.

*Incorrect Construction.*

William or Henry are in fault.

Neither honor nor profit are sufficient to satisfy the immortal mind.

"Man's happiness or misery are in a great measure put into his own hands."

"Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which move merely as they are moved."

Despise no infirmity of mind or body, nor any condition of life, for they are liable to be thy own lot.

Speaking impatiently to servants, or any thing that betrays inattention, or ill humor, are improprieties.

There are many letters used in spelling, which neither analogy or pronunciation justify.

When sickness, infirmity, or reverse of fortune affect us, they test the sincerity of friendship.

"A tart reply, a proneness to rebuke, or a captious and contradictory spirit, are capable of embittering domestic life."

*Foundation of Note VI.*

In discourse, the second person is more important than the third; and the first person, than the second or third. Hence,

## NOTE VI.

When nouns and pronouns of different persons are connected in the nominative case, the verb must agree, in person, with the one next to it, and the pronoun must be put in the first person rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third; as, "I or thou art to blame." "I, thou, or he is the author of it." "George or I am the person."

Better thus: I am to blame or thou art, &c.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

*Incorrect Construction.*

Either George or you deserves punishment.

If he or I falls. Neither he nor I is responsible.

"James and thou and I are attached to their country."

Thou and the gardner, and the huntsman is to share the blame of this business amongst themselves.

My sister and I, as well as my brother, is daily employed in their respective occupations.

While you are playing, my brother and I am attentive to their studies.

You and I devotes your leisure hours to study.

Both you and James will be disappointed of their object.

"Thou or he art the person."

## NOTE VII.

When a verb comes between two nominatives of different numbers, either of which may be the subject of the affirmation, it may agree with either, according to the sense; as, "the wages of sin is death." "His meat was locusts and wild honey."

On what principle is this note founded? See Foundation, page 128.

REMARK. The verb is generally made to agree with the first nominative, which is preferable.

*Incorrect Construction.*

The crown of virtue are peace and honor.

His chief occupation and enjoyment was controversy.

"So great an affliction to him was his wicked sons."

"A diphthong are two vowels joined in one syllable."

"The reproofs of instruction is the way of life."

"The corporation of York consist of a mayor, alderman, and a common council."

"The British parliament are composed of king, lords, and commons."

A great cause of the low state of industry were the restraints put upon it.

## NOTE VIII.

A collective noun conveying unity of idea, must have a verb in the singular; but if it conveys plurality of idea, the verb must be in the plural; as, "The meeting was large." "Congress has adjourned." "The council were divided in their sentiments."

What is the principle on which this note is founded? See page 128.

*Incorrect Construction.*

"The court of Rome is not without solicitude."

"The house of commons were of small weight."

"Stephen's party were entirely broken up."

"An army of twenty-four thousand were assembled."

"What reason have the Church of Rome for proceeding in this manner?"

"The fleet were seen sailing up the channel."

"The regiment consist of a thousand men."

The people sometimes spurns its own good.

"The committee were very full when this point was decided, and their judgment has not been called in question."

The multitude was divided.

"Never were any people so much infatuated as the Jewish nation."

What reason has the people for its course.

The committee was divided in its sentiments.

The substitutes *it* and *they* are both used to represent collective nouns, clearly limited to unity of idea; as, Congress has fixed the day of its (or their) adjournment; but it (or they) will, most probably, re-consider the resolution.

*Foundation of Note IX.*

It is allowable, in some cases, to assert imperative action without referring it to any specific agent. Hence,

## NOTE IX.

In some cases the imperative verb is used without a definite nominative; as, "And God said *let* there be light." Gen. i. 13. "Israel burned none, *save* Hazor only." Josh. xi. 13. "I would that all—were such as I am, *except* these bonds." Acts xxvi. 29.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

REMARK 1. Note 9 is extracted from Webster's Improved Grammar. In the above examples, the verbs *let*, *save* and *except*, assert actions which do not require to be appropriated to any specific agent. The verb *let* occurs thirteen times in the first chapter of Genesis, where it cannot be referred to any agent whatever.

REMARK 2. This idiom is of frequent use, and great convenience, but it has not been properly explained in any grammar

with which I am acquainted, except Dr. Webster's. *Except* is used, as a verb, in the different modes, wherever the English language is used, and it can be conjugated as easily as *love* or *write*. What then is the apology for calling it a preposition in these circumstances? In this use of the verb it may be applied to either person.

*Examples and Exercises.*

"If his son ask bread, will he give him a stone?" "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him." *If* and *though* have no connecting power whatever in these examples. They are defective verbs, disposed of according to Note 9. See them in Webster's large Dic. "Suppose I were to say light is body." Hume. "Except ye repent." "Ye cannot bear fruit except ye abide in me." "He that is washed, needeth not, save to wash his feet." "Add to this their custom of plantation of colonies." Bacon. "Could two bodies be in the same place at the same time, then these two parcels of matter must be one and the same, take them great or little." Locke. "Let brighter thoughts be with the virtuous dead." Mrs. Hemans.

"Where none kneel save when to Heaven they pray,  
Nor even then unless in their own way."—Halleck's Conn.

NOTE X.

In asserting a present uncertainty, the verb in the subjunctive, should have the indicative form; as, "If principles are innate." "If I am rightly informed."

On what is this note founded? Ans. Usage and the instruction of most grammars.

REMARK 1. The pedantic forms—*if he write—if thou come*, &c. were laid aside by the classical authors of the eighteenth century, who wrote the verb in the present of the subjunctive, as people spoke it, and still speak it, unless misled by grammars. See the works of Locke, Johnson, Pope, Hume, Porteus, Coxe, Junius, Prideaux, Blackstone, and many others.

Grammarians usually explain the subjunctive form which they put in the present tense, as having a future signification; and the people have erred in doing as the grammarians do, not as they say; for if the people would do as the grammarians say, they would use this form *only with a future signification*.

Of this form of the verb, Dr. Webster remarks, that its

arrangement in the present tense of the subjunctive mode, is one of the most palpable mistakes that the compilers of English grammars have committed.

REMARK 2. In the early history of our language, it was very common for authors to omit the auxiliary *shall*, &c. in the subjunctive future. The translators of the Bible, generally neglecting all distinction between *present uncertainty* and *future contingency*, blended two tenses of the original into one of English, which grammarians have placed in the present. King James' translators merely revised former translations, making a few verbal alterations; and hence our version of the Holy Scriptures is in the style of the age of Elizabeth.

*Incorrect Construction.*

If he loves his school, he will improve. If she write often, it is a mark of industry. If he think closely. If thou be a son. Unless I be mistaken. Though he know the way. If he be rightly informed. If the soldier have quit his rank. If thou have been feared. If it have returned. If the letter be written. If he be dwelling with delight.

*Promiscuous Exercises on Verbs.*

"Be it enacted." Here the verb is in the imperative mode, and *it* is the nominative, and stands for the whole section or act spoken of, and *that*, which usually follows the assertion, stands for the same. "Be it remembered," is disposed of similarly.

"Fond mourner be that solace thine." J. Q. Adams.

"Blessed be he that blesseth thee, and cursed be he that curseth thee."

"Be my tongue mute, my fancy paint no more." Thompson.

"O be it never heard again." Bryant.

"Green be the turf above thee." Halleck.

"And never be the secret said  
Until the deep give up his dead." Everett.

"For *he meseems* most fit the fair to serve  
That can her best defend from villanie." Spenser.

*He* is the subject of *seems*, and *me* is obj. governed by *to* understand. *Methinks* and *methought*, have the same construction, for the verb *think* in these expressions, is from the saxon *thencan*, *to seem—not to think*—a different root from that of *think*, in *I think*.

## ADJECTIVES.

## RULE III.

*Adjectives belong to the names of the things which they describe*; as, A wise son. A glad father. A high tree. An old tune. The best way.

What is the foundation of this Rule? See page 100.

REMARK. Adjectives should, usually, be placed next to the nouns to which they belong—always, when there are two nouns, near each other; as, a tract of *good* land; not a *good* tract of land; a pair of *new* shoes; not a *new* pair of shoes.

*Incorrect Construction.*

He made a good pair of shoes. She knit a fine pair of socks. I gave a cold cup of water. James wears a new pair of shoes. He built a high string of fence. Susan bought a splendid pair of gloves. They bought a good load of hay. He drove a fat lot of hogs. They drive a fine span of horses. They have a most elegant supply of furniture. He wears a very fine suit of clothes.

*Foundation of Note 1.*

Pronouns or substitutes fill the office of nouns, and therefore adjectives may belong to them for the same reason for which they belong to nouns. Hence,

## NOTE 1.

Adjectives sometimes belong to pronouns or substitutes; as, I am *miserable*. He is *happy*. They are *joyful*.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

*Examples.*

Some are young and others are beautiful. "For many, I say unto you, will seek to enter in, and shall not be able." Luke xiii. 24. "'Tis fearful." Dana. "He, feverish, blinded, lives, and, feverish, sated dies." *Ibm.* Daybreak. "Jubal was the father of all such as handle the harp and organ." Gen. iv. 21. "The boy wounded the old bird and stole the young ones." "They came with their little ones." Happy is he whose heart does not reproach him. They are benevolent. Some one went.

*Foundation of Note, II.*

*Qualities* may be predicated of actions. Hence,

## NOTE II.

Adjectives sometimes belong to verbs; as, "To see is *pleasant*." "Magnesia feels *smooth*."

Explain the reason of this note. See above.

*Exercises.*

"To ride is more pleasant than to walk." To study is useful. To labor is right. To return was necessary. To command is pleasant to some. To obey is righteous.

She reads loud. She talks fast. Julia speaks low. The choir sung very bad. The object appears double.

"Calcareous earths feel *dry*." "High gleaming from afar."

"From out the trees the Sabbath bell  
Rings cheerful, far and wide." Dana's Buccanier.

"His ax glanced quick in air." *Ibm.*

"Dutton was a little embarrassed." Cooper.

"—of thereby better obtaining the object." Lord Ashburton.

"—how swift their poniards flew." Sir W. Jones.

"The silver lamp burns dead and dim." Coleridge.

"And flashing armor frequent broke." Scott's Lay, &c.

"And high curvetting, slow advance." *Ibm.*

"Let us write slow and exact." Guthrie. Quinct. 2, 375.

"The bells sounded sweetly soft and pensive. Chandler.

"Lithomarga feels very greasy or at least smooth; yet some feel dry and dusty." Kirwan. vol. 1, 12, 189.

"Drink deep or taste not the Pierian spring." Pope.

"It makes the plow go deep or shallow." Enc. art. Agri.

Mr. Webster call this, "one of the most common, as well as most beautiful idioms of our language, which has hitherto escaped due observation." See his Imp. Gram., Rule XVIII. Syntax, and the numerous authorities, he gives.

*Foundation of Note III.*

The quality, which is predicated of the sentiment of a clause or sentence, belongs to it, therefore, the adjective expressing the quality, must belong to the clause. Hence

## NOTE III.

Adjectives sometimes belong to clauses or sentences; as, "To be blind is *unfortunate*." "To be a coward is *disgraceful*." "*Agreeable* to this, we read of names being blotted out of God's book."—Burder's Oriental Customs, 375. See Webster's Imp. Grammar, Rule 17, Syn.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

*Exercises.*

"*Contrary* to his directions, *they had spared the Canaanites*." "*Contrary* to custom, *the conquerers adopted the manners of the conquered*." "*Agreeable* to this, *we find some of the Anglo-Saxon ladies were admitted into their most august assemblies*." Henry Hist. Brit. b. 2, ch. 7.

In these examples the adjectives qualify all the clauses in italics, respectively.

Nobody can doubt that these ideas of mixed modes are made by a voluntary collection of ideas put together in the mind, independent of any original patterns in nature.

"As all language is composed of significant words, variously combined, a knowledge of them is necessary, previous to our acquiring an adequate idea of language." Encycl.

"No such original convention of the people was ever actually held antecedent to the existence of civil government in that country." Paley's Phil. v. 6, ch. 3.

"Suitable to this, we find that, men, speaking of mixed modes, seldom imagine," &c. Locke, 3, 5, 11.

REMARK 1. It is supposed by many, that in these, and similar sentences, the attribute belongs to the verb, denoting the *manner* of the action; but a little attention to the construction and sense of the exercise, will detect the mistake. E. g. *He departed contrary* to his orders. Here it cannot be said that the *manner* of his departure, was *contrary* to his orders, but the *fact*—the whole proposition—he departed—was *contrary*, &c.

REMARK 2. "In consequence of not attending to this construction, our hypercritics, who are very apt to distrust popular practice, and substitute their own rules for customary idioms, founded on common sense, have condemned this use of the attribute, and authors, suffering themselves to be led astray by these rules, often use an adverb in the place of an adjective." Webster's Imp. Gram.

*Incorrect Construction.*

He came *agreeably* to his promise. It should be, *he came agreeable*; when corrected, for the *fact*, and not the *manner* was the subject of his promise.

Their vehemence of gesture was *conformably* to their vehemence of thought. He arrived *priorly* to my departure.

They departed *anteriorly* to that date.

Hesiod lived *posteriorly* to Homer.

"*Priorly* to his arrival in England."

The house was situated *contiguously* to the line.

"To do what we will, *consistently* with the interests of the community, is civil liberty." Paley's Phil. 6, 5.

These sentences are not English; for it is not the *manner of doing*, but the *thing done*, which must be *consistent* with the public interest; and so of the others.

"To learn is governed by begins, *agreeably* to Rule XII." Smith's Gram. p. 84. (A very common error in S.)

"A misapprehension of the true import and construction of such passages, has done immense mischief to the language." Webster's Imp. Gram. p. 109.

He departed *contrarily* to orders. They finished the job *independently* of other help.

N. B. When an author intends to qualify the *idea* of the proposition, or phrase, the adjective should be used; but if he intends to describe the *manner* of the action, then the adverbial form should be employed.

REMARK 3. Some adjectives are often connected to the sentences to which they belong, by *prepositions*: thus:

He labors in vain. Shall they seek in vain?

Here *vain* is an adjective, connected to the sentences respectively, by *in*, and belongs to them according to the foregoing note.

*He is lame*. In this sentence the adjective is connected to the word to which it belongs, by *is*; and in the above examples, a similar office of *connecting* is filled by *in*, though without assertion.

This whole expense has been incurred in vain. His record is on high. Here the adjectives *vain* and *high* qualify, respectively, the whole sentiment of the foregoing sentences, to which they are connected by the prepositions *in* and *on*.

REMARK 1. The common mode of disposing of such expressions, is, as Horne Tooke expresses the idea, to throw them into the *common sink of adverbs*, by calling them adverbial phrases. This wholesale disposition of words is allowable in logical parsing, but should never be admitted into Syntactical parsing, where each word ought to receive its classification, separate and distinct from all others.

REMARK 2. When the grammarian finds himself lacking rules, by which to dispose of words in their common use and relation he should employ his talents rather in educing rules to meet the case, than in distorting authorized forms of speech, to meet any deficiency in grammar; for the paramount *law of parsing* is,

PARSE ALL WORDS AS GOOD AUTHORS COMMONLY USE THEM.

#### *Foundation of Note IV.*

Sometimes the qualities of things depend chiefly on the action which produces them: hence,

#### NOTE IV.

Adjectives sometimes qualify the meaning of nouns, only as the *effects of the verbs* that agree with them; as, "*Open thy mouth wide.*" Ps. 81. 10.

What is the foundation of this Note? See above.

In this passage, the adjective *wide* depends, chiefly, upon the verb *open*; for it is not *open thy wide mouth*, but the attribute is the direct effect of the *act of opening*. Nor can the adverb *widely* be substituted for the adjective, for it is not the *manner of the act*, but the *effect* produced.

REMARK. In the doctrine of this note, our language is perfectly analogous to the Latin, Greek, and French.

#### *Authorities and Exercises.*

"The apples boil soft or hard."

"How dark and stern upon thy waves looks down,  
Yonder tall cliff—he with iron crown."

Dana's Ocean.

— "It must grow dim." Ibm.

"Canst thou grow sad, thou sayest, as earth grows bright?"  
Dana's Daybreak.

"Men grow pale and pray." Bryant. The Winds.

— "Who, an humbler flower could make  
Immortal as his song." Halleck's Burns.

"Yes, the year is growing old." Longfellow.

— "And every point made fast." Falconer.

"For I must tread on shadowy ground, must sink  
Deep ——" Wordsworth's Recluse.

"My long frozen heart grows warm." Ibm.

"Her countenance grows sad and soft."  
Coleridge's Christabel.

"Weak and weaker grew our hands  
Strong and stronger still our hearts."  
James Montgomery's Wanderer.

REMARK. The adjectives in the foregoing examples, cannot be changed into adverbs without impairing the beauty, weakening the force or destroying the meaning of the passages. Try some of them. Apples boil softly or hardly. It is evident that the sense is destroyed, in this passage, and, furthermore, every cultivated ear would reject the change.

#### *Foundation of Note V.*

One quality may be predicated of another, in which case it properly belongs to the other quality; hence

#### NOTE V.

Adjectives sometimes belong to other adjectives; as, "*red hot iron.*" *Pale red* lining. *Deep blue* cloth. A *very pressing* call.

Question. What is the foundation and reason of this note? See above.

REMARK. This note is equivalent to Webster's 19th rule of Syntax.

#### *Authorities and Exercises.*

"Mean time *full anxious* was the dame." Scott's Lay, &c. Can. 5, 15.

"And freed *full sixty* knights. Scott's Marmion, Int. to Can. 1.

"So wondrous wild the whole might seem  
The scenery of a fairy dream." Lady of Lake, Canto 1, 12.

- "Without coming any nearer."  
 "Full many a gem of purest ray serene." Gray.  
 "Some deemed him wondrous wise." Beattie's Minstrel.  
 "Last night was fearful dark." Dana's Buçcanier.  
 "A little inland was a village." Two Adm. vol. i. p. 15.  
 Three hundred thousand men.  
 "And it grew wondrous cold." Coleridge's An. Mariner.  
 "Full many shapes that shows were,  
 In crimson colours came." *Ibm.*  
 "Affording scarce such breadth of brim  
 As served the wild duck's brood to swim."  
 Lady of Lake, Canto 1, 13.  
 "Full many minstrels sing and say." Scott's Lay, &c. Can. 3, 4.  
 "They rejoiced with exceeding great joy." Mat. ii. 10.  
 "Rejoice and be exceeding glad." Mat. v. 12.  
 "Passing strange."  
 "And frame love ditties passing rare,  
 And sing them to a lady fair." Scott's Mar. Canto 9, 17.  
 "The disease in king Asa's feet was exceeding great." 2  
 Chron. xvi. 12.  
 "A man he was, to all the country, dear,  
 And passing rich, with forty pounds a year."  
 "I saw an infant, marble cold." Mrs. Sigourney.  
 "Muffled silence, wood-nymph shy." Grainger.

"Not unfrequently two attributes are used to modify a third, or the principal one; as, "The manner in which external force acts upon the body is very little subject to the will." Rambler, No. 78."

REMARK. Most grammarians would violate the language and style of reputable authors, by either changing the adjectives under this and the following note into adverbs, or inventing some circumlocution, or throwing them into adverbial phrases—neither of which can find any justification by any authority pertaining to them.

#### Foundation of Note VI.

Quality may be predicated of *manner*, in which case the *quality belongs to the manner*: hence

#### NOTE VI.

Adjectives sometimes belong to adverbs; as, "a city was *very* bravely defended." "The soldiers were *most* amply rewarded." "A donation *more* beneficially bestowed."

N. B. This note is equivalent to Webster's 20th rule of Syntax.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

REMARK. The adverb expresses the *manner* of the act, and the adjective attends the adverb to qualify that manner.

#### Authorities and Exercises.

- "These fellows know *full well* whom they should fear." Dana.  
 "Full oft his wisdom strove." Falconer's Shipwreck, Can. 1.  
 "Full twice twelve summers were yon towers assail'd  
 Till barbarous Ottoman at last prevail'd."\* *Ibm.*  
 "The famed and great, decreed to equal pain,  
 Full oft in splendid wretchedness complain." *Ibm.*  
 "Where fair Penelope, her absent lord,  
 Full twice ten years with faithful love deplor'd."  
 Falconer's Shipwreck, Canto 3.  
 "I know right well, that, in their lay,  
 Full many minstrels sing and say."  
 Scott's Lay, &c. Canto 4, 34.  
 "Full long she toil'd; for she did rue  
 Mishap to friends so stout and true." *Ibm.* Canto 3, 23.  
 "Full oft the rescued boy she kissed." *Ibm.* Canto 5, 25.  
 "Full well we know the trophies won."  
 Scott's Marmion, Canto 1, 12.  
 "Full actively their host supplied." *Ibm.* Canto 3, 3.  
 "The harp full deftly can he strike." *Ibm.* Canto 3, 8.  
 "Full often learn the act to know." *Ibm.* 18.

#### Foundation of Notes VII and VIII.

When two or more words are united, or depend upon one another, the singular cannot agree with the plural, nor the plural with the singular; hence the following two notes.

\* The siege of Candia, which was taken from the Venetians by the Turks in 1669, being then considered the most formidable fortress in the world.

## NOTE VII.

Definitive adjectives and numerals must agree with the nouns to which they belong, in number; as, this man, these men, every book, all books, three feet, four miles.

On what principle is this note founded? See above.

*Incorrect Construction.*

These sort of books. These kind of vegetables. Six mile. "Things of these sort are very easily understood." "Who broke that tonge." This scissors. That oats. That embers. Those kind of injuries. Those gallows. This two hours.

## NOTE VIII.

Nouns must agree, in number, with their definitive adjectives and numerals; as, this pen, these pens, every pen, several books, five miles, tenth page.

EXCEPTIONS: Many a friend. Many a gem, &c. Twenty head of cattle. Five sail of the line.

What is the foundation of this note? See before note 7.

*Incorrect Construction.*

Ten mile an hour. "Tis for a thousand pound." "Six fathom." "The lot is twenty-five foot wide." "I have bought eight load of wood." The boat carries twenty ton. The chasm was thirty foot broad, and a hundred fathom deep.

REMARK 1. The superlative degree is often used in a comparison between two individuals, and the comparative is often used in a comparison among many.

REMARK 2. Adjectives do not admit comparison, when the qualities they express are incapable of increase or diminution: such as numerals—the qualities of mathematical figures, &c. If a thing is *first* or *square*, it cannot be more or less so.

*Promiscuous Exercises.*

Gen. William Henry Harrison was elected President of the United States in 1840. "Alexander the Great." Charles V."

1840 is an adjective, of the cardinal kind used, idiomatically, for the ordinal, and belongs to year understood. *Great* belongs to Alexander, and *V.* to Charles, both idiomatically placed after the names to which they belong.

Philadelphia, Pa. Nov. 4th. 1844.

Mr. James Thorn,

Dear Sir,

Yours of the 2d. ult. came duly to hand, and I improve the earliest moment to reply &c.

Yours with great respect.

John Thomas.

In this exercise & is a conjunction, connecting C. with the foregoing sentence; and C. is the initial of *cetera*, a substitute for the balance of the letter. The signature is obj. governed by *by* understood.

"Whosoever shall compel thee to go a mile, go with him twain."

*Twain* is an adjective, used as a substitute for *two miles*; and in the obj. case without a governing word, according to Note 4 under rule 9. *Twain* is the acc. masc. of the saxon *twa two*; and is the only adjective in our language, which has preserved the saxon inflection.

## POSSESSIVE CASE.

## RULE IV.

*The relation of property requires the name or pronoun of the owner to be in the possessive case; as, John's book. His pen. Eliza's work.*

EXCEPTION. When the relation is shown by the preposition *of*, the name of the owner is in the objective case.

On what principle is this rule founded? See page 126.

*Incorrect Construction.*

"The boys books' were left." The girls slates' were taken. Miss Moores work's were highly esteemed. The teachers eye was upon him. The merchants goods' were lost. The pupils lesson was deficient. The peoples understandings' were enlightened. "I will not destroy the city for ten sake." "A mothers tenderness and a fathers care are natures gifts." "A mans manners frequently influence his fortune."

REMARK. When several names are used as expletive of a single individual, as the possessor, the sign of the possessive case should be added to the last name only; as, Washington, the President of the United States' Address. But when there

are several possessors, the sign of the possessive should be added to each; as, "It was the men's, women's, and children's lot to suffer great calamities." "Our Lord's and the Apostle's words."—Coleridge's Confessions of In. Spirit, p. 49.

"Lady's and Gentleman's Magazine."—Title of a periodical.

"The vehemency of a mother's and a patriot's love."—Coleridge.

"He has the surgeon's and the physician's advice."

**REMARK.** Actions are sometimes represented as belonging to the actor and then the obligation is the same as in any other case of ownership.

### Examples.

Upon *his admiring* the singularity of her choice." Hume.

"On my saying we could not do too much." Dr. Young.

"In case of his catholic majesty's dying without issue."

"Averse to the nation's involving itself in another war."—Hume.

### Incorrect Construction.

The time of William making the experiment has arrived.

He ought to be sensible of the melody suffering.

The effect of youth associating with vicious companions.

Favorable for the combustion being communicated.

The Hollanders throwing off the monarchy of Spain.

There is no reason for hydrogen being an exception.

What is the reason of the committee having delayed this matter.

What was the cause of the young woman fainting.

### Promiscuous Exercises.

#### DEATH OF A BEAUTIFUL BOY.

I saw thee at thy mother's side, when she was marble cold,  
And thou wert like some cherub form, cast in ethereal mould;  
But when, the sudden pang of grief oppressed thine infant  
thought,

And 'mid thy clear and radiant eye a liquid crystal wrought,  
I thought how strong that faith must be that breaks a mother's  
tie,

And bids her leave her darling's tears for other hands to dry.

### Composition.

Write a description of the country in which you live—its climate, surface, soil, productions, and state of cultivation.

Also of the animals, improvements, advantages, &c. *Remember to write exercises under all the rules and notes.*

### NOMINATIVE CASE INDEPENDENT.

#### Foundation of Rule V.

In addressing a person, the name is called, to arrest attention, and therefore without forming a proposition. Hence,

#### RULE V.

When an address is made, the name of the person or thing addressed is in the nominative case independent; as, "Almighty Father! these are but the varied God." THOMSON. "Thou fool, this night thy soul shall be required of thee." "O solitude! romantic maid." "Sisters! sisters! who sent you here?" COLERIDGE'S WAR ECLOGUE.

What is the foundation of this rule? See above.

#### Exercises.

John, go to school. Julius, study your lesson. My friend, do not be alarmed. General, who won the victory?

Mr. Chairman, please to hear me patiently.

King Agrippa, believest thou the prophets?

"O weary hearts! O slumbering eyes!

O drooping souls, whose destinies

Are fraught with fear and pain

Ye shall be loved again." Longfellow's Endymion.

**REMARK.** The nominative case is the *naming* case, and therefore when a name is used without connection, it is in the nominative case independent; as the titles of books, the captions of parts, exclamation of names, &c.

#### Examples.

"I want a hero—an uncommon *want*." Byron.

"A friendless *warfare*! lingering long,  
Through weary day and weary year." Bryant's Battlefield.

## NOMINATIVE CASE ABSOLUTE.

*Foundation of Rule VI.*

Participial action or being, is connected with a noun or pronoun, to describe it, but it does not constitute an assertion. Hence.

## RULE VI.

*A noun or pronoun, placed with a participle, independent of the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case absolute; as, "His reason being such." "I being a child." "On what principle is this rule founded? See above.*

*Exercises.*

The day being ended. School having closed. John having returned. "During life;" *i. e.* life *during*, or *continuing*. See Webster's 4to Dict. word *during*.\* "During Philip's war." "This once done." Cooper's Two Admirals, Vol. II. page 47. "During the late great conflicts of Europe." *Ibm.* Vol. I. p. 14. "During our earthly pilgrimage." "None of us put off our clothes, saving that every one put them off for washing." Neh. "God willing." "Notwithstanding his poverty, he is content."

N. B. *Notwithstanding* is always a participle from the verb *withstand*, compounded with *not*.

*Promiscuous Exercises.*

## THE BROTHERS.

Never did worthier lads break English bread;  
The very brightest Sunday Antumn saw  
With all its mealy clusters of ripe nuts,  
Could never keep those boys away from church,  
Or tempt them to an hour of Sabbath breach.  
Leonard and James! I warrant, every corner  
Among these rocks, and every hollow place  
That venturous foot could reach, to one or both  
Was known as well as to the flowers that grow there.  
Like roe-bucks they went bounding o'er the hills;  
They played like two young ravens on the crags;  
Then they could write, ay and speak too, as well  
As many of their betters. Wordsworth.

\* *During* is the present participle of the verb *dure*, which is now obsolete except this participle, but its derivative, *endure*, is in common use. "Yet hath he not root in himself, but *dureth* for a while. Mat. xiii. 21.

## APPOSITION.

When a name is used with another name, meaning the same thing, and it does not belong to the construction of the sentence, it properly belongs with the other, and therefore it is placed with it in the same case. Hence,

## RULE VII.

*Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns signifying the same thing, without an intervening verb, are put by apposition in the same case; as, John the Baptist. Paul the Apostle. David the king. "Edward the Black Prince." Esaias the prophet.*

What is the foundation of this rule? See above.

*Exercises.*

"The advancing season warns him to the main,  
A captive fettered to the oar of gain."  
Falconer's Shipwreck.

"——we look  
Into our minds—into the mind of man,  
My haunt, and the main region of my song."—Wordsworth.  
"A mother is a mother still,  
The holiest thing alive."—Coleridge. The Three Graves.  
"But lovelier wreaths entwine his neck—  
His children and his spouse."—Jas. Montgomery.

*Incorrect Construction.*

"I have received a letter from my cousin, she that was here last week." It is from Richard, he that keeps the book-store. I saw my friends, they whom we met at the ferry. It is Catharine, her that we saw at work. It was Dennis, him whom we met in the garden.

REMARK 1. Names are in the first person, when they are in apposition with pronouns of the first person; otherwise the doctrine of Rule 12th, which is taught by grammars generally, cannot be true.

REMARK 2. Names are sometimes put in apposition with sentences; as, "Whereby, if a man had a positive idea of infinite, either duration or space, he could add two infinites together;

may, make one infinite infinitely bigger than another; *absurdities* too gross to be confuted." Locke.

Here *absurdities* is in apposition to the whole preceding propositions.

"The Dutch were formerly in possession of the coasting trade and freight of almost all other trading nations; they were also the bankers of all Europe; *advantages* by which they have gained immense sums." Zimmerman's Survey.

Here *advantages* is in apposition to the first two members of the sentence.

#### *Foundation of Rule VIII.*

When two names are used meaning the same thing, they necessarily agree in case; and when a verb comes between them, it necessarily has the same case after it as before it. Hence,

#### RULE VIII.

*Intransitive verbs, and some transitive verbs in the passive voice, have the same case after them as before them, when both words signify the same thing*; as, thou art the man. He lived a prince. Harrison was elected president.

On what principle is this rule founded? See above.

#### *Incorrect Construction.*

"We did not know that it was him." "We thought it was thee." "I would act the same part if I were him." "It could not have been her." It is not me. "They believed it to be I." "It was thought to be him." If it had been her. "We know it to be they." "Whom do you think it is?" "Whom do they suppose it to be?" He did not know whom they were. Can it be me? Was it him? Who did they represent him to be? "Whom do men say that I am?"

#### *Authorities and Examples.*

"Our admirals are our heroes." Cooper.  
 "The vast world seems the tomb of all the dead." Dana.  
 "The harvest field becomes a river's bed." Bryant.

"—— He ——

Then pressed that monarch's throne—a king." Halleck.  
 "He came, the victim of unhappy love." Falconer.

"He bought, improved, projected, plann'd,  
 And reigned a prince at Greyling-hall." Crabbe.

"May it prove a monument." Wordsworth.

"And many, who, by the popularity of their times, have been held up as spotless patriots, have, nevertheless, appeared upon the historian's page—the assassins of liberty." Lord Mansfield.

"The common law of England, as far as it was applicable to their situation, was made the basis of their jurisprudence." Story.

"Your proud eye was upon the object of your daring adventure, and you stood impatient to leap on board, and once more tread her deck, her lord." Morris Græme.

#### OBJECTIVE CASE.

#### RULE IX.

*Transitive verbs govern the objective case.*

*Prepositions govern the objective case*; as, John learned his lesson. Susan wrote a letter. He went from home.

REMARK. Participles being parts of the verb, have the same government that other parts have.

On what principle is this rule founded? See p. 29, and 110.

#### *Exercises.*

"In the beginning, God created the heavens and the earth."  
 "If ye love me, keep my commandments." "The world hath not known thee." "The spirit of truth whom the world cannot receive." "Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you."

#### *Incorrect Construction.*

"Who did they entertain so freely?" He, who is idle, reprove sharply. Ye, who were dead, hath he quickened. Who has he reason to love so much as the friend of his youth? "They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of nature." "The man who he raised from obscurity, is dead." "He and they we know, but who art thou?"

Who do you see? "Who should I see the other day but my old friend?" "Suspecting not only ye but they also, I was studious to avoid all intercourse." "I could not avoid considering, in some degree, they as enemies to me and thou as a sus-

picious friend." "From having exposed himself too freely in different climates, he entirely lost his health." Who art thou displeased with? Does that boy know who he speaks to? Who did you receive it of?

### Foundation of Note I.

The action of some verbs necessarily affects two objects; as, I teach him grammar. I could not teach grammar without teaching it to some one, nor could I teach him, without teaching him something; and the action of some verbs affects objects that necessarily imply other objects, in relation to which they are affected; as, I gave him a book. I could not *give* a present, without giving it to some one. Hence,

#### NOTE I.

Verbs of giving, asking, teaching, and some others, govern two objectives; as, he gave me an apple. Tell me the news. I taught him grammar.\*

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

REMARK. In the doctrine of this note, our language is analogous to the Latin and Greek. Some of these verbs are of the class that govern two accusatives, in Latin, and others of the class that govern an accusative and a dative: the obj. case in Eng. covers all the ground of both the acc. and dat. in Latin, Saxon, &c. therefore the verbs of both classes are included in one Note. Indeed, *him* and *whom* are Saxon *datives*; not *accusatives*.

N. B. In parsing the objective words, in the examples, under this note, that which is the most directly the object of the action should be disposed of by rule 9, and the other by this note; as, he gave me a book. In this example, me is in the objective case, governed by gave, according to note 1, under rule 9, and book is in the objective case, governed by gave, according to rule 9.

\* This note is equivalent to Smith's 20th rule, Nutting's rule 9, remark 1, and Webster's 1st note under rule 26. "Ask him his opinion." "You have asked me the news." "Will it be said that these phrases are elliptical, for 'ask of him his opinion?' I apprehend this to be a mistake, according to the true idea of the government of a transitive verb, *him* must be the object of the phrase under consideration, as much as in this, 'Ask *him* for a guinea;' or in this, 'ask him to go.' This idiom is very ancient." Webster's Imp. Grammar.

### Exercises.

"She gave him her table-book." Hume, "God and posterity, she trusted, would show her favor." *Ibm.* "She sent him word." My mother wrote me a letter. James taught me grammar. John asked him the news. "My instructor gave me a valuable book." "They allowed him his seat in Congress." "John gave me a detailed account of the whole transaction." "Roger Askam having paid her a visit." "Besides sending her a copy of the Scriptures in that tongue." "Having given him, from the window, some token of her remembrance." "A ring cost the purchaser an eagle."

### Composition.

Write a description of a garden. The fence, size, shape, plan, cultivation, fruits, vegetables, flowers, aromatics, &c.

### Foundation of Note II.

Verbs which have two objects in the active voice, retain one of them in the passive voice, for the action has the same *relation* in each voice. Hence,

#### NOTE II.

Verbs in the passive voice of giving, asking, teaching, and some others, govern the objective case; as, a book was given me. "A reprieve of three days was granted her."—Hume.\*

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

### Exercises.

"Theresa was forbid the presence of the emperor." Murphy's Tacitus.

"I was this day shown a new potatoe." Darwin.

"Music was taught me by John." "A question was asked me." "I was taught grammar," or "Grammar was taught me."

"The bishops and abbots were allowed their seats in the house of Lords." Blacks. Com. b. 1, ch. 2.

\* This note is equivalent to Smith's 21st rule, and Webster's 34th, and Bullions' Observation, p. 91. Webster pronounces this idiom "*anomalous*; but perhaps incorrigible."

## NOTE III.

The pronoun of the first person singular is put in the objective case after interjections; as, Ah me! Oh me! "Ah me! what new prospects, new honors arise?" Jas. Montgomery.

What is the foundation of this note? Ans. Usage.

## NOTE IV.

Names signifying duration, extension, quantity, quality, and valuation, are in the objective case without a governing word; as, He was absent a month. John travelled five miles. "Susan rides every day."\*

What is the foundation of this note? Ans. Usage.

*Exercises.*

"This rule is a foot long." "Jacob said, I will serve thee seven years for Rachel." "And dust shalt thou eat all the days of thy life." "You have asked me news a hundred times." Pope. The horse run a mile. She rides every day. The hat is worth five dollars. A wall seven feet high and three feet thick. "A carpet six yards wide." "A line sixty fathoms long." "A kingdom five hundred miles square." "Water ten feet deep."

"The island lies nine leagues away." Dana.

"The astonished realms shall rest a space." Everett's Dirge of Alaric.

\* This note comprises the substance of Kirkham's 3d note under rule 32d; Natting's 6th remark under rule 9; part of the ground of Smith's 22d rule and note 18; Webster's 22d and 28th rules, and Bullions' special rule, under rule 3.

"Effects occurring every *moment* to ourselves."

"You have asked me news a hundred *times*." Pope.

Some grammarians "allege some prepositions to be understood before these expressions of time. But this is a palpable error, arising from preconceived notions of the necessity of such words. The fact is otherwise. All these peculiar phrases are idiomatic; and the remains of the early state of our language."

"The same idiom is found in the Greek and Latin languages, which were built on a Teutonic foundation—it is found in the Saxon from which it is derived to modern English; and is therefore to be considered as original, or coeval with the language." Webster's Imp. Grammar.

"Four hours the sun his high meridian throne  
Had left." Falconer's Shipwreck, Canto 2.

"The hooded clouds, like friars,  
Tell their beads in drops of rain." Longfellow.

"He is like his brother." "He is unlike any other mortal."

"The house stands near a river."

"I will go *while* you stay." *While* is a name, used in a primitive manner in the objective case, without a governing word, like other names of duration.

## NOTE V.

Home, way, north, east, and some other names of similar meaning, are put in the objective case after verbs signifying *motion to*, without a governing word; as, He came home. She went this way. The birds flew north. They went that course.

What is the foundation of this note? Ans. Usage.

*Authorities and Exercises.*

"Let them go their *way*." He went *home*. "We turn our eyes this way or that way." He pointed north. Ascend the stairs. Descend the ladder. Ascend the mountain. "When matters have been brought this length." They go west. Let us go home.

*Composition.*

Write a description of some person—noticing the following particulars:—Tall or short—fleshy or thin—manner—strong or feeble—graceful or awkward—active and energetic, or otherwise.

*Foundation of Note VI.*

Action is often asserted, as affecting the whole idea of a proposition. Hence,

## NOTE VI.

Transitive verbs, in the active voice, often take clauses or sentences after them; as, He *said*, *stop that ball*. He came *supposing he would accomplish his purpose*.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

*Authorities and Exercises.*

"If he escapes *being banished by others*, I fear *he will banish himself*." Pope. Here *being banished by others* is the object of *escapes*; and all that follows *fear*, is its object.

"Jesus stood and cried, saying, if any man thirst, let him come unto me and drink." John vii. 37.

When ye pray, say, Our Father, &c. Here the whole of our Lord's prayer is the object of the verb *say*.

Ye cannot bear fruit except ye abide in me. John 15.

If I but remember only,  
Such as these have lived and died.

Longfellow's Footsteps, &c.

"How much longer this short-sighted policy and grievous injustice are to continue, no man can say.

Two Admirals, vol. 1, page 15.

The eye discovers, he is not the true one. Byron.

*Composition.*

Description of a person continued.

Gait—air—behaviour—character, good, bad or indifferent—amiable or irritable—habits, temperate or dissipated, industrious or idle—principles, good or bad, fixed or unsteady.

## PREPOSITIONS.

*Foundation of Note VII.*

The subsequent term, of a relation expressed by a preposition, is often the whole idea of a proposition; hence,

## NOTE VII.

Prepositions often take clauses or sentences after them; as, "*Besides* sending her a copy of the scriptures in that tongue." "Without seeking any more justifiable reasons for hostility." Hume.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

*Authorities and Exercises.*

"*Besides* making an expedition into Kent." Hume.

"On seeing her husband's dead body." Ibn.

"On my saying we could not do too much." Dr. Young.

"At my coming in." Ibn. "Against I see you."

"It is made with a well founded hope of thereby better obtaining the object we have in view." Lord Ashburton's letter to Mr. Webster, Aug. 6, 1842.

"Without coming any nearer."

REMARK 1. Prepositions sometimes take adjectives after them; as, "Going through the slow, and far *from easy* duty." Cooper. "They are far *from powerless*." Channing. "At first." "At last." "In vain." "In secret." "On high." These adjectives qualify the meanings of the verbs or clauses with which they are connected by the prepositions.

REMARK 2. Prepositions often take adverbs after them; as, "Since then." Coleridge, Smith on Ed. and others. "From afar." Falconer and others. "To where." W. Irving, Lord Ashburton and others. "By far." Lord Brougham. Authorities for such expressions might be multiplied to any length.

*Composition.*

Description of a person continued.

Profession or occupation—station in society—property—age—education and use of it—associates.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Unlimited action usually has some dependence on some agent or circumstance; hence,

## RULE X.

*A verb in the infinitive mode may be governed by any word on which it depends.*

What is the foundation of this rule? See above.

1st. By names. We had permission to go. "The next thing natural for the mind to do." Locke. "He has a desire to improve." He asked liberty to go.

2dly. By verbs, as, Cease to do evil. Learn to do well. We were rejoiced to see you. She is willing to learn. By desiring to know.

3dly. By pronouns. They desired *him* to depart. I wish you to study. Allow it to be reckoned. Let *him* do it. They require *him* to be present.

4thly. By adjectives; as, He is *eager* to learn. They are anxious to go. "A question difficult to be solved." "It is de-

lightful to contemplate the goodness of Providence." History painters would have found it difficult to invent such a species of beings.

5thly. By adverbs; as, "She is old enough to go to school." "A structure soon to fall." Cowper. It would be well to understand the matter. "The alienation and violent disunion that were so soon to follow."

6thly. By prepositions; as, "What went ye out for to see." Matt. ii. "I was about to write." Rev. x. 4. "As they went about to kill him." Acts xx. 31. "The events we are about to relate."

REMARK. "*For to see.*" This is the true original idiom; but it is usual now to omit *for*.

7thly. By conjunctions. "He knows better than to trust you." "An object so high as to be invisible." "A question so obscure as to perplex the understanding." "It is better to live on a little, than to outlive a great deal." Nothing makes a man suspect much, more than to know little." Bacon. "Be so good as to read this letter."

8thly. By interjections; as "Oh, to forget her!" Young.

#### Foundation of Note I.

Unlimited action sometimes depends on the collective idea of a proposition; hence,

#### NOTE I.

A verb in the infinitive mode, may be governed by a clause or sentence; as, "The delay of our hopes teaches us to mortify our desires." Smallridge. "Till it's pain to think." Dana. "That is to say."

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

#### Authorities and Examples.

And lift the heavy spear, with threat'ning hand,  
To pierce the victim should he strive to rise. Bryant.

The sailors now, to give the ship relief,  
Reduce the topsails by a single reef. Falconer.

Affording scarce such breadth of brim,  
As served the wild duck's brood to swim. Scott.

"Who can say that it would have required much solicitation to have made her the partner of his fortunes."

### Composition.

Description of a person continued.  
Intellect—talents—memory—discrimination—judgment—habit of observation—language—expressions.

#### NOTE II.

The infinitive is used without the sign *to*, after the verbs bid, dare, hear, feel, see, let, make, &c.; as, "Who bade you do it?" You saw him fall. I heard him say.\*

What is the foundation of this note? Ans. Usage.

#### Exercises.

He bids them come. "But my Lord you dare not do either." Junius. Who heard him say it? I saw him do it. "We felt the earth tremble." "Which they let pass." Help me catch the bird.

REMARK. The infinitive has the usual sign after *dare*, to challenge; and also after the *past* and *future* tenses of *dare*, to venture; as, "You have *dared to throw* more than a suspicion upon mine." Junius, Letter 20. "He will not *dare to attack* his adversary."

#### Foundation of Note III.

Unlimited action is sometimes expressed without dependence on any other word. Hence,

#### NOTE III.

The infinitive is sometimes independent; as, He has accomplished his task well, *to say* nothing of the difficulties he encountered.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

#### Examples.

There are two, to wit, James and Julius. (*To wit* is obsolescent.) "To will is present with me, but to perform that which is good, I find not." To maintain a steady and firm mind amidst misfortunes, bespeaks a noble spirit. The act was ungentlemanly, not to say unchristian.

\* The infinitive, of all verbs, was originally used without the sign *to*; hence these expressions are not elliptical.

REMARK. The prior-present tense of the infinitive should not be placed after another verb in past time.

*Incorrect Construction.*

"It would have been no difficult matter to have compiled a volume of such amusing precedents." Cowper. "He is reminded that his son stood alone against three, and asked what he would have him to have done." Blair.

PARTICIPLES.

*Foundation of Rule XI.*

Action always implies an agent by whom it is performed. Hence,

RULE XI.

*Participles refer to nouns and pronouns; as, I heard the dog barking. "I saw the boy abused."*

What is the foundation of this rule? See above.

*Exercises.*

"The vessel anchored in the bay, lost her mast." "Having thus calmed his solicitude, he renewed his pace." "He was near losing his life." "Such a plan is not capable of being carried into execution." "They could not avoid submitting to this influence." "Its excesses may be restrained without destroying its existence."

REMARK. Participles of the present tense, often perform, at once, the office of a verb and a noun; as, "The *taking* from another what is his, without his knowledge or allowance, is called stealing." Locke.

"He was displeased with the king's having disposed of the office, or with his having bestowed it upon a worthless man." Henry, Hist. Brit. b. 3.

"He will feel, I trust, that there is a truer glory in saving a country from war, than in winning a hundred battles."  
Channing.

"One of my motives for taking part in this course of lectures, is my respect for this venerated man." (N. Wooster.) *Ibm.*

*Foundation of Note, I.*

Participial action may depend upon the collective idea of a proposition. Hence,

NOTE I.

Participles often refer to clauses or sentences; as, "And *the people did according* to this promise." Neh. v. 13. "*Concerning* relation in general, *these things may be considered.*" Locke. *Concerning* relates to the last clause of the sentence.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

*Authorities and Exercises.*

This criterion will be different, according to the nature of the object which the mind contemplates." Enfield Hist.

I have accepted thee concerning this thing. Gen. 19.

I speak concerning Christ and the church. Eph. v. 32.

Thus shalt thou do unto the Levites touching their charge. Num. viii. 26.

According to Hercules, Ammonius was induced to execute the plan of a distinct eclectic school. Enfield's Hist. p. 63.

*Foundation of Note II.*

Participial action is sometimes expressed without being referred to any particular agent. Hence,

NOTE II.

Participles often stand without a name or clause, being referable to either of the persons indefinitely; as, "It is not possible to act otherwise, *considering* the weakness of our nature." Spectator.

On what principle is this note founded? See above.

*Authorities and Examples.*

The articles of this charge, *considering* by whom it was brought, were not of so high a nature as might have been expected. Henry, Brit. b. 4. ch. 1.

Here *considering* is referable to either agent. *You considering—I considering or we considering.*

Lie not one to another, seeing that ye have put off the old man with his deeds. Col. iii. 9.

None of us put off our clothes, saving that every one put them off for washing. Neh. iv. 23.

"But taking white men as they are, and savages as they are, looking on the one hand, not for faultless perfection of council or policy on the part of government or individuals, but allowing for the occasional operation of human weaknesses in both, and expecting of the Indians," &c.

"Considering their means, they have effected much." "Their laws and their manners, generally speaking, were extremely rude."

REMARK. A before the present participle, is simply a *particle*, entitled to no influence whatever on the participle.

"A prefixed to many words, is the representative of the ancient numerical adjective *on*, and not of *at*." This "clearly appears from the following written indifferently with *an*, *on* or *a*."

Alive. "The Earl of Salisbury was taken *on lyve*." Fabian.

Aside. "For hope of life was set *on side*." Hall. Hen. vi.

Aboard. "*On board*." So used now.

Asleep. "With that he fell *on slepe*." Hollingshead.

"David fell *on sleep*." Acts xiii. 36.

— "Thus shall ye ryde,

*On hawking* by the river's syde." Warton, p. 11.

"And ride *an hawking* by the rivere." Chaucer.

"A knight that had been *on hawking*." Prince Arthur.

"And going *an hunting*." Stow's Summary, p. 10.

Mr. Fearn observes of the expression "I am *a coming*," and the like, "there is none more *vulgar* or *debased*." See Tooke's Purley.

### Promiscuous Exercises.

"For thou art a girl as much brighter than her,  
As she was a poet sublimer than we."

"Who art thou, speak, that on designs unknown,  
While others sleep, thus range the camp alone?"

"Just of thy word, in every thought sincere,  
Who knew no wish but what the world might hear."

## PRONOUNS.

### RULE XII.

*Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in person, and number; as, The boy learned his lesson. Julia injured her book. The king and queen put on their robes.*

On what principle is this rule founded? See p. 83.

REMARK. *He, she* and *it*, must agree, in gender also.

### Incorrect Construction.

"Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put them upon Jacob."  
"The whale killed another man, which is the sixth which have lost their lives by this means." "The crown had it in their power to give such rewards as they thought proper." "The fruit beareth fruit after his kind." The mind of man cannot continue long without some food to nourish the activity of his thoughts. "I do not think any one should incur censure for being tender of their reputation."

"Every one must judge of their own feelings." Byron.

"He cannot see one in prosperity without envying them."

"Let each esteem others better than themselves."

"A person may make themselves happy without riches."

"My counsel to each of you is that you should make it your endeavor to come to friendly agreement."

REMARK 1. When the gender is undetermined, the masculine is to take the preference; as, Answer not a fool according to *his* folly;—not *her* folly.

REMARK 2. A name and its substitute cannot be the nominative to the same verb.

REMARK 3. *It* is often used to represent an officer or an official body in the execution of duty; as, The chair will perform *its* duty by deciding the question. "The government of the United States has frequently made known *its* opinion, which *it* now repeats." Webster's Let. to Everett, March 28, 1843.

"The Government of the United States fully admits that *its* flag can give no immunity to pirates," &c. Imb.

REMARK 4. *It*, though without gender, is used to represent *an infant* or *a child*, at which period of life the distinction of sex is disregarded; The child, *it* cries.

It is also the substitute for *insects*; as, The worm *it* crawls.

REMARK 5. The substitute *one* has no alliance with the numeral *one*; for it is derived from the French *on*—a kind of general substitute, meaning *one, they, we, people*; and in its older forms, was *om, omme, homme*, and originated in the Latin *homo, a man*. The Germans still say *man sagt, man says*, instead of *one says*. This word retains its inflections in our language, while in the French, contrary to custom, it has lost them.  
See Latham's Gram.

☞ For further exercises on substitutes, see Etymology.

### ADVERBS.

#### RULE XIII.

*Adverbs belong to verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs*; as, He writes well. John won by running swiftly. He is extremely studious. She performs very readily.

What is the foundation of this rule? See p. 107.

REMARK 1. Adverbs are generally placed before adjectives, after verbs, and often between the auxiliary and verb.

#### *Incorrect Construction.*

"He was pleasing *not often*, because he was vain."

"William nobly acted, though he was unsuccessful."

"We may happily live, though our possessions are small."

Whence we may date likewise the period of this event.

"It cannot be impertinent or ridiculous, therefore, to remonstrate."

He offered an apology, which being not admitted, he submitted, discontented. "Never sovereign was so much beloved by the people." "He was determined to invite back the king, and to call together his friends."

"So well educated a boy, gives great hopes to his friends."

"He unaffectedly and forcibly spoke, and was heard attentively by the whole assembly."

"In the proper disposition of adverbs, the ear carefully requires to be consulted, as well as the sense."

REMARK 2. The adverbs *hither, thither, and whither* are obsolescent; here, there, and where, being used in their stead; as, "He came here;" "we rode there," &c.

REMARK 3. *There* is much used to commence sentences; as, "There was a man." This inceptive use of *there* is idiomatic. In such sentences, the following name is nom. to the verb, and the adverb belongs to it.

#### *Foundation of Note I.*

The denial of a negation constitutes an affirmation. Hence,

#### NOTE I.

Two negatives in the same simple sentence, destroy each other, and are equivalent to an affirmation; as, "Nor was the king unacquainted with his design." "I cannot drink no more."

On what principle is this note founded? See above.

#### *Incorrect Construction.*

"I cannot do nothing."

"He will never be no taller."

"Covet neither riches nor honors, nor no such perishing things."

"Do not interrupt me thyself, nor let no one disturb me."

"Be honest nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise."

"We need not, nor do not confine his operations to narrow limits."

"I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present, nor at any other time."

"These people do not judge wisely, nor take no proper measures to effect their purpose."

"The measure is so exceptionable that we cannot by no means permit it."

#### *Foundation of Note II.*

Manner or degree may be predicated of relation. Hence,

#### NOTE II.

Adverbs sometimes belong to prepositions; as, He is *far from* home.

What is the foundation of this note? See above.

*Authorities and Examples.*

"Far from easy duty." "Far from true." "Down to the day." Cooper. "Fast by the throne." Pope. "Fast by Arcadia." Falconer. "Far above the sacred light." Ibm. "Far above dull brutes." Sir W. Jones. "Far from having." "Far from being." "Far above." "Far below."

In these and similar examples, the degree clearly belongs to the relation, and the adverbs should be so parsed.

"Fast by the throne obsequious fame resides." Pope.

"Fast by Arcadia stretch these desert plains." Falconer.

This does not mean that the plains stretch *fast*, but the relation *by is fast*.

"When *far above* the sacred light he eyes." Ibm.

—"Men, high-minded men,  
With powers as *far above* dull brutes endued."

Sir W. Jones.

"So *far from* having it in my power to punish his murderer.—"

"So *far from* being in a condition to defend my kingdom."

*Exercise.*

## A LESSON ON PULPIT ELOQUENCE.

From "*Scenes in Goethe's Faust*."

WAGNER\* (enters)

Forgive me, sir! I heard your declamation,  
And thought you must be reading some Greek play.

I long have wished to mend my recitation:

'Tis necessary at the present day.

A clergyman, indeed, 'tis often said,  
Should to an actor go to learn his trade.

FAUST.

Ay!—if he mean himself to be a player!  
And that is not unfrequently the case.

WAGNER.

But how should one, who hardly feels the air,  
Or sees the light, except on holidays,

\* Wagner is a student in Theology.

Chained to his parchment rolls, without vacation,  
Know any thing of graces or persuasion?

FAUST.

Persuasion, friend, comes not by toil or art;  
Hard study never made a matter clearer;  
'Tis the live fountain in the speaker's heart  
Sends forth the streams that melt the ravished hearer.  
Then work away for life; heap book on book,  
Line upon line, and precept on example:  
The stupid multitude may gape and look,  
And fools may think your stock of wisdom ample;  
But all remain unmoved: to touch the heart—  
To make men feel, requires a different art.  
For touching hearts the only secret known,  
My worthy friend, is this:—to have one of your own!

WAGNER.

But still the manner's every thing in preaching:  
I know it, though I fail in that particular.

FAUST.

Manner! find out some *matter* worth the teaching,  
Nor be for words and forms a barren stickler.  
The spirit's all;—no matter for the letter.  
Good sense and truth are good enough for men.  
Hast any thing to say? Out with it then!  
And the more natural the style, the better.  
Your pompous words—your phrases nicely joined,  
Will find the people deaf as is an adder;  
They're but dry leaves that rustle in the wind;  
No comfort for the soul;—peas in a bladder.

Translated by A. H. Everett—  
Boston Miscellany, &c.

*Promiscuous Exercises.*

"The very head and front of my offending  
Hath this extent—no more."

"Then hasten thy return; for thee away,  
Nor lustre has the sun, nor joy the day."

"Wert thou some star, which from the ruined roof  
Of shak'd Olympus, by mischance didst fall."

## CONJUNCTIONS.

*Foundation of Rule XIV.*

When two or more ideas are connected in the same affirmation, they are understood to have the same position or relation. Hence,

## RULE XIV.

*Words connected by a conjunction must be similar; and they usually have the same construction; as, He lives prudently, and acquires property. James and John will favor us with their company. He and she are agreed.*

What is the foundation of this rule? See above.

*Incorrect Construction.*

"To deride the miseries of the unhappy is inhuman; and wanting compassion towards them is unchristian." And to want compassion, &c.

"The Parliament addressed the king, and has been prorogued the same day."

"His wealth and him bid adieu to each other."

"He entreated us, my comrade and I, to live harmoniously."

"My sister and her were on good terms."

"We often overlook the blessings which are in our possession, and are searching after those which are out of our reach."

"My brother and him are tolerable grammarians."

"To be moderate in our views, and proceeding temperately in the pursuit, is the best way to ensure success."

"Between him and I there is some disparity of years; but none between him and she."

"Rank may confer influence, but will not necessarily produce virtue."

"She was proud but now humble."

REMARK 1. *Than* and *as* have the same government, in comparison that other conjunctions have in connecting nouns and pronouns; as, "The moments were precious on more accounts *than one*." Cooper.

He hath suffered and died to redeem such a rebel as me.

Wesley.

That she (England) can spare from her service such men as him. Lord Brougham's Speeches, Dedication.  
Except the idiomatic use of *whom*, instead of *who*, after *than*; as, "Than whom none higher sat."

REMARK 2. *But* is not a negation, and therefore the negation should be used with it. *He can but accept it*; should be, *he cannot but accept it*. "The truth, which was burning as a fire within him, he could *not but* give forth." Channing on War, 1838.

REMARK 3. Conjunctions sometimes connect verbs of different modes or tenses without repeating the nominative; as, "He *lives* temperately and has long lived temperately." "He is indolent and therefore will be poor."

Not that *he is* or *ever was*, obliged by these statutes to call a new parliament every year. Blackstone's Com. b. 1, 2.  
For when a man says gold is malleable, *he means* and *would insinuate* something more than this. Locke.  
That they have contributed, and probably yet contribute.

Miller.  
"But whatever they were or are." "The whole has been done under the auspices, and is confirmed by the sanction of religion and piety." "It has opened, and will more and more open their eyes." Burke. "If I have been born, or dwell, or have served an apprenticeship in one town." Paley.

"He neither receives nor can give delight." Johnson.  
These sentences are perfectly good English. The repetition of the nominative would mar some of them.

## GENERAL CONSTRUCTION.

*Foundation of Rule XV.*

It is both agreeable and convenient for the speaker to allow the hearer to supply some thoughts in the discourse, without their being expressed. Hence,

## RULE XV.

*Ellipses should often be admitted, but not allowed to obscure the sense, nor weaken the force of the sentence;* as, He came and returned the same day. "I love and fear him."

What is the foundation of this rule? See above.

*Incorrect Construction.*

- "I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me."  
 "And this is it men mean by distributive justice, and is properly termed equity."  
 "That species of commerce will produce great gain or loss."  
 "The people of this country possess a healthy climate and soil."  
 "A little man and woman,"—*and a little woman.*  
 "A delightful garden and orchard."  
 "A magnificent house and gardens."  
 "O piety! virtue! how insensible have I been to your charms."  
 "He is not only sensible and learned, but is religious also."  
 "By presumption and by vanity, we provoke enmity and we incur contempt."  
 "His conduct is not scandalous, and that is the best can be said of it."

REMARK 1. When the qualities of different things are compared, the latter sentence is often very elliptical; as, *My book is better than yours; i. e. than your book is.*

REMARK 2. Interrogative expressions and their answers, are often very elliptical; as, "whom did you see?" Ans. "John." That is, *I saw John.*

*Foundation of Rule XVI.*

When different things are connected, due respect should be had to the order of time; and the most important idea should be placed last. Hence,

## RULE XVI.

*When extent and duration are connected in the same simple sentence, the extent should be placed before the duration; as, "The shriek, which comes to us from all regions and ages, has been extorted by human cruelty."* Channing's Works, vol. 5, 122.

What is the foundation of rule 16? See above.

*Improper Construction.*

"Homer is a poet, who, in all ages, and by all critics, has been greatly admired for sublimity." Blair's Lec. 4.  
 Better—by all critics of all ages.

- "In every composition, what interests the imagination, and touches the heart, pleases all ages and all nations." Ibm. Lec. 2.  
 "Authority or prejudice may, in one age or country, give a temporary reputation to an indifferent poet or bad artist." Ibm.  
 "I had long been convinced that public lectures, which had been used in most ages and countries, to teach the elements of almost every part of learning, were the most convenient mode in which these elements could be taught."

Mackintosh on the Law of Nature and Nations.

"I am of opinion that the volume, (the Bible) independent of its divine origin, contains more sublimity, purer morality, more important history, and finer strains of eloquence, than can be selected from all other books, in whatever age or language they may have been written." Sir W. Jones.

## WORDS CONTAINING TWO CASES.

Sentences are common, in our best authors, in which one word contains two cases. This is allowable, says Dr. Gleig, when the contiguity of the words prevents obscurity. See Encycl. Brit. Art. Gram.

*Authorities.*

*Upon the soil they fought to save.* Bryant's Battle-field.  
 Here *soil* is the object of the preposition *upon* and of the transitive verb *save*. The common resolution of such sentences is thus. "Upon the soil *which* they fought to save." But here are two words, in immediate connection, which mean the same thing—*soil* and *which*—and hence the expression is tautological. The sense is as fully expressed without *which*, as with it.  
 Hence such sentences have to be *elliptical* in construction, or *tautological* in meaning. Usage sanctions both forms.

- "Who steals my purse steals trash."  
 "Who fed thee last, will feed thee still." Hymn.  
 "Who kindly lengthens out our days,  
 Demands our choicest songs." Hymn.  
 "'Tis Heaven has brought me to the state you see."  
 Beggar's Pet.

"The *uneasiness* we feel—is *that* we call desire." Locke.  
 "Though in her eye and faded cheek,  
 Is read the *grief* she will not speak." Halleck's Bozzaris.  
 "The *events* we are about to relate, occurred near the middle of the last century." Two Admirals, vol. 1. p. 13.

"It is made with a well-founded hope of thereby better obtaining the *object* we have in view." Lord Ashburton's Letter to Mr. Webster, Aug. 6, 1842.

"Who would a handsome figure see,  
Should look upon Sir Eustace Gray." Crabbe.

"Spirits hear *what* spirits tell." Coleridge's War Eclogue.

*What* often contains two cases. Upon this point, all are agreed. What good reason can be given for allowing *what* to contain two cases, and denying that power to other words in similar positions?

"For I have business would employ an age." Jane Shore.

"I had several men died, in my ship, of calentures." Swift.

"They who affect to guess at the object they cannot see."  
Bolingbroke.

"Whatever powers they assumed were deemed legitimate."  
Story on Con.

"Some talk of subjects they do not understand." Johnson.

"On every syllable we utter, we give more or less of each one of these four elements of expression." Barber's Elocution.

#### Promiscuous Exercises.

"During the last two or three years, a number of tracts have appeared upon this much agitated question. One ascribes the letters to Glover, the author of '*Leonidas*;' another to some obscure person, whose name we have forgotten. By far the most ridiculous, however, is a series of letters, to show that Junius was none other than the late Duke of Portland."

Lord Brougham's Miscel. vol. 2, p. 235.

"On the present occasion, the monarch was attended by all his own family, and most of the distinguished nobles of the land; and was accompanied by the French barons, then remaining as hostages in England, for whose comfort and amusements, under the tedium of their honorable captivity, no endeavors, that kindness or good feeling could suggest, were left unemployed." James' Life of Edward, &c. vol. 2, p. 237.

"— As the introduction of new characters and new themes have rendered necessary." Morris Græme.

"The process of the mind in rendering her conceptions particular, is indeed exactly the reverse of that by which she generalizes them." Encycl. Brit.

## RECAPITULATION OF RULES.

### RULE I.

*The nominative case governs the verb which asserts its action or being, in person and number.* p. 125.

NOTE. A verb in the infinitive mode; a sentence or a clause may be the subject of a verb. p. 126.

### RULE II.

*A verb must agree with its subject-nominative in person and number.* p. 127.

NOTE 1. When a verb is governed by the infinitive mode, or a clause, it must be in the third person singular. p. 128.

NOTE 2. Two or more infinitives, or clauses, connected by *and*, being the subject of the verb, require the verb to be in the plural. p. 128.

NOTE 3. Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns in the singular number, connected by *and*, must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns agreeing with them in the plural. p. 129.

NOTE 4. If the singular nouns connected by *and*, are limited by *each*, *every*, *either* or *neither*, the verb or pronoun must be in the singular. p. 130.

NOTE 5. Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns singular, connected by the alternative, *or* or *nor*, must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns to agree with them in the singular. p. 130.

NOTE 6. When nouns and pronouns of different persons are connected in the nominative case, the verb must agree, in person, with the one next to it, and the pronoun must be put in

the first person, rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third. p. 131.

NOTE 7. When a verb comes between two nominatives of different numbers, either of which may be the subject of the affirmation, it may agree with either, according to the sense. p. 132.

NOTE 8. A collective noun conveying unity of idea, must have a verb in the singular; but if it conveys plurality of idea, the verb must be in the plural. p. 132.

NOTE 9. In some cases the imperative verb is used without a definite nominative. p. 132.

NOTE 10. In asserting a present uncertainty, the verb in the subjunctive, should have the indicative form. p. 133.

#### RULE III.

*Adjectives belong to the names of the things which they describe.* p. 136.

NOTE 1. Adjectives sometimes belong to pronouns or substitutes. p. 136.

NOTE 2. Adjectives sometimes belong to verbs in the infinitive mode. p. 137.

NOTE 3. Adjectives sometimes belong to clauses or sentences. p. 137.

NOTE 4. Adjectives sometimes qualify the meaning of nouns, only as the effects of the verbs that agree with them. p. 140.

NOTE 5. Adjectives sometimes belong to other adjectives. p. 141.

NOTE 6. Adjectives sometimes belong to adverbs. p. 143.

NOTE 7. Definitive adjectives and numerals must agree with the nouns to which they belong, in number. p. 144.

NOTE 8. Nouns must agree, in number, with their definitives and numerals. p. 144.

#### RULE IV.

*The relation of property requires the name or pronoun of the owner to be in the possessive case.* p. 145.

#### RULE V.

*When an address is made, the name of the person or thing addressed, is in the nominative case independent.* p. 147.

#### RULE VI.

*A noun or pronoun placed with a participle, independent of the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case absolute.* p. 148.

#### RULE VII.

*Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns signifying the same thing, without an intervening verb, are put by opposition in the same case.* p. 149.

#### RULE VIII.

*Intransitive verbs, and some transitive verbs in the passive voice, have the same case after them as before them, when both words signify the same thing.* p. 150.

#### RULE IX.

*Transitive verbs, in the active voice, govern the objective case. Prepositions govern the objective case.* p. 151.

NOTE 1. Verbs of giving, asking, teaching, and some others often govern two objectives. p. 152.

NOTE 2. Verbs in the passive voice, of giving, asking, teaching, and some others, govern the objective case. p. 153.

NOTE 3. The pronoun of the first person, singular, is put in the objective case after an interjection. p. 154.

NOTE 4. Names signifying duration, extension, quantity, quality and valuation, are often used in the objective case, without a governing word. p. 154.

NOTE 5. Home, way, north, east, and some other words of similar meaning, are often put in the objective case, without a governing word. p. 155.

NOTE 6. Transitive verbs, in the active voice, often take clauses or sentences after them. p. 155.

NOTE 7. Prepositions often take clauses or sentences after them. p. 156.

#### RULE X.

*A verb in the infinitive mode may be governed by any word on which it depends.* p. 157.

NOTE 1. A verb in the infinitive mode may be governed by a clause or sentence. p. 158.

NOTE 2. The infinitive is used without the sign *to* after the verbs bid, dare, hear, feel, see, let, make, &c. p. 159.

NOTE 3. The infinitive is sometimes independent. p. 159.

## RULE XI.

*Participles refer to nouns and pronouns.* p. 160.

NOTE 1. Participles often refer to clauses or sentences. p. 161.

NOTE 2. Participles often stand without a name or clause. p. 161.

## RULE XII.

*Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in person and number.* p. 163.

## RULE XIII.

*Adverbs belong to verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.* p. 164.

NOTE 1. Two negatives in the same simple sentence, destroy each other, and are equivalent to an affirmative. p. 165.

NOTE 2. Adverbs sometimes belong to prepositions. p. 165.

## RULE XIV.

Words connected by a conjunction, must be similar, and they usually have the same construction. p. 168.

## RULE XV.

*Ellipses should often be admitted, but not allowed to obscure the sense, nor weaken the force.* p. 169.

## RULE XVI.

*When extent and duration are connected, in the same simple sentence, the extent should be placed before the duration.* p. 170.

## PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION is the dividing of written composition, by points or stops, into such sentences, or parts, as the sense and grammatical construction require.

A period is a complete sentence, constituting a perfect proposition, and is generally unconnected, in construction, with what follows. The pause, at the close of a period, is distinguished by the same name, and in speaking is distinguished by a cadence, or fall of the voice.

The members of a period, or clauses and phrases which constitute the proposition, are more or less connected in sense and construction, and are distinguished accordingly by a comma, a semicolon, or a colon.

## COMMA.

The comma, being the shortest pause, is often used to indicate the construction, where very little interruption of voice is allowable. In the use of the comma, much depends upon the meaning of the author.

RULE 1. In general there should be *no* pause between the parts of a simple sentence, unless it is very long: then it should be separated into parts by the comma; as, "No state of life is exempt from trouble." "The good taste of the present age, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language."

The learner should write exercises on each rule, as he proceeds.

RULE 2. When a word is understood, the place should be marked by a comma; as, "The husband, wife, and children, suffered extremely."

## PROSODY.

Prosody treats of Orthoepy, and the laws of versification. Orthoepy or Pronunciation is the art of uttering words with propriety. It is regulated chiefly by *accent* and *quantity*.

*Accent* is an increased stress of voice in uttering a particular letter or syllable of a word to distinguish it from the others; as the syllable *bur* in *burden*.

**NOTE.** A correct accentuation is very important, and can be acquired only by attending to the pronunciation of correct speakers, and frequently consulting a good pronouncing Dictionary.

The *Quantity* of a syllable is the time required in pronouncing it.

The pronunciation of an accented syllable requires double the time of that of an unaccented one.

*Emphasis* is an increased stress of voice, or other distinctions of sound, placed on certain words to mark their superior importance.

**NOTE.** The reader or speaker should carefully avoid making too many words emphatic.

### *Useful Directions for Reading and Speaking.*

1. Let the voice be pitched on the *natural* or *conversational* tone. Correct pitch of voice is as essential in reading or speaking, as it is in singing.

2. Be *distinct* in articulation.

3. Avoid *affectation*—*act out nature*.

4. Close your periods on the pitch with which you commence them. This last is the great lever for controlling the voice. A speaker may raise his voice as high as he pleases in the middle

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## PROSODY.

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of a sentence, if he is careful to bring it down to the proper pitch before closing it; for on whatever pitch he closes one sentence he must begin the next.

## POETRY.

A piece of poetry, is a composition, divided into equal portions, called measures, by a regular recurrence of the accented syllables; and formed into harmonious lines, by a regular arrangement of the measures.

In this sentence, the accented syllables are the 2d, 4th, 9th, 11th, 14th, 18th, 20th, 22d, 23d, 27th, 31st, 35th, &c. Between two accented syllables, there are sometimes four, sometimes three, sometimes one, and sometimes no accented syllable; hence the sentence is prose.

Then fare thee well, mine own dear love,  
The world hath now for us  
No greater grief, no pain above  
The pain of parting thus.

Moore.

In this sentence, the accented syllables are the 2d, 4th, 8th, 10th, 12th, 14th, 16th, &c. Hence, between two accented syllables, there is one unaccented syllable, throughout the stanza; i. e. the accent occurs on every other syllable.

At the close of the day, when the hamlet is still,  
And the mortals the sweets of forgetfulness prove,  
And when nought but the torrent is heard on the hill,  
And there's nought but the nightingale's song in the grove.  
Beattie.

In this sentence, the accented syllables are the 3d, 6th, 9th, 12th, 15th, 17th, 21st, 24th, &c. Hence, between each two accented syllables there are two unaccented: in other words the accent occurs on every third syllable.

The above examples and remarks exhibit the fundamental distinction between prose and poetry.

**MEASURE.** Each accented syllable with its accompanying unaccented syllable or syllables, constitutes a *measure*.

*Measure* is of two kinds, *dissyllabic*, and *trissyllabic*. Dissyllabic measure consists of two syllables; as the above quotation from Moore.

Dissyllabic measure consists of three syllables; as the above quotation from Beattie.

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The measures placed in one line constitute a verse. Two rhyming lines constitute a couplet, three lines, a triplet; and four or more lines in one division of a piece of poetry, make a stanza.

**RHYME.** Rhyme is not essential to poetry, but it is the greatest ornament of English verse. In rhyming syllables three things are necessary.

1. The *vowel sounds* must be the *same*.
2. The *sounds following* the vowel sounds must be the *same*.
3. The *sounds preceding* the vowel sounds must be *different*.

Thus:

They talk of principles, but notions *pr-i-ze*.  
And all to one loved folly *sacrif-i-ce*.

If the *sounds* come under the above regulation, any variation in the letters, is unimportant.

Rhyming *words* are regulated by the same law. Thus:

Success in a higher *be-at-i-tude*—  
A philosopher takes it with *gr-at-i-tude*.

Rhyming syllables must always be accented; and rhyming words must always contain an accented syllable.

When the accented syllable, in rhyming words, is followed by one unaccented syllable, it is a *double rhyme*; and when it is followed by two unaccented syllables, it is a *treble rhyme*.

*Blank verse* is poetry without rhyme.

**MEASURES AND VERSES.** English Poetry is based upon the two kinds of measure, above described, and there are five varieties of it.

For the sake of convenience, we will represent an accented, or long syllable, by the letter *a*, and an unaccented, or short one, by the letter *x*: thus:

The wáy was lóng, the wínd was cöld. Scott.  
x a x a x a x a

The length of this line may be estimated in two ways. We may say it consists of four accents or measures, taking the accented syllable with its corresponding unaccented one; or we may say it consists of eight syllables.

*The Varieties of Measures.*

|   |                           |   |               |
|---|---------------------------|---|---------------|
| 1 | a x—tyrant, silly         | } | Dissyllabic.  |
| 2 | x a—presúme, detér        |   |               |
| 3 | a x x—mèrrily, fórtify    | } | Trissyllabic. |
| 4 | x a x—Disàble, préferring |   |               |
| 5 | x x a—refugéo, cavalíer   |   |               |

This shows that the accented syllable may come in any part of a measure: indeed the change of the place of the accent, in dissyllabic measure, for instance, produces the varieties of that measure; and so of the other,

The same variety usually prevails throughout a verse; and commonly throughout a piece of poetry,

There are some liberties taken by poets in varying a measure, occasionally, from these laws.

The *length of the last measure*, in a line, is a matter of indifference.

The meeting points the sacred hair dissever,  
From her fair hand for ever and for ever. Pope.  
Prove and explain a thing till all men *doubt it*,  
And write about it, Goddess, and *about it*. Pope.

In the above couplets from Pope, the original measure is *x a*, through the line to the last measure, which is *x a*, and a syllable added. At first view, this might indicate that the measure *x a* is changed into the measure *x a x*; but this is not the case. It is merely a supernumerary syllable, which can be added only at the end of a line, and we will represent the syllable in such cases by the sign plus, +.

Sometimes the last measure lacks a syllable, where the final syllable is unaccented, but it cannot lack an accented one, for that would destroy the measure. Such may be represented by the sign minus, —.

In the following illustrations, we will use the sign of multiplication, to represent the number of measures in a line.

*Examples.*

1. Variety.  $a x \times 2$  Rich the tréasure  
Sweet the pléasure. Dryden.
- $a x \times 2$  —Túmult céase  
Sink to péace
- $a x \times 3$  Seize the lightning's pinion—  
Fróm the starred dominíon.
- $a x \times 3$  —Ságes cán, they sáy—  
And bring down its ráy—

The two varieties of lines, rhyming alternately, form the following stanza.

Sages can, they say,  
Seize the lightning's pinion,  
And bring down its ray,  
From the starred dominion. Moore.



forms of verse. It was employed by Chaucer in the fourteenth century. Its chief cultivators have been Chaucer, Dryden, Pope, Cowper, and Byron, in rhyme; and Milton and the dramatists in blank verse. See Latham's Gram.

3. Variety.  $a x x \times 2$ , or  $x x \times 2$  —. Sometimes both unaccented syllables are wanting.

When we two parted  
In silence and tears,  
Half broken hearted  
To sever for years;  
Pale grew thy cheek and cold,  
Colder thy kiss.  
Truly that hour foretold  
Sorrow to this.

Byron.

$a x x \times 3$ , or  $a x x \times 3$  —

Peace to thee, isle of the ocean,  
Peace to thy breezes and billows!

Byron.

$a x x \times 4$ , or  $a x x \times 4$  —

## I.

Warriors or chiefs, should the shaft or the sword  
Pierce me in leading the host of the Lord,  
Heed not the corpse, though a king in your path,  
Bury your steel in the bosom of God.

## II.

Thou, who art bearing my buckler and bow,  
Should the soldiers of Saul look away from the fire,  
Lay me that moment in blood at thy feet,  
Mine be the doom that they dare not to meet.

## III.

Farewell to others, but never we part,  
Heir to my royalty, son of my heart;  
Bright be the diadem, boundless the sway,  
Or kingly the death that awaits us to-day,

Byron.

4. Variety.  $x a x \times 2$  and  $\times a x 2$  —.

Beside her are laid  
Her mattock and spade—  
Alone she is there,  
Her shoulders are bare—  
Ever alone  
She maketh her moan.

Tennyson.

But vainly thou warrest;  
For this is alone in  
Thy power to declare,  
That, in the dim forest,  
Thou heard'st a low moaning.

Coleridge.

The black bands came over  
The Alps and their snow;  
With Bourbon, the rover,  
They passed the broad Po.

Byron.

$x a x \times 3$ , and  $x a x \times 3$  —.

I've found out a gift for my fair;  
I've found where the wood-pigeons breed:  
But let me that plunder forbear;  
She'll say 'twas a barbarous deed.

Shenstone.

$x a x \times 4$ , and  $x a x \times 4$  —.

O hush thee, my babe, thy sire was a knight,  
Thy mother a lady both lovely and bright;  
The woods and the glens and the towers which we see,  
They are all belonging, dear babe, to thee.

Scott.

I ask not the pleasures that riches supply,  
My sabre must win what the weaker must buy:  
[It] shall win the fair bride with her long flowing hair,  
And many a maid from her mother shall tear.

I love the fair face of the maid in her youth,  
[Her] caresses shall lull me, her music shall soothe.  
[Let] her bring to my chamber the many-toned lyre,  
And sing me a song on the fall of her sire.

Byron.

Oh! young Lochinvar is come out of the west:  
Through all the wide border his steeds are the best;

And, save his good broadsword, he weapons had none,  
 He rode all unarmed, and he rode all alone.  
 So faithful in love, and so gallant in war,  
 [Did] ye e'er hear of bridegroom like young Lochinvar?  
 Scott.

[Thanks,] my Lord, for your ven'son; for finer nor fatter  
 Ne'er ranged in the forest nor smoked on the platter:  
 The flesh was a picture for painters to study  
 The fat was so white and the lean was so ruddy.  
 [Though] my stomach was sharp, I could scarce help re-  
 gretting

To spoil such a delicate picture by eating. Goldsmith.

5. Variety. x x a As ye swéep  
 Through the deep. Campbell.

Usually written

As ye sweep, through the deep.

x x á × 2

In my ráge shall be seén  
 The revénge of a qúeen. Addison.

See the snakes that they rear,  
 How they hiss in the air!

x x a × 3.

And the spárkles that flásh from their eyes.

Lines of these two formulas are intermixed; as,

See the snákes how they reár,  
 How they hiss in the air,  
 And the spárkles that flásh fróm their eyes!  
 Dryden.

x a x a × 4.

1. The Assyrian cáme dówn like a wólf on the fóld,  
 And his cóhorts weré gleáming in púrple and góld:  
 And the sheén of the speárs was like stárs on the séa,  
 When the blúe wave rolls nightly on deep Galilee.
2. Like the leaves of the forest when Summer is green,  
 That host with their banners at sunset were seen:  
 Like the leaves of the forest when Autumn is blown,  
 That host on the morrow lay withered and strown.
3. For the Angel of Death spread his wings on the blast,  
 And breathed in the face of the foe as he pass'd;  
 And the eyes of the sleepers wax'd deadly and chill,  
 And their hearts but once heaved, and for ever grew still.
4. And there lay the steed with his nostril all wide;  
 But through it there rolled not the breath of his pride:  
 And the foam of his gasping lay white on the turf,  
 And cold as the spray of the rock-beating surf.
5. And there lay the rider distorted and pale,  
 With the dew on his brow, and rust on his mail;  
 And the tents were all silent, the banners alone,  
 The lances unlifted, the trumpet unblown.
6. And the widows of Ashur are loud in their wail,  
 And the idols are broke in the temple of Baal,  
 And the might of the Gentile unsmote by the sword  
 Hath melted like snow in the glance of the Lord. Byron.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,  
 The lowing herds wind slowly o'er the lea,  
 The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,  
 And leaves the world to darkness and to me. Gray.

#### OTTAVA RIMA.

Arrived there, a prodigious noise he hears,  
 Which suddenly along the forest spread;  
 Whereat from out his quiver he prepares  
 An arrow for his bow, and lifts his head;

And, lo! a monstrous herd of swine appears.  
 And onward rushes with tempestuous tread,  
 And to the fountain's brink precisely pours,  
 So that the giant 's joined by all the boars.  
 Morgante Moggiore (Ld. Byron's Trans.)

## TERZA RIMA.

The Spirit of the fervent days of old,  
 When words were things that came to pass, and Thought  
 Flashed o'er the future, bidding men behold  
 Their children's children's doom already brought  
 Forth from the abyss of Time which is to be,  
 The Chaos of events where lie half-wrought  
 Shapes that must undergo mortality:  
 What the great seers of Israel wore within,  
 That Spirit was on them and is on me;  
 And if, Cassandra-like, amidst the din  
 Of conflicts, none will hear, or hearing heed  
 This voice from out the Wilderness, the sin  
 Be theirs, and my own feelings be my meed.  
 The only guerdon I have ever known.

It hath been through all ages ever seen,  
 That with the prize of arms and chivalric  
 The prize of beauty still hath joined been,  
 And that for reason's special privitie;  
 For either doth on other much rely,  
 For he meseems most fit the fair to serve  
 That can hér best defend from villanie;  
 And she most fit his service doth deserve,  
 That fairest is, and from her faith will never swerve.  
 Spenser.

The measures x x a and x a x are often intermixed in this formula, for the omission of a single syllable will change a line from the x x a to x a x.

I have not given all the varieties of lines that occur under the different varieties of measure, but enough has been given for the exercises of the pupil.

If the pupil has any difficulty in scanning a line, he should determine whether the measure is dissyllabic or trissyllabic in the neighborhood of it, and that will be a guide, as the same measure generally prevails through the piece.

See Latham's Gram.

## MUSICAL PAUSES.

The *Musical Pauses* are two—the *cesural* pause, which divide the line into two parts; and the *final* pause, which closes the verse. The sole end of these pauses is melody of verse.

The *sentential* pauses are the same in verse as in prose, and marked by the same characters.

The *cesural* pause may be placed in any part of the verse or line, but it has the finest effect upon the melody, when placed after the second or third measure or in the middle of the third.

After the second measure—

“In what retreat, inglorious or unknown,  
 Did genius sleep, when dullness seized the throne.”

After the third measure—

“O say what stranger cause, yet unexplored,  
 Could make a gentle belle reject a lord?”

In the middle of the third measure—

“Great are his perils in this stormy time,  
 Who rashly ventures on a sea of rhyme.”

In these examples there is great melody, but not the same degree in each. The third example is the most melodious, in which the pause is in the middle of the third measure and consequently in the middle of the verse or line.

## EXPRESSION.

Expression consists in such a choice and distribution of poetic measures as are best adapted to the subject, and best calculated to impress sentiments upon the mind. Those poetic measures which end in an accented syllable, are the most forcible. Hence the measure xa is best adapted to solemn and sublime subjects. This is the measure of the Epic, of poems on grave and moral subjects, of Elgiers, &c.

Poets sometimes take the liberty of placing two accented syllables together, in this measure, which adds much to the solemnity of the movement.

“While the clear sun, rejoicing still to rise,  
 In pomp rolls round immeasurable skies.” Dwight.

The two accented syllables, *rolls round*, expresses, beautifully, the majesty of the sun in his course.

## RULES FOR READING VERSE.

"1. Words should be pronounced as in prose and in conversation; for reading is but rehearsing another's conversation.

"2. The emphasis should be observed as in prose. The voice should bound from accent to accent, and no stress should be laid on little unimportant words, nor on weak syllables.

"3. The sentential pauses should be observed as in prose; these are not affected by the kind of writing, being regulated entirely by the sense. But as the cesural and final pauses are designed to increase the melody of verse, the strictest attention must be paid to them in reading. They mark a suspension of voice without rising or falling.

"To read prose well, it is necessary to understand what is read; and poetry well, it is further necessary to understand the structure of verse." Webster's Imp. Grammar.

THE END.