A PRACTICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE,
IN WHICH THE PRINCIPLES ESTABLISHED BY LINDLEY MURRAY,
ARE INCULCATED, AND HIS THEORY OF THE MOODS CLEARLY ILLUSTRATED BY DIAGRAMS, REPRESENTING THE NUMBER OF TENSES IN EACH MOOD—THEIR SIGNS—AND THE MANNER IN WHICH THEY ARE FORMED.

SECOND EDITION, IMPROVED.

BY ROSCOE G. GREENE.

PORTLAND:
PUBLISHED BY SHIRLEY AND HYDE, EXCHANGE-STREET.
1830.
BETTMEMBERED that on the first day of March, A. D. 1830, and in the fifty-fifth year of the Independence of the United States of America, Mr. Thomas Todd, of said District, has deposited in this office, the title of a book the right whereof he claims as proprietor in the words following, to wit:

"A Practical Grammar of the English Language, in which the Principles established by Lindsay Murray, are illustrated, and his theory of the moods clearly illustrated by diagrams representing the number of tenses in each mood—their order—and the manner in which they are formed.—Second edition, improved. By Roscoe G. Greene."

In conformity to the act of Congress of the United States, entitled "An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned," and also, to an act, entitled "An Act supplementary to an act entitled An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts and books to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned; and for extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving and etching historical and other prints." A true copy as of record.

Attorney, J. Mussey, Clerk of the District of Maine.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

"Messrs. Shirley & Hyde;

Gentlemen,—Having used Mr. GREENE'S GRAMMAR in my School for a number of months past, I do not hesitate to state that for its simplicity and conciseness, the two most essential requisites in a Text Book for Schools, I consider it entitled to a high degree of merit.

JOSEPH LIBBY, "Teacher, Classical School."

Portland, Feb. 20, 1830.

Portland English High School, Feb. 25, 1830.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

"Messrs. Shirley & Hyde;

Gentlemen,—I cannot better express my opinion of MR. GREENE'S GRAMMAR than by assuring you that I highly approve the School Committee's selection of it for this School.

J. M. PURDINGTON, "Teacher."

Portland, Dec. 10, 1829.

The following remarks, from the Christian Mirror of June 6, are from the pen of Rev. A. C. Johnson.

"Mr. Greene's plan of teaching the English Grammar has the best of all recommendations to sustain its pretensions—that of "successful experiment." He commences with a familiar explanation of the noun, which is the only part of speech except the interjection, which can be explained unconnected with any other. When the noun, with its person, number and gender, is well understood, he explains the article and its uses, and then exercises the pupil on examples prepared for the purpose. He next takes up the adjective, explaining its variations, office, and connection with the noun, and exercising the pupil on a variety of examples composed of the article, adjective and noun. The next in his order is the active verb, which also is fully explained, and the office of a noun in the nominative case, as an actor, is illustrated by appropriate exercises. Into the next following lesson the adverb is introduced, and the examples for exercise contain the adverb and the parts of speech before mentioned, thus combining what is new, at each step, with what has already been familiar to the pupil. In this manner the pupil is carried forward, unembarrassed, and understandingly, from the simplest to the abstruser parts of this complicated science. He is prepared, by previous acquisitions, to comprehend each part, as it is successively presented to the mind. When all the parts of speech have been introduced, and their character, government, agreement, etc. are already understood—for which from ten to fifteen lessons are requisite—the pupil enters upon the study of the moods and tenses, in which the same regard to order in the arrangement of examples for exercise is observed, as in the introduction of the several parts of speech. In this perhaps the most difficult part of Grammar, the learner is assisted by Diagrams representing the moods and tenses, in which their various characteristics are impressed on the mind, by being presented to the eye. Their regular location in these Diagrams aids the principle of association, is admirably adapted to favor their retention in the student's mind, as well as to facilitate his further progress."
RECOMMENDATIONS.

When the regular verbs are disposed of, different kinds of verbs are introduced and illustrated, followed by lessons in analytical parsing,—supplying ellipsis,—exercises in bad syntax.—Punctuation, Rhetoric, Composition, &c. &c.

This imperfect outline of his plan will show, that Mr. Greene's mode, of teaching in philosophicall, in the approved sense of the term. As a man, and a teacher, he needs not our recommendation. A five years' residence in this town has secured him the esteem and confidence of those who have had the best opportunity to know him.

"The undersigned, having witnessed the examination of a class in English Grammar under the tuition of Mr. R. G. Greene of this town, and feeling desirous to promote the diffusion of the best principles of education, as well as to do an act of justice to Mr. Greene as an instructor, deem it proper to state the following facts.

"The class examined in our presence, consisted of seven ladles. They had received twenty daily lessons, of one hour each, and stated that they had not devoted more than one additional hour to the study upon an average, each day, making the whole not to exceed forty hours. Most of them, when they commenced this course of lessons, were entirely unacquainted with the principles of Grammar. They now appeared to be familiar with all the parts of speech and their various modifications, could readily parse any simple construction of the English language, and answer the most difficult questions with respect to the formation of the several modes and tenses.

"It appeared to us that the progress of this class for the time they had devoted to the study, had been much greater than usually made in our schools under the ordinary mode of instruction, and we cheerfully recommend to public patronage both the system and the man."

"ALEXIO K. PARRIS," Governor of the State of Maine.


"J. B. SMITH, Jr." A. M.

Portland, July 26, 1823.

"Having attended an examination of a class of young pupils, who had received twenty lessons in English Grammar from their instructor, Mr. R. G. Greene, I am able to express my entire concurrence in the opinion heretofore entertained from various quarters, in regard to his qualifications and success in this department of instruction. I have never witnessed any other instance of such proficiency in so short a time. Mr. Greene's instruction illustrates, very forcibly, the importance of presenting a complicated subject to young minds in distinct and successive portions, and of constantly calling the attention to the reasons and general principles which pertain to that subject."

Hon. "JOSEPH G. KENDALL," A. M.

Latrobe a Tutor to Harvard College.

Lexington, (Mas.) May 24, 1823.

"At the request of Mr. R. G. Greene, we visited a School, instructed by him in English Grammar. He appears to us well qualified for performing this duty. From the rapid proficiency made by his Pupils, and from the critical and thorough examination, which we attended, we cheerfully recommend his course of instruction, as highly favorable for young men and women, who, in the present arrangement of our schools, have but a short season for literary improvement.

"NATHANIEL THAYER," D. D.


Lancaster, (Mas.) Jan. 11, 1823.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

"From a knowledge of the great defects, arising from want of method, in the long established mode of instruction in English Grammar, and also from an acquaintance with the system pursued by Mr. R. G. Greene, which is now before the public, I am fully satisfied that the progress of the student may be facilitated thereby, in a degree far exceeding that of any other; and I do confidently believe, that no one, who has fairly and impartially examined the same, will hesitate to give it his decided approbation."

"DANIEL CLARK," A. M.

Portland, Aug. 6, 1823.

The following, by William B. Sewall, Esq. is taken from the Portland Gazette.

"We were recently indulged with an opportunity of witnessing the progress made by a class of young ladies, having nearly completed a course of instruction in English Grammar, under the tuition of Mr. Greene, who has been engaged in that branch of education in this town, for a few months past. It is but justice to the instructor and his pupils to say that the mode of explaining and illustrating the elements of our language, by the system this gentleman has adopted, is such as to have been attended with unanswerable success. It is not merely by a mechanical exercise of memory that the pupil is conducted in his course of instruction, but the rationale of every precept is explained at each step of his progress, until the principles of grammar and the construction of language are fully and clearly understood. It has been said of old, and the maxim has truth as well antiquity in its favor, "There is no royal way to learning." It is undoubtedly true that no valuable intellectual superiority can be attained but by serious application and unwearying industry; but that there are more direct approaches to the eminences of learning, from are sometimes pursued, cannot be denied by those who have been in any degree conversant with the history of the progress of the human mind. Those, who are able to afford us any such facilities to the acquisition of knowledge, in whatever branch it may be, are entitled to substantial encouragement—and believing, as we do, Mr. Greene to be altogether deserving, we most cordially wish him an abundant harvest of public patronage."

"Dear Sir—So far as I have had opportunity to examine your Grammar of the English Language, I am satisfied that, while it does not, and should not aim at originality of vein, its arrangements, and very appropriate examples for illustration, will be found by the teacher well adapted to lead the learner, step by step, through the elementary forms of the language, till he is able to understand, if not in some cases to anticipate the generalizations, which are given, in that part of the Treatise which follows the elementary instructions.

"Respectfully, your obedient servant.

Rev. "S. ADAMS,"

Principal of the High School for Females.

"Mr. R. G. GREENE.

"Portland, Dec. 19, 1828."

Extract from the Journal of the Proceedings of the Artisans' Institute.

"Voted, That the Society highly approve of the Grammar published by Mr. R. G. Greene, and that it be used in the school under their direction."

"L. WHITNEY, Secretary."

Portland, Dec. 1828.
A competent knowledge of the Grammar of the English Language, is now considered so essential a part of a business education, that no apology for attempting to render the acquisition of it less difficult to beginners, is deemed necessary.

In selecting materials for the following pages, (though the system of Lindley Murray was considered the standard,) the works of other eminent writers on Grammar were consulted, and their opinions in some instances adopted. It was not however, the object of the compiler to make innovations in the science itself, but to present an improved method of teaching it—to give to long established principles, a form more interesting and useful to the learner, than any yet presented to the public.

That oral instruction is calculated to make a more lasting impression upon the mind, than that received solely from books, will, he thinks, be admitted by all who are acquainted with the difficulties of teaching this science. He has, therefore, presented nothing, in the first lessons, but the Definitions, Rules, and Examples necessary for practice in parsing, &c.; leaving it for the instructor to supply whatever may be found necessary, by verbal illustration.

The verb, with beginners in the study, is found the most difficult part of Grammar—not in itself, but on account of the different forms that it takes, and the great variety of changes which it undergoes in passing through the Moods and Tenses. In order to obviate these perplexities, and give facility and interest to the progress of the student, the compiler has formed Diagrams of the several Moods; presenting, at one view, the number of Tenses in each, their Signs, and the manner in which they are formed.

The utility of these Diagrams has been tested in the instruction of several Classes; and it is confidently believed, that if properly used, they will be found as useful in acquiring a critical knowledge of the most complicated part of Grammar, as maps are in the study of Geography.
PREFACE.

Experience has abundantly shown to every teacher of Grammar, that learners, especially young learners, find much difficulty in committing to memory the variations of the verb in the several moods and tenses, and still more in understanding and retaining them.

Something more than the mere metaphysical distinction conveyed by words, seems to be necessary in order to render the first efforts in this subject, successful and pleasant.

A striking view of sensible objects, under such modifications as will suggest and illustrate the proper distinctions, and afford, at a glance, the means of comparison, must necessarily possess for untutored minds, great advantages over the subtle, distilling process of words.

Every person, who has at all observed the operations of his own mind, must have felt the power of external objects in calling up a train of ideas which for years before, may not have recurred to him.

Reflection will always effectually serve those who in disposing of their ideas, employ the principle of local association. When they touch upon a link of the well united chain, whether "tenth or ten thousand," they are able to follow the successive connection to each extremity.

It is upon this unifying principle of local association,

All the signs by which our thoughts are expressed" says Dugald Stuart, "are addressed either to the eye or to the ear; and the impressions made on these organs, at the time when we first receive an idea, contribute to give us a firmer hold of it. Visible objects are remembered more easily than those of any other of our senses; and hence it is, that the bulk of mankind are more aided in their recollection by impressions made on the eye, than by those made on the ear. Every person must have remarked, in studying the elements of geometry, how much his recollection of the theorems was aided by the diagrams which are connected with them. This advantage, which the objects of sight, naturally have over those of hearing, in the distinctness and permanence of the impression which they make on the memory, continues, and even increases through life, in the case of the bulk of mankind."

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety. It is divided into four parts, viz. ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, and PROSODY.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography teaches the nature and powers of letters, and the just method of spelling words. Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

A vowel is an articulate sound, that can be perfectly uttered by itself: as, a, e, o; which are formed without the help of any other sound.

A consonant is an articulate sound, which cannot be perfectly uttered without the help of a vowel: as, b, d, f, l, which require vowels to express them fully.

The vowels are, a, e, i, o, u, and sometimes w, and y. W and y are consonants when they begin a word or syllable; but in every other situation they are vowels.

Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels.

The mutes cannot be sounded at all without the aid of a vowel. They are, b, p, r, d, k, and c and g hard.

The semi-vowels have an imperfect sound of themselves. They are, f, l, m, n, r, v, s, x, and c and g soft.

Four of the semi-vowels, namely, l, m, n, r, are also distinguished by the name of liquids, from their readily uniting with other consonants, and flowing as it were into their sounds.

A diphthong is the union of two vowels, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice; as, ez in beat, os in sound.

A triphong is the union of three vowels, pronounced in like manner; as, een in beau, teo in view.

A proper diphthong is that in which both the vowels are sounded; as, oi in voice, ow in ounce.

An improper diphthong has but one of the vowels sounded; as, ea in eagle, oa in boat.
ORTHOGRAPHY.

SYLLABLES.

A syllable is a sound either simple or compounded, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and constituting a word, or part of a word: as, a, an, ant.

Spelling is the art of rightly dividing words into their syllables; or of expressing a word by its proper letters.

Words are articulate sounds, used by common consent, as signs of our ideas.

A word of one syllable is termed a monosyllable: a word of two syllables, a disyllable; a word of three syllables, a trisyllable; and a word of four or more syllables, a polysyllable.

All words are either primitive or derivative.

A primitive word is that which cannot be reduced to any simpler word in the language: as, man, good, content.

A derivative word is that which may be reduced to another word in English of greater simplicity; as, manifold, goodness, contentment, Yorkshire.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

The orthography of the English language is attended with much uncertainty and perplexity. But a considerable part of this inconvenience may be remedied, by attending to the general laws of formation; and, for this end, is presented a view of such general maxims, in spelling primitive and derivative words, as have been almost universally received.

RULE I.

Monosyllables ending with fi, l, or s, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant: as, staff, mill, pass, &c. The only exceptions are, of, if, as, is, hes, was, yes, his, this, us, and thus.

RULE II.

Monosyllables ending with any consonant but fi, l, or s, and preceded by a single vowel, never double the final consonant; excepting only, add, ebb, butt, egg, odd, err, inn, bum, purr, and buzz.

RULE III.

Words ending with y, preceded by a consonant form the plurals of nouns, the persons of verbs, verbal nouns, past participle, comparative, and superlative, by changing y into i: as, spy, spies; I carry, thou carryest; he carrieth or carries; carrier, carried; happy, happier, happiest.

The present participle, in ing, retains the y, that i may not be doubled; as, carry, carrying; bury, burying, &c.

But y, preceded by a vowel, in such instances as the above, is not changed; as, boy, boys; I clove, he cloys, cloyed, &c.; except in lay, pay, and say; from which are formed, laid, paid, and said; and their compounds, unlaid, unpaid, unsaid, &c.

RULE IV.

Words ending with y, preceded by a consonant, upon assuming an additional syllable beginning with a consonant, commonly change y into i; as, happy, happily, happiness. But when y is preceded by a vowel, it is very rarely changed in the additional syllable: as, coy, coyle; boy, boyish, boyhood: annoy, annoyed, annoyance; joy, joyless, joyful, &c.

RULE V.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant, when they take another syllable beginning with a vowel: as, wit, witty; thin, thinness; to abet, an abettor; to begin, a beginner.

But if a diphthong precedes, or the accent is on the preceding syllable, the consonant remains single; as, to toll, tolling; to offer, an offering; mad, maiden, &c.

RULE VI.

Words ending with any double letter but l, and taking ness, less, ly, or ful, after them, preserve the letter double; as, harmless, carelessly, stifly, successful, distressful, &c. But those words which end with double l, and take ness, less, ly, or ful, after them, generally omit one l: as, cleanliness, skillless, fully, skillful, &c.

RULE VII.

Ness, less, ly, and ful, added to words ending with silent e, do not cut it off; as, paleness, guideless, closely, peacefully; except in a few words: as, duly, truly, awftul.

RULE VIII.

Ment, added to words ending with silent e, generally preserves the e from elision: as, abatement, chastisement, incitement, &c. The words judgment, abridgment, acknowledgment, are deviations from the rule.

Like other terminations, it changes y into i, when preceded by a consonant: as, accompany, accompanied; merry, merriment.

RULE IX.

Ably and able, when incorporated into words ending with silent e, almost always cut it off; as, blame, blamable; cure, curable; some, sensible, &c.; but if e or o soft comes before e in the original word, the e is preserved in words compounded with able, as, change, changeable; peace, peaceable, &c.

RULE X.

When ing, or ing, is added to words ending with silent e, the e is almost universally omitted: as, place, placing; lodge, lodging; slave, slavish; prude, prudish.

RULE XI.

Compounded words are generally spelled in the same manner, as the simple words of which they are formed: as, glasshouse; skylight, thereby, hereafter. Many words ending with double l, are exceptions to this rule: as, already, welfare, wilful, fulfil: and also the words, wherever, Christmas, lammas, &c.

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ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

The second part of Grammar is Etymology; which treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications and their derivation.

The third part of Grammar is Syntax, which treats of the agreement and construction of words in a sentence.
OF NOUNS. A noun is the name of any thing that we can see, taste, hear, smell, feel, or conceive of.

The noun has four properties, viz. Person, Number, Gender and Case.

Of Person. Person is that quality of the noun, which modifies the verb.

There are three persons, viz. the first, the second, and the third.

The first person denotes the speaker—the second, the person spoken to—and the third, the person spoken of.

Of Number. Number is the consideration of an object, as one or more.

Nouns have two numbers, viz. the singular, and the plural.

The singular number denotes but one object—the plural denotes more than one.

Of Gender. Gender is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex.

There are three genders, viz. the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter.

The masculine gender denotes animals of the male kind—the feminine, animals of the female kind—but the neuter denotes animals neither male nor female.

Parsing a word means pointing out the part of speech to which it belongs, naming its properties, relations, &c.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,

In which it is required of the pupil in the part of speech, and give its person, number, and gender.

Men
Women are seen.
Trees
Wines
Apples are tasted.
Plums
Music
Thunder is heard.
Echos
Odour
Incense is smelled.
Perfume
Joy is felt.
Fear
Hope
Time
Space is conceived of.
Vacuity

QUESTIONS.

What is a NOUN?—How many properties have nouns?—What are they called?—What is meant by person?—How many persons have nouns?—What does each person denote?—What is number?—How many numbers have nouns?—What are they called?—What does the singular denote?—What does the plural number denote?—What is meant by Gender?—How many Genders are there?—What does the Masculine Gender denote?—What does the Feminine Gender denote?—What does the Neuter Gender denote?—What is meant by parsing a word?
OF ARTICLES. An article is a word prefixed to nouns, and pronouns, to limit their signification.

There are two articles—The called the definite article, a or an the indefinite.

An and a are one and the same article. An, is used when the following word begins with a vowel sound; as an urn, an hour; and a when the following word begins with a consonant sound; as a meadow, a horse, &c.

Rule 2. The article refers to its noun (or pronoun) in limitation.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,
In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to parsing the noun and adjective as in the preceding lesson) to parse the article, and to give Rule 2.

The largest vessels are seen.
The tallest forests are seen.
The brilliant stars are seen.
The choicest fruits are tasted.
The ripest melons are tasted.
The finest wines are tasted.
A true report is heard.
A distant sound is heard.
A loud voice is heard.
A sweet perfume is smelled.
A refreshing odour is smelled.
A delightful incense is smelled.
An acute pain is felt.
An eager joy is felt.
An ardent wish is felt.
The celestial spheres are conceived of.
The highest heavens are conceived of.

QUESTIONS. 
What is an ARTICLE?—How many articles are there?—Which is called the definite?—Which is called the indefinite?—In what cases is a used?—When is an used?—What rule do you give when you parse an article?

OF VERBS. A verb is a part of speech which signifies action, (being or suffering.)

An active verb denotes action, either of matter or mind.

Of Case. Case is the condition or situation of the noun in relation to other words in the sentence.

Nouns have three cases, viz. the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

The nominative case to an active verb denotes the doer of the action.

Rule 3. A verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,
In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to parsing the article, adjective, and noun as in the preceding lesson) to tell the case of the noun—distinguish the active verb, give its person and number, its agreement with its nominative, and apply Rule 3.

A brave soldier fights—
A valiant chieftain conquers—
The worthless coward trembles—
An honest tradesman prospers—
An industrious pupil studies—
A true friend reproves—
The aged veteran totters—
The wisest men err—
The lonely captive mourns—
The imprudent youth suffers—
The furious lion roars—
The awful thunders roll—
The smallest birds sing—
A modest female blushes—
An artful culprit begs—
The wilful sinner dies—
An idle student plays—
A careless reader blunders—
The angry tempest rages—
The foaming billows dash—
The active farmer thrives—

The pupil should be required to repeat the rule applicable to each part of speech as often as it occurs in the exercises, for the purpose of rendering its application familiar.

QUESTIONS. 
What is a VERB?—What is an active VERB?—What is CASE?—How many cases have Nouns?—What does the Nominative Case to an active verb denote?—What rule do you give when you parse a verb?
OF PARTICIPLES. A participle is a word derived from a verb, partaking of the nature of a verb and of an adjective.

The present participle is formed by adding ing, or ning to the present tense of a verb; as, Speak—speaking, fly—flying, go—going, run—running.

OF ADVERBS. An adverb shows the manner, the time, or the place, in which an action is done, when added to a verb, or to a participle.

Adverbs have no properties; but they are of different kinds: as, of manner, time, place, &c.

Rule 4. Adverbs qualify verbs and participles.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED.
In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to parsing the article, adjective, noun, and adverb verb,) to distinguish the Adverb, point out the word it qualifies, and apply Rule 4.

The angry waves dash violently
The heavenly bodies revolve steadily
The small bird sings sweetly
A prudent person speaks cautiously
A good servant labours faithfully
A large stream flows rapidly
A swift horse trots nimbly
An old man walks slowly
A brave general embarks to-day
The old ship arrived yesterday
An able statesman speaks to-night
An industrious student improves daily
A large army encamped here
The stoutest yeomen march hither
A wealthy farmer lives there
The gallant stranger travels thither

Rule 5. Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, (or are governed by prepositions.)

Examples to be parsed.
In which the pupil (in addition to parsing the other words) will distinguish the Present Participle, tell what word it refers to, and apply Rule 5.

Reading slowly, boys read correctly.
Judging hastily, people judge erroneously.

Questions.
What is a PARTICIPLE?—How is the Present Participle formed?—What is an ADVERB?—Have Adverbs any properties?—What rule do you give when you parse an adverb?—What rule do you give when you parse a participle?
LESSON VII.

OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS. The words Who, Which, and That, (when That can be changed into who or which) are relative pronouns.

These pronouns are called relative pronouns because they represent either antecedent words, or phrases.

CAStES OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Who is applied only to persons.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sin. Nom. Who,</th>
<th>Plu. Nom. Who,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poss. Whose,</td>
<td>Poss. Whose,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj. Whom;</td>
<td>Obj. Whom.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Which is applied to animals and things.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sin. Nom. Which,</th>
<th>Plu. Nom. Which,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poss.</td>
<td>Poss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj. Which;</td>
<td>Obj. Which.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

That is applied to persons, animals, and things.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sin. Nom. That,</th>
<th>Plu. Nom. That,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poss.</td>
<td>Poss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj. That;</td>
<td>Obj. That.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When no nominative comes between the relative pronoun and the verb, the relative is the nominative.

Rule 6. Relative pronouns agree with their antecedents in Person, Number, and Gender.

EXAmPLES TO BE PARSED,

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to decline, and parse the relative pronouns, and apply Rule 6.

- The men (who work well) labour very diligently.
- A horse (which trots hard) travels very rapidly.
- A horse (that trots hard) travels very rapidly.
- The boy (that reads well) speaks very slowly.
- The man (who speaks to-day) spoke here, yesterday.

QUESTIONS.

What words are called RELATIVE pronouns?—Why so called?—Decline the relative pronoun who?—To what is who applied—Decline the Relative which. To what is which applied?—Decline the Relative that. To what is that applied?
OF ACTIVE-TRANSITIVE AND ACTIVE-INTRANSITIVE VERBS. An active-transitive verb expresses an action that affects an object.
An active-intransitive verb expresses an action, confined to the actor.

* The objective case denotes the object of a verb, (participle, or preposition.)
* Government means the influence that one word has over another in directing its case, &c.

Rule 8. Transitive verbs govern the objective case.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,
In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish the active transitive, and the active intransitive verbs—parse the noun in the objective case, and apply Rule 8.

The base tyrant slew his friend treacherously.
A generous man bestows his favors seasonably.
That accomplished lady spends her time properly.
This wealthy farmer cultivates his land thoroughly.
Every valiant soldier performs his duty promptly.
A prodigal prince burdens the poor needlessly.
An indulgent master governs his servants easily.
Our generous commander pardoned him instantly.
My noble companion relievéd them effectually.
Each worthy member performs his part cheerfully.
The young girl reads* (" ) correctly.
A correct scholar speaks (" ) slowly.
That aged veteran hears (" ) distinctly.
A careless penman writes (" ) badly.
The new vessel sails (" ) rapidly.
Those little birds fly (" ) swiftly.
A wide stream flows (" ) smoothly.
The mail coach arrives (" ) daily.

QUESTIONS.
What does a TRANSITIVE VERB express?—What does an intransitive Verb express?—What does the Objective case denote?—What is governed by government?—What rule do you give on parsing a noun or pronoun, governed by a transitive verb?

* All active verbs are transitive when there is no person or thing expressed or clearly implied, upon which the action terminates—when they do not govern such an object, they are intransitive.

LESSON IX.

Rule 9. Participles have the same government, as the verbs have from which they are derived.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,
In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to parse the words governed by the participles, and apply Rule 9.

The farmer caught the boy stealing his apples. We saw the stranger writing a letter. The officers arrested the man carrying off goods.

OF CONJUNCTIONS. A Conjunction is a word that is chiefly used to connect sentences, so as out of two, or more sentences, to make but one: it sometimes connects only words.

Conjunctions are of two kinds, Copulative and disjunctive.

Copulative—and, or, nor, as, than, lest, though, unless, notwithstanding.

Disjunctive—but, or, nor, as, than, lest, though, unless, notwithstanding.

Note 1. The conjunctions and, or, nor, and as, are used for connecting words, as well as sentences.

The other conjunctions are chiefly used for connecting sentences; or members of compound sentences.

Note 2. A simple sentence contains but one verb, and a noun, or a pronoun with which that verb agrees as its nominative; as, "the heavenly bodies revolve steadily."
A compound sentence contains two or more simple sentences; as, "Time flies swiftly" and "death approaches."

Rule 10. Nouns and Pronouns connected by conjunctions must be in the same case.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,
In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the exercises in the preceding lessons) to parse the conjunctions placed out its office in connecting words and sentences, and apply Rule 10.

He and she saw the transaction. My friend knows him and her. He or she wrote this letter. The officer arrested him or his neighbour. He rides and walks alternately. They read or write continually. The farmer bought and cultivated the land.

The snow falls very fast and the storm rages violently.

My neighbour resides here or he gave false information.

Your son improves fast because he studies diligently.

Our pupils write badly but they read correctly.

QUESTIONS.
What is a CONJUNCTION?—How many kinds of Conjunctions are there?—What are they called?—Repeat the Copulative. Repeat the Disjunctive. Name the Conjunctions that are used for connecting simple words. What constitutes a simple sentence?—What constitutes a compound sentence?—What rule do you give for the Conjunction?—What rule do you give on parsing a noun or pronoun, governed by a participle?
OF PREPOSITIONS. Prepositions serve to connect words, and show the relation between them.

A list of the principal prepositions. Above, against, about, after, amidst, across, among, athwart, at—behind, below, before, beside, beneath, between, betwixt, beyond, by—concerning—down, during—except—for, from—in, into—near—of, on or upon, over—round or around—since—through, throughout, till, touching, toward—under, underneath, up—within, without—out of—over against—next to—according to—instead of, and some other words.

Note. When the preceding words do not govern the objective case of nouns or pronouns, they become adverbs, conjunctions, &c.

Rule 11. Prepositions govern the objective case.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to parse the prepositions—nouns, &c. governed by them—and to apply Rule 11.

They confided in him. He spoke unto them in parables. They called upon her in person. The mast fell athwart the ship. He walked with me by moonlight. My friends reside beyond the mountain. The fleet sailed down the river. He stands above me. The man lives over the store. The General marched on that day against the enemy. The stranger passed up the hill, near the fort, and he saw a vast plain below him. He walked before me for the space of an hour. His friends followed after him during the day, and on the next morning, they found him behind a cabin in the forest.

OF INTERJECTIONS. The interjection simply expresses some sudden emotion of the mind. It has no connexion with the sentence, nor any properties belonging to it. The principal Interjections, are, Ah! O! Alas! Fie! Poh! &c.

When a nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative must be in the possessive case, and governed by the following noun, or in the objective, and governed by the following verb or some participle, or preposition, in its own member of the sentence.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED.

8 6 2 7 3 5
Whom ye ignorantly worship him declare I unto you.
I lost a book yesterday which my friend found to-day.
The farm which you bought I improved many years.
The gentleman whose house you built lives very genteely.
The person whose name you mention left town yesterday.

QUESTIONS.

What is a PREPOSITION?—What is meant by the government of a word?—What is an INTERJECTION?

ETymology and Syntax.

LESSON XI.

OF THE POSSESSIVE CASE. The possessive case denotes the possession of property.

*The possessive case of nouns, in the singular number, is formed by adding an apostrophe, followed by an s, thus ('s) to the nominative; and in the plural number, when the noun ends in s, by adding an apostrophe only.

THE THREE CASES OF NOUNS.

 Singular. Plural.
 Nom. * Man, Nom. Men,
 Poss. Man's, Poss. Men's,
 Obj. Man; Obj. Men.
 Nom. Woman, Nom. Women,
 Poss. Woman's, Poss. Women's,
 Obj. Woman; Obj. Women.
 Nom. Eagle, Nom. Eagles,
 Poss. Eagle's, Poss. Eagles,
 Obj. Eagle; Obj. Eagles.
 Nom. Deer, Nom. Deer,
 Poss. Deer's, Poss. Deer's (or 's)
 Obj. Deer; Obj. Deer.

Rule 12. A noun or a pronoun, in the possessive case, is governed by the noun it possesses.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish the nouns and pronouns in the possessive case; point out their government, and apply Rule 12.

Charles's resignation filled all Europe with astonishment. The officer's conduct destroyed all hopes of success. He doubts the gentleman's integrity. A friend bears a friend's infirmities. The deepest sorrow preyed upon that amiable lady's mind. She rang for her child, and in its infantile caresses, she forgot her misery. His opinion coincides with mine. "His performance deserves no commendation but here " does.

QUESTIONS.

What does the possessive case denote?—How is the possessive case formed?—How is the possessive case formed in the plural, when the singular and plural are spelled alike in the nominative?—How is the singular of proper names ending in s, formed?—How is a noun which the possessive case governed?—Decline the nouns, man, woman, eagle, and deer.

†Proper names ending in s, in the singular number, form the possessive, by the addition of the apostrophe ('s) to the nominative; as, Thomas's almanack, Niles's Register.
Religious intolerance drove our fathers from their native country. They sought an asylum in the trackless wilds of America. Here, in voluntary exile, they lived free. Here, they worshipped their God according to the dictates of their own consciences. To them liberty appeared more lovely in her wild mountains, than tyranny (“a”) in his gaudy palaces. From such men we originated. They instilled into the minds of their children, a love of that liberty ("a") a hatred of that tyranny. They cherished independence of mind in their offspring, and ("a") entwined it so firmly with their existence, that it grew with their growth, and ("a") strengthened with their strength."

Two centuries rolled on—the wilderness blossomed like ("a") the rose; and our free and happy colonists soon increased to the number of three millions. About that time Great Britain commenced a system of oppressive taxation. This measure aroused their indignation. They considered taxation and representation as inseparable ("a"). In parliament they had no voice—and, therefore, they resolved on freedom or death. Ah! then came the "tug of war!" But the wisdom, ("a") valor, and ("a") example of the illustrious Washington, inspired a band of hardy heroes, who (rising in defence of their wives, ("a") their children, and ("a") their homes) led us from bondage to freedom, and ("a") secured to the nation, a glorious independence.

We now enjoy the fruits of the labours, ("a") toils, and ("a") cruelties which our fathers suffered. Cities, ("a") towns, and villages spring up in the forest. The wilderness becomes a garden. Peace and plenty, hand in hand, wander through our happy valleys and ("a") sport upon our mountains. The wealth of distant nations pours into our lap; and our enterprise explores every section of the globe.

"The food (that nourishes the body) contains the elements of its decay—the soul (that animates it by a vivifying fire) tends to wear it out by its action. Death lurks in ambush along all our paths."

**EXERCISES TO BE PARSED,**

**CONTAINING ALL THE PARTS OF SPEECH.**

**EXERCISES IN RELIGIOUS HISTORY.**

**OF THE MOODS AND TENSES.**

Mood is a particular form of the verb, showing the manner in which the being, action, or passion, is represented. There are five; viz. the Indicative, Subjunctive, Potential, Infinitive, and Imperative.

The Indicative Mood simply indicates, or declares a thing.

Of Tense. Tense is a distinction of Time. The Indicative Mood has six tenses; viz.—the Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, the Pluperfect, the First, and the Second Future Tenses.

The Present Tense represents an action or event, as passing at the time in which it is mentioned.

The Imperfect Tense represents an action either as past or finished, or as remaining unfinished at a certain time past.

The Perfect Tense not only refers to what is past, but also conveys an allusion to the present time.

The Pluperfect Tense represents a thing not only as past, but also as prior to some other point of time specified in the sentence.

The First Future Tense represents the action as yet to come, either with or without respect to the precise time.

The Second Future Tense intimates that the action will be fully accomplished, at or before the time of another future action or event.

Of Conjugation. Conjugation literally means, uniting a Verb to its Nomina tive case, of different numbers and persons, in the Moods and Tenses.

Verbs are called regular when their Imperfect Tense, and Perfect Participle are formed by adding to the Present Tense ed, or d only when the verbs end in a. All other verbs are irregular.

**EXAMPLES OF REGULAR VERBS.**

**Present Tense.**

I walk,
I learn.

**Imperfect Tense.**

I walked,
I learned.

**Perfect Participle.**

walked.
learned.

**EXAMPLES OF IRREGULAR VERBS.**

**Present Tense.**

I go,
I break,
I find,

**Imperfect Tense.**

I went,
I broke,
I found,

**Perfect Participle.**

gone.
broken.
found.

The following is a list of the irregular verbs, as they are now generally used. Those marked with the letter r, admit also of the regular form.

**QUESTIONS.**

What is Mood? How many Moods are there? How does the indicative mood represent an action or event? What is the meaning of Tense? How many Tenses are there? Give a definition of each. What is meant by Conjugation? What verbs are called regular? What verbs are called irregular?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I abide</td>
<td>I abode</td>
<td>abode.</td>
<td>I run</td>
<td>I ran</td>
<td>run</td>
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<td>I am</td>
<td>I was</td>
<td>been.</td>
<td>I spread</td>
<td>I spread</td>
<td>spread,</td>
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<td>I bear</td>
<td>I bore</td>
<td>borne.</td>
<td>I spring</td>
<td>I sprang</td>
<td>sprung</td>
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<tr>
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<td>I beat</td>
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<td>I stand</td>
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<td>I begin</td>
<td>I began</td>
<td>begun.</td>
<td>I steal</td>
<td>I stole</td>
<td>stolen</td>
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<tr>
<td>I bend</td>
<td>I bent</td>
<td>bent, r</td>
<td>I stick</td>
<td>I stuck</td>
<td>stuck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I beseech</td>
<td>I besought</td>
<td>besought,</td>
<td>I strike</td>
<td>I struck</td>
<td>struck</td>
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<tr>
<td>I bid</td>
<td>I bade</td>
<td>bidden.</td>
<td>I stride</td>
<td>I strode</td>
<td>strode, stridden</td>
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<tr>
<td>I bind</td>
<td>I bound</td>
<td>bound.</td>
<td>I swallow</td>
<td>I swoln</td>
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<tr>
<td>I bite</td>
<td>I bit</td>
<td>bitten.</td>
<td>I sweep</td>
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<td>I bleed</td>
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<td>bled.</td>
<td>I swim</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>I broke</td>
<td>broken.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<td>I breed</td>
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<td>I sweep</td>
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<td>brought,</td>
<td>I strike</td>
<td>I struck</td>
<td>struck</td>
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<tr>
<td>I build</td>
<td>I built</td>
<td>built, r</td>
<td>I swim</td>
<td>I swam</td>
<td>swam</td>
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<tr>
<td>I burst</td>
<td>I burst</td>
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<td>I swing</td>
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<tr>
<td>I buy</td>
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<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I cast</td>
<td>I cast</td>
<td>east.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I catch</td>
<td>I caught</td>
<td>caught, r</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I chide</td>
<td>I chide</td>
<td>chidden.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I choose</td>
<td>I chose</td>
<td>chosen.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I cling</td>
<td>I clung</td>
<td>clung.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I come</td>
<td>I came</td>
<td>come.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I cost</td>
<td>I cost</td>
<td>cost.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I creep</td>
<td>I crept</td>
<td>crept.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I cut</td>
<td>I cut</td>
<td>cut.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
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<td>dealt, r</td>
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<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<td>dug, r</td>
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<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<td>done.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<td>I draw</td>
<td>I drew</td>
<td>drawn.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I dream</td>
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<td>dreamt.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>driven.</td>
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<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I drink</td>
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<td>drunk.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I dwell</td>
<td>I dwelt</td>
<td>dwelt, r</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I eat</td>
<td>I ate</td>
<td>eaten.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
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<tr>
<td>I fall</td>
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<td>fallen.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<td>I feel</td>
<td>I felt</td>
<td>felt.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I fight</td>
<td>I fought</td>
<td>fought.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I find</td>
<td>I found</td>
<td>found.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
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<tr>
<td>I flee</td>
<td>I fled</td>
<td>fled.</td>
<td>I swear</td>
<td>I swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DEFECTIVE VERBS.**

A **defective verb** is a verb which wants some of the principal parts.

All the auxiliaries, except be, do, and have, are defective.

The following is a list of the defective verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>might</td>
<td>are wanting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>could</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Must</td>
<td>must</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought</td>
<td>ought</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>should</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will</td>
<td>would</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quoth</td>
<td>quoth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.**

Participle forms are wanting.
EXERCISES IN

VARIATIONS OF THE DELECTIVE AND AUXILIARY VERBS.

have varies both in the second and third persons. Must has no variation. Quoth is also a delective verb, and has no variation. The other delective verbs vary only in the second person singular; thus,

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>He, We, Ye or You, They</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>May-st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night</td>
<td>Night-st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>Can-st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could</td>
<td>Could-st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>Shall-st</td>
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<tr>
<td>Should</td>
<td>Should-st</td>
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<tr>
<td>Will</td>
<td>Will-st</td>
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<tr>
<td>Would</td>
<td>Would-st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have</td>
<td>Have-st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had</td>
<td>Had-st</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EXPLANATION OF THE DIAGRAM ON THE RIGHT HAND PAGE.

This Diagram is divided into six squares, to represent the six tenses of the Indicative Mood. The first square represents the present tense, and the second the imperfect. These being simple tenses, formed without the aid of auxiliaries, the squares representing them, contain nothing but the pronouns with which, in conjugating, the verb, write, and its imperfect tense, were, are to be united; thus,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>I write.</td>
<td>We write, Ye or you write, They write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou writest</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ye or you write, They write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, We, Ye or You, They</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 2d square represents the perfect tense; the signs of which are have and its variations.

The perfect tense is formed by prefixing the sign, have. Its forms are: have, had, has, had, and have. Written as is indicated by a line of reference connecting the former with the latter—forming the phrase, I have written—Then hast written—He has written, etc.

The 3d square represents the pluperfect tense; the signs of which are had and its variations.

The pluperfect tense is formed by prefixing the sign, had. Its forms are: have, had, has, had, and have. Written: as is indicated by a line of reference connecting the former with the latter—forming the phrase, I had written—Then hast written—He had written, etc.

The 4th square represents the first future tense; the signs of which are shall and will and their variations.

The first future tense is formed by prefixing the sign, shall or will, shall or will, to the present tense of the verb (written) as is indicated by a line of reference connecting the former with the latter—forming the phrase, I shall have written—Then shall or will write—He shall or will write, etc.

The 5th square represents the second future tense; the signs of which are shall and have and its variations.

The second future tense is formed by prefixing these signs shall and have and will to the perfect participle (written) as is indicated by a line of reference connecting the former with the latter—forming the phrase, I shall have written—Then shall have written—He shall have written, etc.

ETYMOLGY AND SYNTAX.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

The Indicative Mood simply indicates or declares a thing.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED.

In which it is required of the pupil, in parsing the verbs, to tell whether they are regular, or irregular—whether they are transitive or intransitive—give the mood and tense, number and person of each, and its agreement with its nominative, &c.

I write. Thou writest. We write. Ye write. They write. She writes. The girl writes. Your son writes elegantly. His pupils write daily. I wrote. Thou wrotest. We wrote. Ye wrote. They wrote. The boy wrote yesterday. The clerk wrote the letter. I have written a letter. Thou hast written before. He has written repeatedly. We have written our copies. You have written enough. I had written before you saw him. Thou hadst written in the new book. He had written many letters. We had written our exercises. Ye had written ten pages. I shall write to-morrow. Thou wilt write again. He will write to you. We shall write to them. Ye will write to your friends. They will write immediately. I shall have written ten letters by to-morrow noon. Thou wilt have finished thy work. He will have completed his engagement.

QUESTIONS.

How does the indicative mood express an action or event?—How many tenses has it?—What are the signs of the perfect tense?—How is it formed?—What are the signs of the pluperfect tense?—How is it formed?—What are the signs of the first future tense?—How is it formed?—What are the signs of the second future tense?—How is it formed?—How many tenses express past time?—How many futures?—Conjugate the verb write, through the tenses.
EXERCISES IN

VARIATIONS OF THE DEFECTIVE AND AUXILIARY VERBS.

Have verbs both in the second and third person. Must have no variation. Quoth is also a defective verb; and has no variation. The other defective verbs vary only in the second person singular; thus,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thou,</td>
<td>We or You, They.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May,</td>
<td>May,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Might-</td>
<td>Might,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can,</td>
<td>Can,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could-</td>
<td>Could,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shall,</td>
<td>Shall,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should-</td>
<td>Should,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will,</td>
<td>Will,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would-</td>
<td>Would,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have,</td>
<td>Have,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had,</td>
<td>Had,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought-</td>
<td>Ought,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EXPLANATION OF THE DIAGRAMS ON THE RIGHT HAND PAGE.

This Diagram is divided into six squares, to represent the six tenses of the subjunctive mood. The names of these tenses are like those of the indicative; viz. the present, the imperfect, the perfect, the pluperfect, the future, and the second. Each tense has the same sign, or sign, and is formed in the same manner as its correspondent tense in the indicative mood.

The principal difference between the conjugation of a verb in the indicative mood, and in the subjunctive, in the present tense, consists in the latter's being always preceded by a conjunction expressing a doubt, motive, wish or supposition (as is indicated by the list of conjunctions given on the left of the diagram), and when finiteness is denoted, in the verb's not varying its termination in the second and third person singular, as it does in the indicative.

When the verb has no reference to future time, but simply expresses a doubt, motive, wish, &c. though in the subjunctive mood, it varies on account of the person of its nominative as it does in the indicative; and is conjugated thus,

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD INDICATIVE FORM.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I study,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If thou wert,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he studies;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD ELIPTICAL FORM.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I study,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If thou study,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he study,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The remaining tenses of the subjunctive mood are conjugated like the corresponding tenses of the indicative mood, except, that a conjunction expressing a doubt, motive, &c. is used before the verb; and, that will and will, are not used in forming the second future tense.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish the verbs, in the subjunctive mood—conjugate them, and explain the difference between the subjunctive mood and the indicative.

He will study if I require it. Thou wilt study if I give (""") thee a book. We shall go if the stage arrive in season. We shall leave town to-morrow unless it storm. I shall go without him unless he come soon. On condition that he come I will consent to his proposal. He will hold his argument, though he lose his reputation. He will gain admission if he pass the guard. He will punish his enemies though they despise his power.

If he desire it, I will perform the operation. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him. Though he excels her in knowledge, she exceeds in virtue. I will support him if he conduct honourably.

QUESTIONS.

How does the subjunctive mood express an action or event? How many tenses has it? What are they called? Does the present tense of the subjunctive mood differ from the present tense of the indicative? In what particular does it differ? Does it differ from the indicative in the imperfect tense? What are the signs of the perfect, pluperfect, first and second future tenses of the subjunctive mood? How is each tense formed? In what particular does the formation of the second future tense differ from that of the indicative? What conjunctions are used in forming the subjunctive mood?—Conjugate the verb study, through all the tenses of the subjunctive mood.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The Subjunctive Mood represents a thing under a condition, motive, wish, or supposition.
32 EXERCISES

VARIATIONS OF THE DEFINITIVE AND AUXILIARY VERBS.

The verb have varies both in the second and third persons. Must has no variation. Shall is also a definite verb, and has no variation. The other defective verbs vary only in the second person singular; thus,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>We, Ye or You, They</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>May, Might, Can, Could, Shall, Should, Will, Would, Have, Had, Hadst, Havest, Haste, Hast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayst</td>
<td>Mayst, Mightst, Canst, Couldst, Shalt, Shouldest, Wills, Wouldst, Haves, Haste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>Shalt, Shouldest, Wills, Wouldst, Haves, Haste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should</td>
<td>Shalt, Shouldest, Wills, Wouldst, Haves, Haste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will</td>
<td>Wills, Wouldst, Haves, Haste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would</td>
<td>Wouldst, Haves, Haste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have</td>
<td>Haves, Haste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has</td>
<td>Haste</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EXPLANATION OF THE DIAGRAM ON THE RIGHT HAND PAGE.

This Diagram is divided into four squares, to represent the four tenses of the Potential Mood. The 1st represents the present tense; the 2d, the imperfect; the 3d, the perfect; and the 4th, the pluperfect.

The signs of the present tense, are may and can, and their variations.

The present tense of the potential mood is formed by prefixing the sign may or can, to the verb (strike) as indicated by the line of reference connecting the former with the latter-forming the phrases—I may or can strike—May or can strike. He may or can strike, &c.

The signs of the imperfect tense are might, could, would, and should, and their variations.

The imperfect tense of the potential mood is formed by prefixing the sign might, could, would, or should, to the verb (strike) as is indicated by the line of reference connecting the former with the latter-forming the phrases—I might, could, would, or should—Might or could strike. He might, could, would, or should strike, &c.

The signs of the perfect tense, are may or can have, and their variations.

The perfect tense of the potential mood is formed by prefixing the signs may or can have, to the perfect participle (struck) as is indicated by the line of reference connecting the former with the latter-forming the phrases—I may or can have struck—May or can have struck. He may or can have struck, &c.

The signs of the pluperfect tense, are might, could, would, or should have, and their variations.

The pluperfect tense of the potential mood is formed by prefixing the signs might, could, would, or should have, to the perfect participle (struck) as is indicated by the line of reference connecting the former with the latter-forming the phrases—I might, could, would, or should have struck—Might or could strike, &c.

ETYMOLGY AND SYNTAX.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

The Potential Mood implies possibility, or liberty, power, will, or obligation. It has four tenses.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED.

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish, parse, and conjugate the several verbs, in the potential mood.

I may strike thee. Thou canst strike the man. He may strike the soldier. We can strike them again. Thou may strike him. They may strike the boys. I might strike them together. Thou couldst strike the soldier. We can strike them again. You may strike the man. He may strike the soldier. We can strike them again.

QUESTIONS.

How does the Potential Mood express an action or event?—What are the tenses of the potential mood?—What are the signs of the perfect tense?—How is the present tense of the potential mood formed?—What are the tenses of the imperfect tense?—How is it formed?—What are the signs of the perfect tense?—How is it formed?—Conjugate the verb strike through all the tenses of the potential mood.
EXERCISES IN

VARIATIONS OF THE DEFECTIVE AND AUXILIARY VERBS.

The Infinitive Mood expresses an action or event, in a general and unlimited manner, without regard to number, or person. It has but two tenses; viz. the present and the perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfect</th>
<th>Perfect Past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Go</td>
<td>Went</td>
<td>Gone</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To Have

Rule 13. The infinitive mood may be governed by a verb, noun, adjective, or participle.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,

In which it is required of the pupil, (in addition to the preceding exercises,) to distinguish, conjugate, and parse, the several verbs, in the infinitive mood, and to apply Rule 13.

He promised to go immediately. They intended to destroy their enemies. He ought to embrace the first opportunity. The boy ought to have studied grammar earlier. She expects to see her friends from the country. No person can expect to improve without application. We see many persons conduct themselves very foolishly. He will not let the people go. He made each man perform his duty. He saw the fleet enter the harbour. He began to figure to himself the miseries of confinement. She resolved to do good and to avoid evil, without regard to the opinions of men. I dare say he will arrive in season.

QUESTIONS.

How does the infinitive mood express an action or event? — How many tenses has it? — What are they called? — What is called the sign of the infinitive mood? — What are the signs of the perfect tense? — How is the present tense of the infinitive mood formed? — How is the perfect tense formed? — Is the sign to always prefixed to a verb in the infinitive mood? — When should it be omitted?

EXPLANATION OF THE DIAGRAM ON THE RIGHT HAND PAGE.

This Diagram is divided into two squares, to represent the tenses of the Infinitive Mood. The first square represents the present tense, which is formed by prefixing to, the sign of the infinitive mood, to the verb (go) as is indicated by the line of reference connecting the former with the latter, forming the phrase, to go.

The second square represents the perfect tense, which is formed by prefixing to have to the perfect participle (gone) as is indicated by the line of reference connecting the former with the latter, forming the phrase, to have gone.

When a verb in the infinitive mood follows made, need, see, bid, dare, feel, hear, let, say, know, have, observe, behold, perceive, or their participles, the sign to is omitted; as I made him do it. Exceptions. The sign To is sometimes employed after need, know, have, &c. as in the following examples, and some others.

* Vice is a monster of so frightful a mien, As to be hated needs but to be seen." — Pope.

"One needs no more than to observe how strongly we are touched by mere pictures." —The use of to after need is frequent among the best writers, especially, when there are any interesting words. Have, denoting possession or obligation, is generally followed by to; as, "I have to write daily." "I had to do this." When have implies volition, to is generally omitted; as, "Would they have us reject so good an offer?"

The infinitive mood is often made absolute, or used independently as the rest of the sentence, supplying the place of the conjunction that, with the potential mood; as, "To confess the truth, I was so faint!" "To begin with the first!" "To proceed!" "To conclude!" that is, "That I may confess," &c.
**EXERCISES IN**

**VARIATIONS OF THE DEFECTIVE AND AUXILIARY VERBS.**

Have varies both in the second and third persons. Must has no variation. Quoth is also a defective verb, and has no variation. The other defective verbs vary only in the second person singular; thus,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Thee,</th>
<th>Thou,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>Mayest</td>
<td>Mayed</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>We, Ye or You, They.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>Mayest</td>
<td>Mayed</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>We, Ye or You, They.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>Might</td>
<td>Mightest</td>
<td>Mighted</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>We, Ye or You, They.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>Mayest</td>
<td>Mayed</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>We, Ye or You, They.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thee</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>Mayest</td>
<td>Mayed</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>We, Ye or You, They.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXPLANATION OF THE DIAGRAM ON THE RIGHT HAND PAGE.**

The Diagrams representing the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Potential, and the Infinitive Moods, are subdivided to indicate the number of tenses in each mood; viz: that for the Indicative Mood, into six squares, to show that, that mood has six tenses; that for the Subjunctive, into the same number; that for the Potential into four; that for the Infinitive into two; but the Imperative, having but one tense, the Diagram representing it, remains entire.

As verbs vary for person and number, as well as for mood and tense, it has been thought more convenient and useful, to present the verb with reference only to its variations for person and number, and afterwards to indicate by means of the Diagrams, the distinctions of mood and tense.

By these remarks it is believed that any intelligent pupil will be enabled to conjugate readily and understandingly the following verbs—viz: Write, in the Indicative mood; Study, in the Subjunctive; Strike, in the Potential; Go, in the Infinitive; and March, in the Imperative. After which, he will be able to conjugate any other verb in the same manner, with facility and correctness.

In philosophical strictness, both number and person might be entirely excluded from every verb. They are in fact, the properties of nouns, not a part of the essence of a verb. Even the name of the Imperative Mood, does not always correspond to its nature; for it sometimes petitions as well as commands. But, with respect to these points, the practice of our grammarians is so uniformly fixed, and so analogous to the languages, ancient and modern, which our youth have to study, that it would be an unwarrantable degree of innovation, to deviate from the established terms and arrangements.

**ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.**

**IMPERATIVE MOOD.**

The Imperative Mood is used for commanding, exhorting, entrusting, or permitting. It has but one tense and one person; viz: the present tense, and the second person.

**EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,**

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish, conjugate, and parse the several verbs in the imperative mood.

*Study (" ) thy lesson. Study (" ) your lessons. Go (" ) to school in season. Depart (" ) from me immediately. Behave (" ) well if thou lovest virtue. Imitate (" ) thy superiors in wisdom. Love (" ) thy neighbour as thou lovest thyself. Waste (" ) not thy time. Omit (" ) no opportunity for improvement. Avoid (" ) sin, if you desire to escape temptation. He can write elegantly or I have mistaken his exercises. Let (" ) no man pretend to superior attainments unless he can fairly support his claims. He can excel me if he chooses. The man might have seen his friend if he had asked permission. Betray (" ) not thy friends. Render (" ) good things for evil (" ). Live (" ) properly that you may die cheerfully.*

**QUESTIONS.**

How is the Imperative Mood used?—How many Tenses has it?—Is the nominative to a verb in this mood generally expressed?—How many Moods are those?—How does each express an action or event?—How many Tenses has each mood?—Conjugate the verb study in the indicative, subjunctive, potential, infinitive and imperative moods, and tell how the tenses are formed in each.
38 EXERCISES IN REMARKS ON CONJUGATION.

Instead of the form of conjugation already given, which by way of distinction may be denominated the common, or simple form, we often prefix the neuter verb be, or am, (as an auxiliary) through all its moods and tenses, to the present participle; thus, I am writing—Thou art writing—He is writing, &c. This may be called the participial or simple form of conjugation.

When we mean to express ourselves with energy and positiveness, we prefix the verb do and its variations as auxiliaries, in forming the present and imperfect tenses to the verb; thus, I do write—Thou dost write—He does write, &c. This may be called the emphatic form.

EXAMPLES OF THE THREE FORMS OF CONJUGATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple Form</th>
<th>Participial Form</th>
<th>Emphatic Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PRESENT TENSE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singular Number</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I write,</td>
<td>I am writing,</td>
<td>I do write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou writest,</td>
<td>Thou art writing,</td>
<td>Thou dost write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He writes,</td>
<td>He is writing,</td>
<td>He does write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We write,</td>
<td>We are writing,</td>
<td>We do write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ye write,</td>
<td>Ye are writing,</td>
<td>Ye do write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They write,</td>
<td>They are writing,</td>
<td>They do write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural Number</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wrote,</td>
<td>I was writing,</td>
<td>I did write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou wrotest,</td>
<td>Thou wast writing,</td>
<td>Thou didst write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He wrote,</td>
<td>He was writing,</td>
<td>He did write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We wrote,</td>
<td>We were writing,</td>
<td>We did write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ye wrote,</td>
<td>Ye were writing,</td>
<td>Ye did write,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They wrote,</td>
<td>They were writing,</td>
<td>They did write,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Rule 14.** Verbs connected by conjunctions must be in the same mood and tense, and of the same form of conjugation.

**EXERCISES TO BE PARED.**

In which it is required of the pupil, (in addition to the preceding exercises) in parsing the verb, to distinguish the form of conjugation, point out the effect of the conjunctions, and apply Rule 14.

He did tell ( " ) his fault, and entreat me to forgive him. If thou sincerely desire, and really seek virtue, thou wilt find her. My friend is writing letters, and sending them abroad. He will succeed, and obtain his end. He rides or walks daily. They are pursuing their enemies, and destroying them with the sword.

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ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

A neuter verb expresses neither action, nor passion, but simply being, or a state of being.

CONJUGATION OF THE NEUTER VERB, BE (OR AM.)

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PRESENT TENSE.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am,</td>
<td>We are,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou art,</td>
<td>Ye or you are,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she or it is.</td>
<td>They are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPERFECT TENSE.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was,</td>
<td>We were,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou wast,</td>
<td>Ye or you were,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He was.</td>
<td>They were.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERFECT TENSE.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been,</td>
<td>We have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou hast been,</td>
<td>Ye or you have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He has been.</td>
<td>They have been.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLUPERFECT TENSE.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had been,</td>
<td>Ye or you had been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou hast had been,</td>
<td>They had been.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He had been.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FIRST FUTURE TENSE.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I shall or will be,</td>
<td>We shall or will be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou shalt or will be,</td>
<td>Ye or you shall or will be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He shall or will be.</td>
<td>They shall or will be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SECOND FUTURE TENSE.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I shall have been,</td>
<td>We shall have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou wilt have been,</td>
<td>Ye or you will have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He will have been.</td>
<td>They will have been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPLES.**

Present Being,—Perfect Been,—Compound Perfect Having been.
40 EXERCISES IN SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Indicative Form. Elliptical Form.

**PRESENT TENSE.**

Singular. If I am, If I be,
If thou art, If thou be;
If he is; If he be;

Plural. If we are, If we be;
If ye are, If ye be;
If they are, If they be.

**IMPERFECT TENSE.**

Singular. If I was, If I were,
If thou wast, If thou were;
If he was; If he were;

Plural. If we were, If we were,
If ye were, If ye were;
If they were, If they were.

The remaining tenses of this mood are conjugated like the corresponding tenses of the indicative mood, excepting, that will and wilt are not used in forming the second future tense.

**POTENTIAL MOOD.**

**PRESENT TENSE.**

Singular. I may or can be,
Thou mayst or canst be,
He may or can be;

Plural. We may or can be,
Ye or you may or can be;
They may or can be.

**IMPERFECT TENSE.**

Singular. I might, could, would, or should be,
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be,
He might, could, would, or should be;

Plural. We might, could, would, or should be,
Ye or you might, could, would, or should be,
They might, could, would, or should be;

**PERFECT TENSE.**

Singular. I may or can have been,
Thou mayst or canst have been,
He may or can have been;

Plural. We may or can have been,
Ye or you may or can have been,
They may or can have been.

**ETymology and Syntax.**

**PLUPERFECT TENSE.**

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

**INFINITIVE MOOD.**

**PRESENT tense, To be,**

**Perfect tense, To have been.**

**IMPERATIVE MOOD.**

Singular. Be thou, or do thou be,

Plural. Be ye or you, or do ye be.

**OF PASSIVE VERBS.** A Passive Verb expresses an action, done to its own nominative.

To form a passive verb, prefix be, am, art, is, are, was, were, wast, (wast,) or been, to the Perfect Participle of a transitive verb.

THE PASSIVE FORM OF THE VERB LOVE.

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**PRESENT TENSE.**

Singular. I am loved,
Thou art loved,
He is loved;

Plural. We are loved,
Ye or you are loved,
They are loved.

**IMPERFECT TENSE.**

Singular. I was loved,
Thou wast loved,
He was loved;

Plural. We were loved,
Ye or you were loved,
They were loved.

**QUESTIONS.**

How many forms of conjugation are there?—What are they called?—How is each formed?—(See page 38.) What is a neuter verb?—Conjugate the neuter verb Be or Am, through the several tenses of the Indicative, Subjunctive, Potential, Infinitive and Imperative Moods, and give its present, perfect, and compound perfect participles.
EXERCISES IN

PERFECT TENSE.

* Singular.
  
  I have been loved,
  Thou hast been loved,
  He hath, or has been loved;

* Plural.
  
  We have been loved,
  Ye or you have been loved,
  They have been loved.

PLEPÆRFEET TENSE.

* Singular.
  
  I had been loved,
  Thou hadst been loved,
  He had been loved;

* Plural.
  
  We had been loved,
  Ye or you had been loved,
  They had been loved.

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

* Singular.
  
  I shall or will be loved,
  Thou shalt or wilt be loved,
  He shall or will be loved;

* Plural.
  
  We shall or will be loved,
  Ye or you shall or will be loved,
  They shall or will be loved.

SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

* Singular.
  
  I shall have been loved,
  Thou wilt have been loved,
  He will have been loved;

* Plural.
  
  We shall have been loved,
  Ye or you will have been loved,
  They will have been loved.

The Nominative to an active verb denotes the doer of the action.

The Nominative to a neuter verb denotes merely the subject of the verb.

The Nominative to a passive verb denotes the sufferer, or receiver of the action.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish and parse the perfect participles, and to apply Rule 15.

The Captain found the ship considerably injured. He discovered a sailor badly wounded. They left the prison strongly guarded. He met a gentleman neatly dressed. We saw a man sorely afflicted. My neighbor purchased a house well furnished.

Rule 16. Intransitive, Passive, and Neuter Verbs take the same case after as before them, when both words signify the same person, or thing.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish and parse the nouns and pronouns in the nominative case after the several verbs, and to apply Rule 16.

Washington was a brave general, and an able statesman. This gentleman is my protector, and friend. Addison is a teacher of wisdom, and a faithful copier of life and manners. Death is the king of terrors. I know him to be my friend. *Who does he think that we are? She fell a victim to despair. She walks a goddess, and she moves a queen. Her name was called Penelope. Bonaparte was made emperor of France.

Rule 17. Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns, meaning the same thing, and having the same grammatical relation, are put by apposition in the same case.

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish the nouns and pronouns, in apposition, and to apply Rule 17.

Artaxerxes the king, decreed that Ezra, the priest and scribe of the law, should be obeyed in all things. Paul the apostle, was a preacher of righteousness. I paid the money to the merchant, him who bought your house.

*The indicative mood simply indicates or declares a thing, or asks a question.
Rule 18. A verb, having two or more nominative words connected by the copulative and, must be of the plural form.

**EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,**

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish the words connected by and, and, and parse the verb agreeing with them, to apply Rule 18.

Diligence and industry are material duties of the young. Wealth and titles are the gifts of fortune. Peace and contentment are the peculiar endowments of a well-disposed mind. Time and tide wait for no man, Quin the comedian was a great wit.

Rule 19. A verb, having two or more nominative words connected by the disjunctive or, or nor, must be of the singular form.

**EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,**

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish the words connected by or and nor, and to apply Rule 19.

The master or his servant is greatly in fault. Indolence or intemperance is the cause of his misfortune. He or she has done this mischief.

Rule 20. When a noun or pronoun has no verb to agree with it, but is placed before a participle, it is in the nominative case absolute.

**EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,**

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish, and parse the words, in the case absolute, and to apply Rule 20.

The business being finished, the court adjourned. The sun being risen, the day became fine. The orator having finished his discourse, the people retired. The winter being severe, the inhabitants suffered. Barlow, the book-seller, has published the Garland, a valuable work.

Rule 21. When a direct address is made to a person or thing, the noun or pronoun is in the nominative case independent.*

**EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,**

In which it is required of the pupil, (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish, and parse the words in the nominative case independent, and to apply Rule 21.

Plato, thou reasonest well! It must be so. Hail! wedded love, perpetual fountain of domestic sweets. Oh, stretch thy reign, fair Peace, from shore to shore. My son, go to thy repose. O Grave, where is thy victory! O Death, where is thy sting!

*All nouns in the second person are in the nominative case independent.

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**ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX**

Rule 22. The Infinitive Mood, or part of a sentence, is sometimes the subject of a verb, and therefore its nominative.

**EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED,**

In which it is required of the pupil (in addition to the preceding exercises) to distinguish, and parse the phrases that form the nominative in the infinitive words, and to apply Rule 22.

To err is human nature—to forgive, divine. To eat is pleasant, but to fast is wholesome. To be well acquainted with one's native language, is nothing to boast of; but not to be well acquainted with it, is a disgrace.

When the participle of the weaker verb Rx, preceded by a transitive verb, or a preposition, is accompanied by a noun, adjective, or adverb, it frequently makes part of a substantive phrase, and the whole phrase is in the objective case, and governed by the preceding transitive verb, or the preposition.

**EXAMPLES.** An Indian will resent his being denied the use of his musket. The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall neither attempt to palliate or deny.

**OF ELLIPSIS.**

The omission of any words necessary to the grammatical construction of a sentence, is called **Ellipsis**; as, I beg you will come; for, I beg that you will come; I rose at seven; for, I rose at seven of the clock. The principal design of ellipsis is to avoid repetitions, and to express our ideas in few words. Almost all compound sentences are more or less elliptical; it is, therefore, very necessary to attend to this figure, or mode of expression.

**EXAMPLES,**

Wherein the method of supplying the words that are implied, and of analyzing sentences, is pointed out.

**ELLIPSIS OF THE NOUN.**

*She is a good-natured, diligent, well-behaved girl; instead of, She is a good-natured (girl, and a) diligent (girl, and a) well-behaved girl.*

**ELLIPSIS OF THE ADJECTIVE.**

*Much rain and snow; i.e. Much rain and (much) snow. A delightful garden and orchard; i.e. A delightful garden and (a delightful) orchard.*

**ELLIPSIS OF THE ARTICLE.**

*A man, woman and child; i.e. A man, (a) woman, and (a) child.*

**ELLIPSIS OF THE VERB.**

*I desire to hear and to learn; i.e. I desire to hear, and I desire to learn.*

She was young, and beautiful, and good; i.e. She was young, and (she was) beautiful, and (she was) good.
ELLIPSIS OF THE ADVERB.

They sing and play most delightfully; i. e. They sing (most delightfully,) and (they) play most delightfully. She reads and writes well; i. e. She reads (well,) and (she) writes well.

ELLIPSIS OF THE PERSONAL AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

I love and fear him; i. e. I love (him,) and (I) fear him. I have read the book you lent me; i. e. I have read the book (which) you lent me. This is the man they love; i. e. This is the man (whom) they love.

ELLIPSIS OF THE CONJUNCTION.

I desire you will be good; i. e. I desire (that) you will be good.

ELLIPSIS OF THE PREPOSITION.

I gave them to your brother and sister; i. e. I gave them to your brother, and (to your) sister.

ELLIPSIS OF THE INTERJECTION.

Oh! pity and shame; i. e. Oh, pity! Oh, shame!

ELLIPSIS OF A PART OF A SENTENCE.

Nature has given to animals one time to act, another to rest: i. e. Nature has given to animals one time to act (and nature has given to animate another (time) to rest.

"There is nothing men are more deficient in, than knowing their own characters."

There is nothing (in which) men are more deficient, than (in) knowing their own characters.

The following instances, though short, contain much of the ellipsis:—

"Wo is me!" i. e. "Woe is to me." To let blood; i. e. "To let eat blood." To let down; i. e. "To let it fall or slide down." To walk a mile; i. e. "To walk through the space of a mile." To sleep all night; i. e. "To sleep through all the night." To go a fishing; i. e. "To go a hunting." To go on a fishing voyage or business,—"To go on a hunting party." I dine at two o'clock; i. e. "at two of the clock." By sea, by land, on shore; i. e. "By the sea, by the land, on the shore."

The examples that follow are produced to show the impropriety of ellipsis, in some particular cases. "The land was always possessed, during pleasure, by those entrusted with the command; it should be, "those persons intrusted;" or "those who were entrusted." "If he had read further, he would have found several of his objections might have been spared;" that is, "he would have found that several of his objections," &c. "I scarcely know any part of natural philosophy would yield more variety and use;" it should be, "which would yield," &c. "In the temper of mind he was then," i. e. "in which he then was." "The little satisfaction and consistency, to be found in most of the systems of divinity I have met with, made me betake myself to the sole reading of the scriptures;" it ought to be, "which are to be found," and "which I have met with." "He desired they might go to the altar together, and jointly return their thanks to whom only they were due;" i. e. "to him to whom," &c.

OF TRANSPOSITION, OR INVERSION.

There are two kinds of style—the natural, and the inverted, or transposed.

A natural style is that in which the order of the words corresponds with the natural order of the ideas that compose the thoughts, or to speak more clearly, that in which the words succeed each other in their natural order.

An inverted or transposed style is that in which the words are thrown out of their natural order, for the sake of some superior beauty; but it is seldom of advantage to invert the style, except in poetry.

EXAMPLES.

"Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring Of wees unnumbered, heavenly goddess sing."  

Natural Order. Heavenly goddess! sing the wrath of Achilles, the direful spring of unnumbered woes to Greece.

"No bounds can restrain the Almighty's glory can restrain, Nor time's dimensions terminate his reign; At his reproof convulsive nature shakes, And shivering earth from its foundation quakes."  

Natural Order. No bounds can restrain the glory of the Almighty, nor can the dimensions of time terminate his reign; convulsive nature shakes at his reproof, and shivering earth quakes from its foundation.

"Men in adversity most plain appear, It shows us really what, and who they are; Then from their lips truth undissembled flows, The mask falls off, and the just features shows."  

Natural Order. Men appear most plain in adversity, it shows us really what (they are) and who they are; then, undissembled truth flows from their lips, the mask falls off, and shows the just features.
EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

Although a verb in the Infinitive Mood, is generally connected with a finite verb, yet, it may follow a Noun, Adjective, Participle, or almost any other part of speech.

EXAMPLES.

"I am about to give you a few examples, by way of illustration."

"He is old enough to know better, than to spend his time in mannerly.

"He is anxious to secure the election of that candidate, because he knows him to be well qualified to fulfill the duties of the office."

"Endeavouring to persuade us, he became quite warm in his argument."

The definite article is frequently applied to adverbs of the comparative and superlative degrees, to mark the degrees more strongly.

EXAMPLES.

The more you study the faster you will learn. The sooner you go, the sooner you will return.

The Indefinite article refers to a plural noun, when few, or the words great and many immediately precede the noun: as, a few trees—a great many houses.

A FEW INSTANCES OF THE SAME WORDS CONSTITUTING SEVERAL OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

CALM.

Calm was the day, and the scene delightful.

We may expect a calm after a storm.

To prevent passion, is easier than to calm it.

LITTLE.

Better is a little with content, than a great deal with anxiety.

A little attention will rectify some errors.

The gay and dissolute think little of the miseries which are stealing softly after them.

STILL.

Though he is out of danger, he is still afraid.

He labored to still the tumult.

Still waters are commonly deepest.

DAMP.

Damp air is unwholesome.

*An adjective with the definite article before it, becomes a noun, (of the third person, plural number,) and must be parsed as such.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

MORE.

His years are more than hers; but he has not more knowledge.

The more we are blessed, the more grateful we should be.

The desire of getting more, is rarely satisfied.

INFERIOR AND EQUAL.

He has equal knowledge, but inferior judgment.

She is his inferior in sense, but his equal in prudence.

LIKE.

Every being loves its like.

We must make a like space between the lines.

Behave like men.

We are too apt to like pernicious company.

He may go or stay, as he likes.

TO.

They strive to learn.

He goes to and fro.

To his wisdom we owe our privilege.

The proportion is ten to one.

UTMOST.

He has served them with his utmost ability.

When we do our utmost, no more is required.

FOR.

I will submit, for I know that submission brings peace.

It is for our health to be temperate.

Oh! for better times.

I have a regard for him.

BOTH.

He is esteemed both on his own account, and on account of his parents.

Both of them deserve praise.

YESTERDAY.

Yesterday was a fine day.

I rode out yesterday.

TO-MORROW.

To-morrow may be brighter than to-day.

I shall write to-morrow.

HAIL.

We hail you as friends.

Hail virtue: source of every good.

The hail was very destructive.

THAT.

An eclipse of the sun took place on that day.

Why is our language less refined than that of France?

I hope that we shall arrive in season.

He is the most generous person that ever lived.

SINCE.

I have not seen him since that time.

I have seen your friend since I saw you.

Let us return since the affair cannot be settled.

AS.

As he passed along his ears were delighted with the morning song of the birds of Paradise.

As many as arrived in season, embarked free of expense.

Such as believe shall be saved, &c.

We left them as we found them.

We will take the oath as soon as he arrives.

BUT.

The path of glory leads but to the grave.

She is handsome, but she is not amiable.

They asked nothing but their liberty.

THAN.

Man wants no more than may suffice.

He is no more respected than his predecessor.

WHAT.

What was his conduct in his predecessor's place here at home?

What man is so hardened as to defy these facts.

*Two, or more words, used to show the manner, time, or place, in which an action is performed, are called an Adverbial phrase.

†When "that" is used for a noun, it is a demonstrative pronoun.

‡As, when it follows such, and frequently when it follows both and many, becomes a relative pronoun.
What wise men are our councilors! What! are you here, already! He extols what* he sees. What though in silence all move round this dark terre-trial ball, &c. I will try what virtue there is in stones. Come, I'll tell thee what — She knows not what colors are in fashion. What with hunger and what with fatigue, he was overcome.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

I would rather be myself† the slave and wear the chains, than fasten them on him. Rex and Tyranus are of very different characters. One rules his people by laws to which they consent; the other, by his absolute will and power, that is called freedom, this, tyranny. He was laughed at by his companions, and talked of by all who knew him. He rose and rebuked the winds, and said unto the sea, peace, peace, still. I will give you a solution of the dice, his family suffered. The plank is one inch too thick. I wish to have the servant come hither. Give us this day our daily bread. What do people say it is? They were spoken to respecting that subject. They cried away with him! Mine is by yours — Desire, not reason, will be the ruling principle of our conduct. He has gone a hunting, and he will return. The man being dismissed from office. Common, and, and it: Why make ye this ado? the damsel is not dead but sleepeth. Who do men say that I am? Ye are one another's joy. Be ye helpers of one another. To live long, ought not to be your favorite wish, so much as to live well. The weather is much too warm for comfort.

*What is a compound pronoun, including both the antecedent and the relative, and is equivalent to that and which — He extols that which he sees. That is a demonstrative pronoun, of the third person, singular number, in the objective case, and is governed by extols. Which is a relative pronoun, of the third person, singular number, in the objective case, and is governed by sees (agreeing with that for its antecedent.)
†The words myself, himself, ourselves, themselves, &c. are called compound personal pronouns.

When the words some, one, any, other, all, such, are not prefixed to nouns, expressed or understood, they are called indefinite pronouns.

When the words this, that, these, those, former and latter, stand for nouns, they are demonstrative pronouns.

What sculpture is to a block of marble, education is to the human soul. If thine enemy be hungry, give him bread to eat; if he be thirsty, give him water to drink. One danced, another ran to any fro. Sitting is the best posture for deliberation; standing for persuasion. A judge, therefore, should speak sitting; a pleader, standing. What is the bigot's torch, the tyrant's chain? Fathers! Senators of Rome! the Arbiters of nations! to you I fly for refuge. I do not care a sixpence whether he is wet or dry. On the second night he dreamed a dream. The ship is arrived and her cargo.

AGE.

The minds of the aged are like the tombs to which they are approaching; where though the brass and the marble remain, yet the inscriptions are effaced by time, and the imagery has mouldered away.

TRUE HONOR.

Would you not think it an honor to be employed by God in creating a world? Would you not think it an honor to be employed by him in preserving and governing a world? But greater, far greater is the honor of being employed as a co-worker with God in saving a world. This honor have all his saints. This honor we are invited to share.

SCRIPTURE.

From the antiquity of our translation of the Bible, there is often a quaintness in its expressions, and their introduction may give a point to some satirical remark, or furnish a striking form for some sally of wit. But we should beware. Scripture is a pure stream, flowing forth from the throne of God, and it should never be made to reflect the fantastic imagery of human folly.

THOUGHT.

What is thought? It is an emanation from Deity. It is at once, the fear and joy of youth,—the solace of retirement—the companion of age,—and the telegraph of worlds. Though its first dawning in the infant mind, is faint and uncertain, yet like the rays that gild the early morn, or the first flashes of the young borealis, it gives promise of coming brightness. Subtle in its essence, mysterious and uncontrollable in its flight,—it rises from the minutest object and encircles empires. Again it rises,—expands—and wings its silent, rapid way, from star to star—from sun to sun;—still rising—still expanding, it reaches the court of Heaven—the throne of God—and embraces the Universe.

J. Dow.
INTERFERENCE.

As to the vice of intemperance—its disgusting effects upon the body—its ruinous consequences to the health—its degrading and brutalizing influence upon the mind and character—it is a danger to society as the fruitful parent of every crime—its mischief to the public as the chief and almost only source of mendicancy and pauperism—its pest to domestic life—the individual and secret wretchedness it inflicts—and the still greater, which are threatened against it in the scriptures of God—there can be—and there is—but one correction. 

Nichols's Add.

LANGUAGE.

And what is language? Language is the power
Whereby, as with the arrowy light of Him,
The broad brave sun that flashes through the sky
Uninterrupted glory, Thought goes forth,
From mind to mind, flash after flash, forever:
At first a little fountain bubbled up,
Within the desert or the wilderness,
The outlet to a name of wealth—of power,
Ten thousand times more precious than the earth,
Glittering with diamonds or charged with ore
That man, short-sighted man, would perish for—
A treasury of thought and speech: anon,
It filtered forth and rolled away a brook—
A streamlet then—a river—then a sea—
Behold it now! It overspreads the earth.

Still, what is language? Wouldst thou know in truth?
Forsake thy native land; go forth alone,
"All, all alone," where thy dear mother-tongue
Would not avail thee, though thy lips were parched
With mortal fever, though thy heart were wrung
With mortal anguish; put forth all thy power,
By signs and looks, drop tears and utter cries,
And see how very helpless man may be,
The mightiest man that sways it over the earth,
For want of language. Art thou answered now?

Still, what is language? Language is the power
The everlasting, omnipresent power,
Whereby man holds communion with his God,—
Whereby he does imperishable things:
By it mankind perpetrate their strength,
Their wisdom and their virtue, ye, and all
Their mighty fathers ever thought or did,
Or ever knew; by pouring forth for aye,
Into the stream of knowledge, flowing on
Forever and forever, all that they
Have had bequeathed them here, and all that they
Would leave to others—all that they have known
By language only, that mysterious power,
Which cannot be described but by itself,
So like it is to Deity.

NEAT.

OF THE IMPROPER USE OF WORDS AND PHRASES.

The phrases more perfect and most perfect, are improper; because perfection admits of no degrees of comparison. We may say nearer or nearest to perfection, or more or less imperfect.

When the comparative degree of an adjective is used, the latter term of comparison should not include the former. It is therefore improper to say "the scriptures are more valuable than any writings," we should say, "than any other writings."
When the superlative degree of an adjective is used, the latter term of comparison should never exclude the former. Therefore, instead of saying "profane swearing is, of all vices the most excusable; we should say, "of all vices," &c.

Further applies to place and distance; and further to quantity or addition.

Later and latter cannot be used indifferently with propriety; latter refers to place; later respects time only.

The phrase "seldom or ever," is improper; we should either say, "seldom if ever" or "seldom or never."

I had rather, is often improperly used, instead of "I would rather."

To lay (to place) in the present tense, is properly written lay, in the imperfect laid; the perfect participle is also laid. To lie (down) is lie in the present tense, lay in the imperfect, and lain in the perfect participle. Lie is conjugated regularly when it means to tell a falsehood; as "he lied"—"he has lied."

Set is an intransitive verb in some senses, which makes it proper to say, "To set out on a journey; to set up in business; the sun sets, and fair weather has set in."

The following are examples of mistakes in the use of the transitive verbs lay and set; and of the intransitive verbs lie and sit, with the correction after each.

- "He lays in bed too long"—(lies.)—"I have a work laying by me"—(being.)—"Go and lay down"—(lie.)—"I laid and slept an hour"—(lay.)—"I was laying on the grass"—(being.)—"He has laid there a long time"—(lain.)—"He has lain himself down to rest"—(lain.)

- "Let me set down"—(sit.)—"I afterwards went and set down"—(sat.)—"He sat himself down"—(sat.)—"The hen is setting on her eggs"—(sitting.)—"The wind sits in the east"—(sits.)

The verb to learn, is never used transitively, except when it has for its subject the person who obtains the knowledge, or information, and for its object the knowledge, or information obtained. It is proper to say, "I am learning grammar," but improper to say, "the master learns me grammar," instead of teaches me; or "learn me to do that," instead of teach me.

Etymology, which means the repeating of a word, or an idea that has been fully expressed before, is a frequent error in composition.

The verb to return, signifies to go, or come back; go, or come again; yet, we sometimes hear, and read the phrases, return back—and return again—and even return back again.

To converse means to talk together, therefore it is wrong to say "they are conversing together."

To fall includes the idea of down, as to rise does that of up; for we cannot say to fall up, or to rise down. It is therefore improper, because it is unnecessary, to say fall down, or rise up.

The adjective mutual, includes the meaning of the words, each other, or one another; therefore it is wrong to say, "They bear a mutual likeness to each other."
ETYMOLOGY.

In case any teacher who may use this work, should not have sufficient leisure verbally to illustrate to his pupils, the rules and definitions given in the preceding exercises in Etymology and Syntax, or, in case his pupils should be too young fully to understand such illustration when given, the compiler would recommend, that they be required to commence the subject by getting in distinct and successive portions, the answers to the questions on Etymology, at the bottom of the following pages. This will enable them understandingly to enter upon the exercises in Etymology and Syntax, and with a little aid from their teacher, to make rapid improvement in the business of parsing, &c.

The number prefixed to each question corresponds to the number given in the portion of matter designed for the answer.

Etymology (1) treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivations.

Etymology is compounded of two Greek words, which signify origin and word. It means literally the derivation of a word from its original.

There (2) are, in English, ten sorts of words, or, as they are commonly called, parts of speech; namely, the Noun, the Adjective, the Article, the Verb, the Participle, the Adverb, the Pronoun, the Conjunction, the Preposition, and the Interjection.

OF NOUNS.

A Noun (3) is the name of anything that we can see, taste, hear, smell, feel, or conceive of; as, man, wine, virtue.

The word Noun, is derived from the Latin word nomen, which signifies a name.

Nouns are (4) divided into proper and common.

Proper (5) nouns are the names appropriated to individuals; as, George, London, Thames.

Common (6) nouns stand for a whole species, class or kind, whether the class consists of one, or more individuals; as, animal, man, tree, &c.

The General is the Washington of the age.

When (7) proper nouns or names, have an article prefixed to them, they are used as common names; as, "He is the Cicero of his age;" "He is reading the lives of the Twelve Caesars."

QUESTIONS.

(1) What does Etymology treat of?—(2) How many sorts of words are there?—(3) What is a noun?—(4) How are nouns divided?—(5) What is a proper noun?—(6) What do common nouns stand for?—(7) When proper nouns have an article prefixed, how are they used?
ETYMOLOGY.

Nouns (1) ending in *f* or *fs* are rendered plural by the change of those terminations into *s*; as, loaf, loaves; half, halves; wife, wives; except grief, griefs, proof, and several others, which form the plural by the addition of *a*. Those which end in *ff* have the regular plural: as, ruff, ruffs; except stuff, staves.

Nouns (2) which have *y* in the singular, with no other vowel in the same syllable, change it into *ie* in the plural: as, beauty, beauties; fly, flies. But the *y* is not changed, when there is another vowel in the syllable: as, key, keys; delay, delays; attorney, attorneys.

Some (3) nouns become plural by changing the *a* of the singular into *e*; as, man, men; woman, women; alderman, aldermen. The words, ox and (4) child, form oxen and children; brother, makes either brothers, or brethren. Sometimes (5) the diphthong *oa* is changed into *ee* in the plural: as, foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth.

Louise and mouse make lice and mice. Penny makes pence, or pennies when the coin is meant; die, (for play;) die, dies (for coining.)

It is agreeable (6) to analogy, and the practice of the generality of correct writers, to construe the following words as plural nouns: pains, riches, alms; and also, mathematics, metaphysics, politics, ethics, optics, pneumatic, with other similar names of sciences.

The word (7) noun is now almost universally considered as belonging to the singular number.

The (8) noun nouns is used both in the singular and the plural number.

The following words, which have been adopted from the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages, are thus distinguished, with respect to number.

**Singular.**

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**Questions.**

(1) How are nouns ending in *f* or *fs* rendered plural? (2) How do nouns ending in *y* in the singular, form their plurals? (3) What nouns form their plurals by changing a *u* into *i*? (4) How is the plural of the words, child, ox, and brother, formed? (5) What nouns form their plurals by changing the diphthong into *e*? (6) How are the nouns, pains, riches, alms, mathematics, etc., construed? (7) Of what number is *a* used? (8) Of what number is *ee* used? (9) What is the plural of *Cherub*? (10) Repeat the plural of each word in the table of Greek and Latin words.

*Genti,* when denoting aerial spirits; *Genii,* when signifying persons of genius.

*Indices,* when it signifies pointers, or tables of contents. *Indices* when referring to algebraic quantities.

The English language contains in all about forty thousand words.

Common (1) names may also be used to signify individuals, by the addition of articles or pronouns: as, "The boy is studious; that girl is discreet."*

Nouns (2) have four properties; namely, Person, Number, Gender, and Case.

Of Person.

Person (3) is that quality of the noun, (or pronoun) which modifies the verb.

There are (4) three persons; namely, the First, Second, and Third. The (5) first person denotes the speaker—the second, the person spoken to—and the third, the person, or the thing spoken of.

Of Number.

Number (6) is the consideration of an object, as one or more.

Nouns (7) are of two numbers, the singular and the plural.

The (8) singular number expresses but one object; as, a chair, a table.

The (9) plural number signifies more objects than one; as, chairs, tables.

Some (10) nouns, from the nature of the things which they express, are used only in the singular form: as, wheat, pitch, gold, sloth, pride, &c.; others, only in the plural form: as, (11) bellows, scissors, lungs, riches, &c.

Some (12) words are the same in both numbers: as, deer, sheep, swine, &c.

The (13) plural number of nouns is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular: as, dove, doves; face, faces; thought, thoughts. But (14) when the noun singular ends in *x, ch, soft, sh, ss, or s, we add *es* in the plural: as, box, boxes; church, churches; lash, lashes; kiss, kisses; rebus, rebusses.

If the singular (15) ends in *ch* hard, the plural is formed by adding *s*: as, monarch, monarchs; distich, distichs.

Nouns (16) which end in *a* have sometimes, *es* added to the plural: as, cargo, echo, hero, negro, manifesto, potato, volcano, wo; and sometimes only *s*: as, folks, nuncio, punctilio, seraglio.

*Notes may also be divided into the following classes: Collective nouns, or nouns of multitude; as, the people, the parliament, the army; Abstract nouns, or the names of qualities abstracted from their substances; as, knowledge, goodness, whiteness; Verbal or participial nouns; as, beginning, reading, writing.*

The English language contains in all about forty thousand words.
ETYMOLOGY.

Aecanum, Arcana, Stamen, Stamina
Axis, Axes, Stratum, Strata
Calx, Calces, Vortex, Vortices

Some words, derived from learned languages, are confined to the plural number; as, (1) antipodes, credenda, literati, minutiae.

The following (2) nouns being in Latin, both singular and plural are used in the same manner when adopted into our tongue; hiatus, apparatus, series, species.

Of Gender.

Gender (3) is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex. (4) There are three genders, the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter.

The (5) Masculine Gender denotes animals of the male kind: as, a man, a horse, a bull.

The Feminine Gender signifies animals of the female kind: as, a woman, a duck, a hen.

The Neuter Gender denotes objects which are neither males nor females: as, a field, a house, a garden.

Some (6) nouns naturally neuter, are, by a figure of speech, converted into the masculine or feminine gender: as, when we say of the sun, he is setting; and of a ship, she sails well.

Some (7) English language has three methods of distinguishing the sex, viz:

1. By different words; as,
   - Male: Bachelor, Maid, Male
   - Female: Female

2. By a difference of termination: as,
   - Male: Bachelor, Abbess, Abbot, Actress, Administrator, Adulterer, Ambassador, Arbitrress, Baron, Benefactor
   - Female: Maid, Abbess, Abbot, Actress, Administrator, Adulterer, Ambassador, Arbitrress, Baron, Benefactor

3. By a noun, pronoun, or adjective, being prefixed to the noun; as,
   - A cock-sparrow, A hen-sparrow
   - A man-servant, A maid-servant
   - A he-goat, A she-goat
   - A he-bear, A she-bear
   - A male child, A female child
   - Male descendants, Female descendants

It sometimes happens that the same noun is either masculine or feminine. (1) The words parent, child, cousin, friend, neighbor, servant, and several others, are used indifferently for males or females.

Of Case.

Case (2) is the condition or situation of the noun, in relation to other words in a sentence.

In English, (3) nouns have three cases, the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

The nominative (4) case simply expresses the name of a thing, or the subject of a verb; as, "The boy plays;" "The girls learn.

The possessive case expresses the relation of property or possession; and has an apostrophe with the letter s coming after it; as, "The scholar's duty;" "My father's house.

When (5) the plural ends in s, the other s is omitted, but the apostrophe is retained; as, "On eagles' wings;" "The drapers' company.

Sometimes (6) also, when the singular terminates in s, the apostrophe is not added; as, "For goodness' sake;" "For righteousness' sake.

The (7) objective case expresses the object of an action, or of a relation; and generally follows a verb active, or a preposition; as, "John assists Charles;" "They live in London.

Nouns (8) are declined in the following manner:

Singular.
- Nom. Case: A mother, A father's, A mother's, A father's
- Pos. Case: The man, The man's, The man's

Plural.
- Nom. Case: Mothers, Mothers'
- Pos. Case: The men, The men's, The men's

QUESTIONS.

1. Of what number are antipodes, credenda, literati, and minutiae considered?—(2) How are hiatus, apparatus, series, species used?—(3) What is Gender?—(4) How many genders are there?—(5) Give the definition of each?—(6) Are nouns naturally neuter made of the masculine or feminine gender?—(7) How many methods are there, in English, to distinguish the sex?—(8) Give examples of each.

*The possessive is sometimes called the genitive case; and the objective, the accusative.
ETYMOLOGY.

OF ADJECTIVES.

An Adjective (1) is a word added to a noun, or a pronoun, to express some quality, or circumstance of the thing for which the noun or pronoun stands; as, "An industrious man;" "A virtuous woman;" "He is good."

In English, (2) the adjective is not varied on account of gender, number, or case. Thus we say, "A careless boy; careless girls."

The only variation (3) which it admits, is that of the degrees of comparison.

There are (4) commonly reckoned three degrees of comparison; the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

The Positive State (5) expresses the quality of an object, without any increase or diminution; as, good, wise, great.

The Comparative Degree (6) increases or lessens the positive in the highest or lowest degree; as, wiser, greater, least wise.

The Superlative Degree (7) increases or lessens the positive to the highest or lowest degree; as, wisest, greatest, least wise.

The simple word, (8) or positive, becomes the comparative, by adding r or er; and the superlative, by adding st, or est, to the end of it; as, wise, wiser, wisest; great, greater, greatest. And the adverbs more and most, placed before the adjective, have the same effect; as, wise, more wise, most wise.

The termination (9) isth, may be accounted in some sort a degree of comparison, by which the constitution is diminished below the positive; as, black, blackish, or tending to blackness; salt, saltish, or having a little taste of salt.

The word rather (10) is very properly used to express a small degree or excess of a quality; as, "She is rather profuse in her expenses.""MONOSYLLABLES, (11) for the most part, are compared by er and est; and dissyllables by more and most; as, mild, milder, mildest; frugal, more frugal, most frugal. Dissyllables ending in y; as, happy, lovely; and in ie after a mute, as, able, ample; or accented on the last syllable, as, discreet, polite; easily admit of er and est; as, happier, happiest; able, ablest; polite, politest. Words of more than two syllables hardly ever admit of those terminations.

In some words, (12) the superlative is formed by adding the adverb most to the end of them; as, nethermost, uttermost, or utmost, underneath, uppermost, foremost.

In English, as in most languages, there are some words of very common use, (in which the caprice of custom is apt to get the better of analogy,) that are irregular in this respect; as, (13) good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little, less, least; much or many, more, most; near, nearer, nearest or next; late, later, latest or last; old, older, oldest or eldest; and a few others.

An adjective (1) put without a noun, with the definite article before it, becomes a noun in sense and meaning, and is written as a noun; as, "A virtuous man;" "Provide the good, and punishes the bad."

Various nouns (2) placed before other nouns assume the nature of adjectives; as, sea fish, wine vessel, corn field, meadow ground, &c.

Numerals adjectives (3) are either cardinal, or ordinal; cardinal, as, one, two, three, &c.; ordinal, as, first, second, third, &c.\n
OF ARTICLES.

An Article (4) is a word prefixed to nouns, and pronouns, to limit their signification.

Articles are so called from the Latin word articulns, signifying a joint, or a very small part.

In English (5) there are but two articles, a and the; a becomes an when the following word begins with a vowel sound; as, an acorn, an hour. But when the following word begins with a consonant sound, a is used; as, a hand, a heart, a highway.

A or an (6) is styled the indefinite article; it is used in a vague sense, to point out one single thing of the kind, in other respects indeterminate; as, "Give me a book;" "Bring me an apple."

The indefinite article is called the (7) because it is used to signify what particular thing or things are meant; as, "Give me the book;" "Bring me the apples;" meaning some book, or apples, referred to.

A noun without any article to limit it is, generally taken in its widest sense; as, "A candid temper is proper for man;" that is, for all mankind.

The peculiar use and importance of the articles will be seen in the following examples: "The son of a king—the son of the king." Each of these three phrases has an entirely different meaning, through the different application of the articles a and the.

The article (8) is omitted before nouns that imply the different virtues, vices, passions, qualities, sciences, arts, metals, herbs, &c.; as, "Prudence is commendable; falsehood is odious; anger ought to be avoided;" &c. It is not prefixed to a proper name; as, "Alexander," (because that of itself denotes a determinate individual or particular thing,) except for the sake of distinguishing a particular family; as, "He is a Howard, or of the family of the Howards," or by way of eminence; as, "Every man is not a Newton;" "He has the courage of an Achilles," or when some noun is understood; "He sailed down the (river) Thames, in the (ship) Britannia."

The indefinite (9) article can be joined to nouns in the singular number only; (10) the definite article may be joined to plurals as well as singulars.

QUESTIONS.

(1) How is an adjective without the definite article used? (2) Do nouns become adjectives? (3) How are numerals adjectives divided? (4) What is an article? (5) How many articles are there? (6) Which is styled the indefinite article? (7) Which is called the definite article? (8) Before what class of nouns are the articles omitted? (9) How is the indefinite article used? (10) How is the definite used?
ETYMOLOGY.

But there (1) appears to be a remarkable exception to this rule, in the use of the adjectives few and many, (the latter chiefly with the word great before it,) which, though joined with plural nouns, yet admit of the singular article a; as, a few men; a great many men.

The reason of it is manifest, from the effect which the article has in these phrases; it means a small or great number collectively taken, and therefore gives the idea of a whole, that is, of unity. Thus likewise, a dozen, a score, a hundred, or a thousand, is one whole number, an aggregate of many collectively taken; and therefore still retains the article a, though joined as an adjective to a plural substantive; as, a hundred years, &c.

The indefinite article is sometimes placed between the adjective many, and a singular noun; as,

"Full many a gem of purest ray serene,

The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;

Full many a flower's born to blush unseen,

And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

In these lines, the phrases, many a gem and many a flower, refer to many gems and many flowers, separately, not collectively considered.

The definite (2) article the is frequently applied to adverbs in the comparative and superlative degree; and its (3) effect is to mark the degree more strongly, and to define it more precisely; as, "The more I examine it, the better I like it. I like this the least of any."

OF VERBS.

A Verb (4) is a word which signifies action, being, or suffering.

Verb is derived from the Latin verbum, which signifies a word.

Verbs (5) are divided into three sorts, namely, Active, Neuter, and Passive.

Active verbs are also divided into Transitive, and Intransitive.

An active verb (6) expresses an action which affects an object; as, "The teacher instructs his pupil."

An intransitive verb (7) expresses an action confined to the actor; as, "The bird flies swiftly."

A passive verb (8) expresses neither action nor passion, but being, or a state of being.

A passive verb (9) expresses a passion or a suffering, or the receiving of an action.—(See page 41.)

QUESTIONS.

(1) What exceptions are there to this rule?—(2) Is the definite article ever applied to adverbs?—(3) What is its effect?—(4) What is a Verb?—(5) Into how many sorts are verbs divided?—(6) What does a transitive verb express?—(7) What does an intransitive verb express?—(8) What does a passive verb express?—(9) What does a passive verb express?—(10) What is the imperative mood used for?—(11) What is the subjunctive mood?


The Present Tense (3) represents an action or event as passing at the time in which it is mentioned; as, "I rule; I am ruled; I think; I fear."

The Present Tense likewise expresses a character, quality, &c. at present existing; as, "He is an able man." "She is an amiable woman." It is also used in speaking of actions continued, with occasional intermissions, to the present time; as, "He frequently rides." "He walks out every morning." "He goes into the country every summer." We sometimes apply this tense even to persons long since dead; as, "Seneca reasons and moralizes well." "Job speaks feelingly of his afflictions."

The Present Tense, preceded by the words, when, before, after, as soon as, &c. is sometimes used to point out the relevent time of a future action; as, "When he arrives he will hear the news." "He will hear the news before he arrives, or as soon as he arrives, or, at farthest, soon after he arrives;" "The more she improves, the more amiable she will be."

In animated historical narrations, this tense is sometimes substituted for the imperfect tense; as, "He enters the territory of the peaceable inhabitants; he fights and conquers, takes an immense booty, which he divides amongst his soldiers, and returns home to enjoy an empty triumph."

The Imperfect Tense (3) represents the action or event, either as past and finished, or as remaining unfinished at a certain time past; as, "I loved her for her modesty and virtue." "They were travelling past when he met them."

The Perfect Tense (4) not only refers to what is past, but also conveys an allusion to the present time; as, "I have finished my letter." "I have seen the person that was recommended to me." The perfect tense, and the imperfect tense, both denote a thing that is past; but the former denotes it in such a manner that there is actually remaining some part of the time to slide away, wherein we declare the thing has been done; whereas the imperfect denotes the thing or action past, in such a manner, that nothing remains of the time in which it was done. If we speak of the present century, we say, "Philosophers have made great discoveries in the present century;" but if we speak of the last century, we say, "Philosophers made great discoveries in the last century."

The Pluperfect (5) Tense represents a thing, not only as past, but also as prior to some other point of time specified in the sentence; as, "I had finished my letter before he arrived."

The First Future Tense (6) represents the action as yet to come, either with or without respect to the precise time; as, "The sun will rise to-morrow." "I shall see them again."

The Second Future (7) intimates that the action will be fully accomplished, at, or before, the time of another future action or event; as, "I shall have dined at one o'clock." "The two houses will have finished their business when they adjourn."

It is to be observed, that in the subjunctive mood, the event being spoken of under a condition or supposition, or in the form of a wish, and therefore as doubtful and contingent, the verb itself in the present, and the auxiliary both of the present and past imperfect times, often carry with them somewhat of a future sense; as, "If he come to-morrow, I may speak to him;" "If he should, or would come to-morrow, I might, would, could, or should speak to him." Observe also, that the auxiliary should or would, in the imperfect times, are used to express the present and future, as well as the past; as, "It is my desire that he should, or would come now, or to-morrow;" as well as, "It was my desire, that he should or would come yesterday." So that in this mood the precise time of the verb is very much determined by the nature and drift of the sentence.

The present, past, and future tenses may be used either definitely or indefinitely, both with respect to time and action. When they denote customs or habits, and not individual acts, they are applied indefinitely; as, "Virtue promotes happiness;" "The old Romans governed by benefits more than by fear;" "I shall hereafter employ my time more usefully." In these examples, the words promote, governed and shall employ are used indefinitely, both in regard to action and time; for they are not confined to individual actions nor to any precise points of present, past, or future time. When they are applied to signify particular actions, and to ascertain the precise points of time to which they are confined, they are used definitely, as in the following instances. "My brother is writing." "He built the house last summer, but did not inhabit it till yesterday." "He will write another letter to-morrow." The different tenses also represent an action as complete or perfect, or, as incomplete or imperfect. In the phrases, "I am writing," "I was writing," "I shall be writing," imperfect, unfinished actions are signified. But the following examples, "I wrote," "I have written," "I had written," "I shall have written," all denote complete perfect action.

Of Conjugation.

The conjugation (1) of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several numbers, persons, moods and tenses. The Indicative (2) Mood has six tenses; namely, the present, the imperfect, the perfect, the pluperfect, the first future, and the second.

Conjugation of the Verb Have.

Indicative Mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular Number</th>
<th>Plural Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have;</td>
<td>We have;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou hast;</td>
<td>Ye or you have,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she or it,</td>
<td>They have;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Questions.

(1) What is Conjugation?—(2) How many tenses has the Indicative Mood?

(1) How many variations of tense are there?—(2) What does the present tense represent?—(3) What does the imperfect tense represent?—(4) What does the perfect tense represent?—(5) What does the pluperfect tense represent?—(6) What does the first future tense represent?—(7) What does the second future tense represent?
fut_u r e, they are formed without auxiliaries—the perfect, the pluperfect: the first formed by the help of signs, or auxiliaries.

The Perfect Tense (1) is formed by prefixing the sign had, and its variations, to the perfect participles; thus,

**PERFECT TENSE.**

* Singular.
  - I had,
  - Thou hast had,
  - He has had,

* Plural.
  - We had,
  - Ye or you had,
  - They had.

The Pluperfect Tense (2) is formed by prefixing the sign had, and its variation, to the perfect participle; thus,

**PLUPERFECT TENSE.**

* Singular.
  - I had had,
  - Thou hadst had,
  - He had had,

* Plural.
  - We had had,
  - Ye or you have had,
  - They have had.

The First Future Tense (3) is formed by prefixing the sign shall or will, and its variation, to the present tense; thus,

**FIRST FUTURE TENSE.**

* Singular.
  - I shall or will have,
  - Thou shalt or wilt have,
  - He shall or will have,

* Plural.
  - We shall or will have,
  - Ye or you shall or will have,
  - They shall or will have.

The Second Future Tense (4) is formed by prefixing the signs shall or will have, and their variations, to the perfect participle; thus,

**SECOND FUTURE TENSE.**

* Singular.
  - I shall have had,
  - Thou wilt have had,
  - He will have had,

* Plural.
  - We shall have had,
  - Ye or you will have had,
  - They will have had.

QUESTIONS.

1. How is the perfect tense formed?
2. How is the pluperfect tense formed?
3. How is the first future tense formed?
4. How is the second future tense formed?
5. Conjugate the verb have in the indicative mood.

The present and the imperfect tenses are called simple tenses, because they are formed without auxiliaries—the perfect, the pluperfect, the first future, and the second, are called compound tenses, because they are formed by the help of signs, or auxiliaries.
The Imperfect Tense (1) is formed by prefixing the signs, might, could, would, or should, and its variations, to the verb; as,  

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.
I might, could, would, or should, and their variations to the perfect participle; as,  

PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.
I may or can have had, and their variations to the perfect participle; as,  

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.
I might, could, would, or should have had, and their variations to the perfect participle; as,  

INFINITIVE MOOD.

The infinitive mood (4) has but two tenses; namely, the present, and the perfect. The present tense (5) is formed by prefixing to have, which is called the sign of the infinitive mood, to the verb; as, to go, run, strike, &c.  

The perfect tense (6) is formed by prefixing to have, to the perfect participle; as, to have gone, to have run, to have beaten.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB HAVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

To have.

PERFECT TENSE.

To have had.

QUESTIONS.

(1) How is the imperfect tense formed?  
(2) How is the perfect formed?  
(3) How is the pluperfect formed?  
(4) How is the present formed?  
(5) How is the perfect formed?  
(6) Give the infinitive of the verb have in the infinitive mood.

ETYMOLGY.

A verb (1) in the infinitive mood has no nominative case, and therefore, it is unlimited in respect to number and person. Hence it is called the infinitive or unlimited mood. In all the other moods, the verb is attended by a nominative case, by which it is limited as to person and number.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

The imperative mood (2) has but one tense, and one person: namely, the present tense, and the second person. This form (3) of the verb is generally used for commanding; as, depart, and is therefore called the imperfect mood; but it is also used for expressing, instructing, and permitting: as, mind ye, let us stay; go in peace.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB HAVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.  
I have, thou hast, he has, we have, ye have, they have.

Plural.  
We have, ye have, they have.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective verbs (4) are so called, because they can be used only in some of the moods and tenses.

The principal of them are these, (5) may, can, shall, will, must, ought, wish, and their variations.

(For the variations of these words on account of tense, &c. see part 2.)

That the verbs must and ought have both a present and past significations, appears from the following sentences: "I must own that I am to blame;" "I must have been mistaken;" "Speaking things which they ought not;" "These ought ye to have done."

The verbs (6) have, be, will, and do, when they are unconnected with a principal verb, expressed or understood, are not auxiliaries, but principal verbs: as, "We have enough;" "I am grateful;" "He wills it to be so;"

QUESTIONS.

(1) Why is this mood called the infinitive mood?  
(2) How many tenses has the imperative mood?  
(3) What is the infinitive mood used for?  
(4) Give the infinitive of the verb have.  
(5) Name the principal of the imperfect mood.  
(6) Repeat the principal of them.

It appears to be proper, for the information of the learners, to make a few observations in this place, on some of the tenses, &c. The first is, that the potential mood, some grammarians confound the present with that, in the potential mood, some grammarians confound the present with that, in the potential mood, and the perfect with the pluperfect. But that they are really distinct, and have an appropriate reference to time, correspond.

"He wished him to stay, but he would not;" "I could not accomplish the business which he  
"He was ill, but I thought he might live;" "I may have misunderstood him;" "He could not have deceived me;" "He might have finished the work sooner, but he could not have done it better."  

It would, however, be admitted, that, on some occasions, the auxiliaries, might, could, would, and should, refer also to present and to future time.
"They do as they please." In this view, they also have their auxiliaries; as, "I shall have enough?" "I will be grateful."

The Auxiliary and Defected Verbs seem not to be included in the common definition of the verb.

The peculiar force of the several auxiliaries will appear from the following account of them.

Ought (1) denotes duty; as, he ought to be here.

Have (2) denotes possession; as, Children, have ye any meat?—Have also denotes time; as, we have performed our duty.

May (3) implies liberty; as, he may return if he desires it. May also implies doubt; as, he may not be here, although I expect him.

Can (4) implies power or ability; as, he can pass the guards.

Must (5) denotes necessity or compulsion; as, he must pay the debt.

Might (6) implies liberty; as he might have passed the guards, had he been so disposed. Might also implies power; as, he might have returned in spite of his keepers.

Could (7) signifies power or ability; as, he could have paid the demand.

Would (8) implies determination; as, he would go in. Also, inclination: as, I would that all would come to the knowledge of the truth.

Should (9) denotes duty; as, you should treat your superiors with respect.

Shall, (10) in the first person, only foretells; as, I shall go to-morrow. In the second and third persons, shall promises, commands, or threatens; as, you or they shall be rewarded. Thou shalt not steal.

Will, (11) in the first person, denotes promise; as, I will not let thee go. In the second and third persons it foretells; as, he will reward the righteous.

Of Regular and Irregular Verbs.

Verbs (12) which form their imperfect tense, and perfect participle, by adding to the verb ed, (or e only, when the verb ends in e), are called regular; as,

**PRESENT TENSE.** (13) **IMPERFECT TENSE.** **PERFECT PARTICIPLE.**
I destroy, I destroyed, Destroyed.
I love, I loved, Loved.

Verbs (14) which do not form their imperfect tense, and perfect participle, by adding e, or ed, to the present, are irregular.

Irregular Verbs are of various sorts.

1. Such (15) as have the present and imperfect tenses, and perfect participle, the same; as,

**PRESENT.** **IMPERFECT.** **PERFECT PART.**
Cost, Cost, Cost.

**QUESTIONS.**
(1) What does ought denote?—(2) What does have denote?—(3) What does imply?—(4) What does could imply?—(5) What does must denote?—(6) What does might imply?—(7) What does shall imply?—(8) What does shall denote?—(9) What does sell denote?—(10) What verbs are called regular?—(12) Give an example of the regular verb in the present, imperfect, &c.—(14) What verbs are called irregular?—(15) Give an example of the several sorts of irregular verbs?

2. Such as have the imperfect tense, and perfect participle, the same; as,

**PRESENT.** **IMPERFECT.** **PERFECT PART.**
Sell, Sold, Sold.

3. Such as have the imperfect tense, and the perfect participle, different; as,

**PRESENT.** **IMPERFECT.** **PERFECT PART.**
Blow, Blown, Blown.

Many verbs become irregular by contraction; as, "Feed, fed; leave, left;" others by the termination, ed; as, "Fall, fell, fallen;" others by the termination, ged; as, "Buy, bought; teach, taught," &c.

[For a list of the irregular verbs see page 26.]

The compiler has not inserted, in the list of irregular verbs referred to, such verbs as are irregular only in familiar writing or discourse, and which are improperly terminated by t, instead of ed; as, learn, spelt, split, &c. These should be avoided in every sort of composition. It is, however, proper to observe, that some contractions of ed into t, are unexceptionable, and others, the only established forms of expression; as, crept, gilt, &c.; and lost, felt, slept, &c. These allowable and necessary contractions must therefore be carefully distinguished by the learner, from those that are exceptable. These words which are obsolete have also been omitted, that the learner might not be induced to mistake them for words in present use. Such are, breathed, drunken, holpen, molten, gotten, hidden, bounded, &c.; and swung, wrung, slain, straved, gut, brakes, ware, &c.

Of Neuter and Passive Verbs.

A Neuter Verb (1) implies being or existence, or a state of existence without action; as, "I am in health;" "He is weary of his life;" "They rest from their labors."

Some verbs (2) may be used either in an active or a neuter sense. In the sentence, "Here I rest"—(repose,) the verb rest is used in a neuter sense; but in the sentence, "Here I rest my hopes," it is used in an active sense.

A Passive Verb (3) is a verb that represents its subject or nominative as being (or having been) acted upon; as, "I am persecuted by my enemies." "He has been injured by slanderers." In its original application, passion signifies a suffering—(enduring.) The Crucifixion of our Saviour is for this reason called his Passion, that is, his suffering on the cross. From passion is derived passive. Hence the name of the class of verbs so denominated; the meaning and use of the word, has, however, been greatly extended.

**QUESTIONS.**
(1) What is a Neuter Verb?—(2) Is the same verb used both in an active and a neuter sense?—(3) What does a passive verb express?
ETYMOLGY.

The Passive Verb (1) is formed by prefixing the neater verb Be (or Am) or some of its variations (art, is, was, was, were, were, or, been,) to the perfect participle of a transitive verb; as, I am loved—He is beaten—The coach is drawn.

In the following sentences, a part of the neater verb Be is prefixed to the perfect participle of an intransitive verb. The ship is arrived, the bird is flown; such verbs (2) are intransitive verbs, in the passive form. Some writers on grammar reject this form of expression as incorrect, and write in its stead, “The bird has flown,” &c. (See conjugation of the neater and passive verbs, pages 39, 40, and 41.)

OF PARTICIPLES.

A Participle (3) is a word derived from a verb, partaking of the nature of a verb and of an adjective.

Participles (4) often become adjectives, and are placed before nouns to denote quality; as, “A lying tongue;” “A burning fever;” “A loving child;” “A moving spectacle;” “A heated imagination;” “A learned man.” The words mark simply the qualities referred to, without any regard to time; and may properly be called participial adjectives.

When (5) preceded by an article, and adjective, or a noun, or pronoun, in the possessive case, participles become nouns; as, “The beginning;” “A good understanding;” “The chancellor’s being attached to the king, secured his crown.”

There are (6) three Participles; namely, the Present or Active, the Perfect or Passive, and the Compound Perfect; as, loving—loved—having loved.

Participles not only convey the notion of time, but they also signify actions, and govern the cases of nouns and pronouns, in the same manner as verbs do.

OF ADVERBS.

An Adverb (7) is a word joined to a verb, or to a participle, to show the manner, time, or place in which the action is done; as, “He reads correctly;” “He mentioned it before;” “They labor here.”

[Adverbs are more frequently added to verbs, than to any other parts of speech, and therefore they are called adverbs.]

Some (8) adverbs are compared, thus: soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, ofteneast. Those ending in ly, are compared by more and most; as, wisely, more wisely, most wisely.

QUESTIONS.

(1) How is a passive verb formed?—(2) What kind of verbs are is known—is arrived, &c.—(3) What is a Participle?—(4) Do participles become adjectives?—(5) Do participles ever become nouns?—(6) How many participles are there?—(7) What is an Adverb?—(8) How are adverbs compared?

"When this participle is joined to the verb to have, it is called perfect; when it is joined to the verb to be, or understood with it, it is denominated passive.

ETYMOLGY.

Adverbs seem (1) originally to have been contrived to express comprehensively in one word, what must otherwise have required two or more; as, “He acted wisely;” for, he acted with wisdom; “Prudently,” for, with prudence; “He did it here,” for, he did it in this place.

Adverbs, though very numerous, may be reduced to the following classes, namely,

Of Manner, Prudently, honestly, wisely, well, ill, &c.
Time present, Now, to-morrow, &c.
Time past, Before, already, lately, long ago, &c.
Time future, Presently, immediately, to-morrow, &c.
Time indefinite, Sometimes, seldom, always, &c.
Place, where, There, here, &c.
To a place, Hence, thence, whence.
Order, First, secondly, thirdly, &c.
Quantity, Sufficiently, enough, &c.
Negation, Nay, no, not, &c.
Separation, Apart, separately, asunder, &c.
Conjunction, Together, generally, universally, &c.
Interrogation, Why, when, how, &c.
Defect, Almost, nearly, &c.
Preference, Rather, chiefly, especially, &c.
Abatement, Scarcely, hardly, &c.
Contingent, Perhaps, paradoctly, possibly, &c.
Certainly, or affirmation, Very, truly, yes, certainly.
Comparison, More, most, less, worse, &c.

Besides the adverbs already mentioned, there are many which are formed by a combination of several of the prepositions, with the adverbs of place, here, there, and where; as, (2) here and, thereof, whereof; hereto, thereto, where thereto; hereby, thereby, whereby; herewith, therewith, where­with; herein, therein, wherein; therefore, i.e. there­for, wherefore, i.e. where­for, hereupon or hereon, thereupon or thereon, wherupon or whereon, &c. Except therefore, these are seldom used.

In (3) some instances the preposition suffers no change, but becomes an adverb merely by its apposition; as when we say, “He rides about;” “He was near falling;” “But do not after lay the blame on me.”

There are (4) also some adverbs, which are composed of nouns, and the letter a used instead of at, on, &c.; as, aside, athirst, aboard, alseep, aboard, ashore, abed, aground, afloat, &c.

The words (5) when and where, and all others of the same nature, such as, whenever, whithere, whenever, whither, &c. may be properly called adverbial conjunctions, because they participate the nature both of adverbs and conjunctions; of conjunctions, as they conjunct sentences; of adverbs, as they denote the attributes either of time or of place.

QUESTIONS.

(1) For what purpose were adverbs contrived?—Give an example of each kind of adverb?—(2) Give examples of adverbs formed by a combination of a preposition of place and a preposition?—(3) Do prepositions become adverbs?—(4) Are adverbs composed of nouns?—(5) What words are called adverbial conjunctions?
ETYMOLOGY.

It may be particularly observed with respect to the word *therefore*, that it is an adverb, when, without joining sentences, it only gives the sense of *for that reason*. When it gives that sense, and also connects, it is a conjunction; as, "He is good, therefore he is happy."

There are several combinations of short words which are used adverbially, and which some grammarians do not analyze in parsing; as, *Not at all, a little while ago, to and fro, in vain, &c.*

**Of Helping Adverbs.**

A Helping-Adverb (1) is a word employed to aid an adverb, or another helping-adverb; as, "He rides too fast;" "He rides much too fast."

Helping-Adverbs, (2) very, quite, exceedingly, excessively, extremely, too much, &c.

The same words are called helping-adjectives when they are employed to aid adjectives; as, "The house is too large;" or another helping-adjective; as, "The house is much too large."

These words are, by some writers on grammar, called adverbs of degree. (See page 17.)

**OF PRONOUNS.**

A Pronoun (3) 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."

(Pronoun comes from the Latin word *pro-nomen*, compounded of *pro*, for, and *nomen*, a name.)

There are (4) four kinds of pronouns, viz. the Personal, the Relative, the Interrogative, and the Adjective Pronouns.

**OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.**

There are (5) five Personal Pronouns, viz. *I, thou, he, she, and it;* with their plurals, *we, ye or you, they.*

Personal Pronouns admit of person, number, gender, and case.

The numbers of pronouns, like those of nouns, are two, the singular and the plural; as, *I, thou, he; she, ye or you, they.*

Gender has respect only to the third person singular of the pronouns, *he, she, it.* *He* is masculine; *she* is feminine; *it* is neuter.

The persons speaking and spoken to, being at the same time the subjects of the discourse, are supposed to be present; from which, and other circumstances, their sex is commonly known, and needs not to be marked by a distinction of gender in the pronouns; but the third person or thing spoken of, being absent, and in many respects unknown, it is necessary that it should be marked by a distinction of gender; at least, when some pronouns are there.

**QUESTIONS.**

(1) What is a Helping-Adverb? (2) Give a list of them. (3) What is a Pronoun? (4) How many kinds of pronouns are there?

ETYMOLOGY.

**A Table of the Personal Pronouns in the Three Cases.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>1st person</th>
<th>2d person</th>
<th>3d person</th>
<th>3d per. mas.</th>
<th>3d per. fem.</th>
<th>3d per. neu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. I, (2)</td>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>She</td>
<td>She</td>
<td>It</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss. Mine</td>
<td>Thine</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>Hers</td>
<td>Hers</td>
<td>Hers</td>
<td>Hers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj. Me</td>
<td>Thee</td>
<td>Him</td>
<td>Her</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>It</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. We</td>
<td>Ye or You</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>They</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss. Ours</td>
<td>Yours</td>
<td>Thiers</td>
<td>Thiers</td>
<td>Thiers</td>
<td>Thiers</td>
<td>Thiers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.**

Relative Pronouns (6) are such as relate, in general, to some word or phrase going before, which is thence called the antecedent; they are, who, which, and that; as, "The man is happy who lives virtuously."*8*

What (4) is a kind of compound pronoun, including both the antecedent and the relative, and is equivalent to *that and which*; as, "He praises what you disapprove;* that is, he praises *that* which you disapprove.

Who (5) is applied to persons, *which to animals and inanimate things*; as, "He is a friend, who is faithful in adversity;" *The bird, which sang so sweetly, is flown;* "This is the tree, which produces no fruit;" *That, (6) as a relative,* is often used to prevent the too frequent repetition of *who and which.* It is applied to both persons and things; as, "*He that acts wisely deserves praise;"* *Modesty is a quality that highly adorns a woman;* *Who is of both numbers, and is thus declined;*

**Singular and Plural.**


Possessive, Objective, Whom.

**QUESTIONS.**

(1) How many cases have Pronouns? (2) Repeat the table of personal pronouns. (3) What are relative pronouns? (4) What is equivalent to *that and which*? How is who applied? (5) For what is that used? (6) Decline the relative who.

*The relative pronoun, when used interrogatively, relates to a word or phrase which is not antecedent, but subsequent, to the relative.
Which, that, and what, are alike in both numbers, but they do not vary their termination; except that what is sometimes used as the possessive case of which; as, "Is there any other doctrine what followers are punished?"

Who, which, and what, have sometimes the words sooner and ever annexed to them; as, whoever or whatever, whichever or whatever; but they are seldom used in modern style.

The word (1) that is sometimes a relative, sometimes a demonstrative pronoun, and sometimes a conjunction. (2) It is a relative, when it may be turned into who or which without destroying the sense; as, "They that [who] reprove us, may be our best friends?" From every thing that (which) you do, derive instruction. (3) It is a demonstrative pronoun when it is followed immediately by a noun, to which it is either joined, or refers, and which it limits or qualifies; as, "That boy is industrious;" "That belongs to me;" meaning, that book, that desk, &c. (4) It is a conjunction, when it joins sentences together, and cannot be turned into who or which, without destroying the sense; as, "Take care that every day be well employed;" "I hope he will believe that I have not acted improperly."

Who, which, and what, (5) are called Interrogatives, when they are used in asking questions; as, "Who is this?" "Which is the book?" "What art thou doing?"

Of the Adjective Pronouns.

Adjective Pronouns (6) are of a mixed nature, participating the properties of pronouns and adjectives.

The Adjective Pronouns (7) may be subdivided into five sorts, namely, the Possessive, the Distributive, the Demonstrative, the Indefinite, and the Interrogative.

The possessive (8) are those which relate to possession or property. There are seven of them; viz. my, thy, his, her, our, your, their.

The following sentences exemplify the possessive pronouns. "My lesson is finished; Thy books are dedicated; He loves his studies; She forms her duty; We own your faults; Your situation is distressing; I admire their virtues.

The following are examples of the possessive cases of the personal pronouns. This desk is mine; the other is thine; These trinkets are his; those are hers; This house is ours, and that is yours; Theirs is very commodious.

Self is added to possessives; as, myself, yourselves; and sometimes to personal pronouns; as, himself, herself, themselves. It then, like own, expresses emphasis and opposition; as, "I did this myself;" that is, "not another;" or it forms a reciprocal pronoun; as, "We hurt ourselves by vain rage.

Questions.

(1) How is the word that construed? (2) When is it a relative? (3) When a demonstrative? (4) When a conjunction? (5) What words are called interrogative pronouns? (6) What are adjectivet pronouns? (7) How are adjective pronouns subdivided? (8) Which are the possessive?

ETYMOLGY.

Himself, themselves, are now used in the nominative case, instead of his, hers, theirselves; as, "He came himself;" "He himself shall do this;" "They performed it themselves."

2. The distributive (1) are those which denote the persons or things that make up a number, as taken separately and singly. They are, each, every, either; as, "Each of his brothers is in a favorable situation;" "Every man must account for himself;" "I have not seen either of them."

Each relates to two or more persons or things, and signifies either of the two, or every one of any number taken separately.

Every relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them all taken separately. This pronoun was formerly used apart from its noun, but it is now constantly annexed to it, except in legal proceedings, as in the phrase, "All and every of them."

Either relates to two persons or things taken separately, and signifies the one or the other. To say, "either of the three," is therefore improper.

Neither imports "not either;" that is, not one nor the other; as, "Neither of my friends was there."

The demonstrative (2) are those which precisely point out the subjects to which they relate; this and that, these and those, former and latter, are of this class; as, "This is true charity; that is only its image."

The indefinite (3) are those which express subjects in an indefinite or general manner. The following are of this kind; some, other, any, one, all, each, &c.

Of these pronouns, only the words one and other are varied. One has a possessive case, which it forms in the same manner as nouns; as, one's. This word has a general signification, meaning people in general; and sometimes a particular reference to the person who is speaking; as, "One ought to pity the distresses of mankind." One is apt to love one's self? This word is often used, by good writers, in the plural number; as, "The great ones of the world;" "The boy wounded the old bird, and stole the young ones;" "My wife and the little ones are in good heart.

Other is declined in the following manner:

Singular. Yeral.
Nom. Other, (4) Others,
Poss. Other's, Others',
Obj. Other, Others.

The plural others is only used when apart from the noun to which it refers, whether expressed or understood; as, "When you have perused these papers, I will send you the others." "He pleases some, but he disgusts others." When this pronoun is joined to nouns, either singular or plural, it has no variation; as, "the other man;" "the other men.

The word another (7) is composed of the indefinite article prefixed to the word other.

Question.

(1) Which are the distributive? (2) Which are the demonstrative? (3) Which are the indefinite? (4) Decline the pronoun other.
None is used in both numbers; as, "None is so dear as he that will not hear?" "None of those are equal to these." It seems originally to have signified, according to its derivation, not one, and therefore to have had no plural; but there is good authority for the use of it in the plural number; as, "None that go unto her return again."—Prov. ii. 19.

The (1) Interrogative are which and what, when prefixed to nouns; so, "What time did he arrive?" "Which house did he occupy?"


d OF CONJUNCTIONS.
d A Conjunction (3) is a part of speech that is chiefly used to connect sentences; so as, out of two or more sentences, to make but one. It sometimes connects only words.

Conjunctions (6) are principally divided into two sorts, the Copulative and the Disjunctive.

The Conjunction Copulative (4) serves to connect or to continue a sentence, by expressing an addition, a supposition, a cause, &c.; as, "He and his brother reside in London?" "I will go if he will accompany me?" "You are happy, because you are good."

The Conjunction Disjunctive (5) serves, not only to connect and continue the sentence, but also to express opposition of meaning in different degrees; as, "Though he was frequently reproved, yet he did not reform?" "They came with her, but they went away without her."

The following is a list of the principal Conjunctions.

The Copulative. (6) And, if, that, both, then, since, for, because, therefore, wherever.

The Disjunctive. (7) But, or, nor, as, than, lest, though, unless, either, neither, yet, notwithstanding.

The same word is occasionally used both as a conjunction and as an adverb; and sometimes, as a preposition. "I rest thee upon this argument;" then is here a conjunction; in the following phrase, it is an adverb: "He arrived then, and not before." I submitted; for it was vain to resist; in this sentence, for is a conjunction; in the next, it is a preposition: "He contended for victory only." In the rest of the following sentences, since is a conjunction; in the second, it is a preposition; and in the third, an adverb: "Since we must part, let us do it peaceably!" "I have not seen him since that time;" "Our friendship commenced long since."

Relative Pronouns, as well as conjunctions, serve to connect sentences; as, "Blessed is the man who feareth the Lord, and keepeth his commandments."

Conjunctions very often unite sentences, when they appear to unite only words; as, in the following instances: "Duty and interest forbid vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom or folly governs us." Each of these forms of expression contains two sentences, namely: "Duty forbids vi-

QUESTIONS.

(1) Which are the interrogative adjective pronouns? (2) What is a Conjunction? (3) How are conjunctions divided? (4) What is the effect of a copulative conjunction? (5) What is a disjunctive? (6) Repeat the copulative conjunctions. (7) Repeat the disjunctive.

ETYMOLOGY.

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ETIMOLOGY.

Inseparable Prepositions.

These are words chiefly derived from other languages. They have, like all other words, though seldom employed singly, a separate and distinct meaning of their own. As the most difficult, but most necessary part of study (to use the words of a great philosopher) is to find out and fix the meaning of words, the following explanation of what are called inseparable prepositions or particles, is particularly worthy of the attention of the learner.—A few of these words are still used separately.

A signifies on or in: as a-foot, a-shore, a-bed; that is, on foot, on shore, in bed.

After denotes posteriority of time: as, afternoon, after-time.

Be is said to signify about: as, bearable, bear, that is, stir about: also, far and before, as, becase, that is, speak for or before.

The true character of be,” says Mr. Grant, “seems to be, to communicate or deeply involve in an action, a thing, or quality: as, be-dame, be-ness, be-ward, before.” Be has the same general effect as all the other prefixes.

QUESTION.

(w) What is an Interjection?

OF INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections (1) are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence, to express the passions or motions of the speaker; as, “Oh! I have alienated my friend!” “Also! I fear for life!” “O virtue! how amiable thou art!”

The English Interjections, as well as those of other languages, are comprised within a small compass. They are of different sorts, according to the different passions which they serve to express. Those which intimate earnestness or grief, are, O! oh! ah! alas! Such as are expressive of contempt, are, pah! tis! of wonder, heigh! really! of calling, hem! ho! soso! of aversion or disgust, fah! fe! away! of a sense of the attention, lo! behold! hark! of requesting silence, hush! hush! of salvation, welcome! hail! all hail! Besides these, several others, frequent in the mouths of the multitude, might be enumerated; but, in a grammar of a cultivated tongue, it is unnecessary to expatiate on such expressions of passion, as are scarcely worthy of being ranked among the branches of artificial language.

Raw Text End
ETYMOLOGY.

In, before an adjective, like un, denotes privation; as, indecent, not decent. Before a verb it has its simple meaning.

Inter signifies among or between; as, intervene, or come between. In interdict, or forbid, it has a negative effect.

Intro denotes to within; as, introduce, or lead in.

Ob denotes opposition; as, object, or cast against; obstacle; that is, something in opposition.

Per signifies through or thoroughly; as, perforce; that is, pass through, perfect; that is, thoroughly done.

Pre, before; as, prepare, or procure beforehand.

Post, after; as, postscript, or written after.

Pro denotes forth, forward; as, promote, or move forward, produce, or bring forth.

Prae signifies past or beyond; as, preternatural, or beyond the course of nature.

Re signifies again, or back; as, reprint, or print again, repay or pay back.

Retr signifies backwards; as, retrograde, or going backwards.

Se, apart, or without; as, to secrete, or put aside, secure, or without care.

Sub signifies under; as, subscribe, or write under.

Subter signifies under; as, subterraneous, or flowing underground; subterfuges, or escape underground.

Super, above, or over; as, superadd, add, over, or above.

Trans or tra signifies over or beyond; as, transplant, transplant, &c.

Utra signifies beyond; as, ultra marine, or beyond the sea.

The Greek propositions and participles compounded with English words are a, amphi, anti, apo, hyper, dia, hypo, epi, melo, para, peri, sym, semi.

A signifies privation; as, anarchy, or the state of being without government.

Amphi, both, or the two; as, amphitheater, or the state of living in two ways.

Anti, against; as, antidote, or something given against poison.

Apo, from; as, apotheosize, or from the earth.

Hyper, over, and above; as, hypercritical, that is, over, or too critical.

Dia, through; as, diaphragn of; or a overcoming, or surmounting.

Hypo, under, implying; as, hypocrisy, or a person concealing his real character.

Epi, upon; as, epidemics, or upon the people.

Meta, denotes change, or transmutation; as, metamorphose, or change the shape.

Para, beyond, on one side; thus, paragraph; that is, a writing by the side, (originally used to mean a marginal note) paradox; that is, an opinion beyond, or on one side, an extraordinary opinion; paraphrase; that is, a phrase that may be placed by the side, an equivalent phrase.

Peri, about, as, paraphrases, or a speech in a round about way, a circumscription.

Syn, sym, epi, with or together; as, synod, or meeting together, sympathy, or feeling together.

Hemi, as well as semi and demi, denotes half, hemisphere, or half a sphere; semi-circle, or half a circle; semi-god, half a god.

OF DERIVATION.

Words are derived from one another in various ways; viz.

1. Nouns are derived from verbs; as, from "to love," comes "lover," from "to visit, visitor," from "to survive, survivor," &c.

2. Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs; as, from the noun salt, comes "to salt," from the adjective warm, "to warm," and from the adverb forward, "to forward." Sometimes by lengthening the vowel, or softening the consonant; they are formed by lengthening the vowel, or softening the consonant; as, from "grass, to graze," sometimes by adding en; as, from "length, to lengthen," especially to adjectives; as, from "short, to shorten," height to brightness.

3. Adjectives are derived from nouns, in the following manner; Adjectives denoting plenty are derived from nouns by adding y; as, from "health, healthy; wealth, wealthy; might, mighty," &c.

Adjectives denoting abundance are derived from nouns, by adding full; as, from "joy, joyful; sin, sinful; fruit, fruitful," &c.

Adjectives denoting want are derived from nouns by adding less; as, from "worth, worthless; care, careless; joy, joyless," &c.

Adjectives denoting likeness are derived from nouns, by adding like; as, from "man, menial; earth, earthly; court, courtly," &c.

4. Nouns are derived from adjectives, sometimes by adding the termination ness; as, "white, whiteness; swift, swiftness," sometimes by adding the termination ness, and making a small change in some of the letters; as, "long, length; high, height."

5. Adverbs of quality are derived from adjectives, by adding ly, or changing it into y; and denote the same quality as the adjectives from which they are derived; as, from "base, basely; slow, slowly," from "slow, slowly." There are so many other ways of deriving words from one another, that it would be extremely difficult, and nearly impossible, to enumerate them.

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SYNTAX.

The third part of grammar is Syntax, which treats of the agreement and construction of words in a sentence. A sentence is an assemblage of words, forming a complete sense. Sentences are of two kinds, simple and compound. A simple sentence has in it but one subject, and one finite* verb; as, "Life is short." A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences connected together; as, "Life is short, and art is long." "Idleness produces want, vice, and misery." As sentences themselves are divided into simple and compound, so the members of sentences may be divided likewise into simple and compound members; for whole sentences, whether simple or compound, may become members of other sentences, by means of some additional connexion; as in the following example: "The ox knows his owner, and the ass his master's erib; but Israel does not know, my people do not consider." This sentence consists of two compound members, each of which is subdivided into two simple members, which are properly called clauses.

There are three sorts of simple sentences: the explicative, or explaining; the interrogative, or asking; the imperative, or commanding.

An explicative sentence is, when a thing is said to be or not to be, to do or not to do, to suffer or not to suffer, in a direct manner; as, "I am: thou art not; Timon is loved." If the sentence be negative, the adverb not is placed after the auxiliary, or after the verb itself when it has no auxiliary; as, "I did not touch him; or, "I touched him not." In an interrogative sentence, or when a question is asked, the nominative case follows the principal verb or the auxiliary, as, "Was it he?" "Did Alexander conquer the Persians?"

In an imperative sentence, when a thing is commanded to be, to do, to suffer, or not, the nominative case likewise follows the verb or the auxiliary; as, "Go, thou traitor!" "Do thou go!" "Raze ye away!" unless the verb let be used; as, "Let us be gone."

A phrase is two or more words rightly put together, making sometimes part of a sentence, and sometimes a whole sentence. The principal parts of a simple sentence are, the subject, the attribute, and the object. The subject is the thing chiefly spoken of; the attribute is the thing or action affirmed or denied of it; and the object is the thing affected by such action. The nominative denotes the subject, and usually goes before the verb or attribute; and the word or phrase, denoting the object, follows the verb.

* Finite verbs are those to which number and person appertain. Verbs in the infinitive mood have no respect to number or person.

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than he did. Such an amiable disposition will secure universal regard. Such distinguished virtues seldom occur.

Note III. Adverbs should not be used as adjectives; thus, "They were seen wandering about solemnly and distantly" is "solemnly and distantly." "The study of Syntax should be previously to that of punctuation." If previous.

Examples to be corrected under Note 3, Rule I.

Conformably to their vehement opinion of thought was their vehemence of gesture. We should implant in the minds of youth, such seeds and principles of piety and virtue, as are likely to take soonest and deepest root. Use a little wine for thy stomach's sake and thine often irritments. He addressed several exhortations to them suitable to their circumstances.

Note IV. Comparative terms and adjectives, should not be applied to adjectives that are not susceptible of comparison; and double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided; such as "A worse conduct." "A worse temper." They should be, "Worse conduct." "Worse temper." They are not true.

Examples to be corrected under Note 4, Rule I.

'Tis more easier to build two chimneys than to maintain one. The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries. The nightingale sings; hers is the most sweetest voice in the grove. The Most Highest hath created it for his glory, and our own happiness. The Supreme Being is the most wise, the most powerful, and the most beneficent. Virtue confers the supreme dignity on man, and should be his chief desire. His assertion was more true than that of his opponent; nay, the words of the latter were most untrue. His work is perfect; his brother's more perfect; and his father's the most perfect of all.

* Young persons who study grammar, find it difficult to decide, in particular constructions, whether an adjective or an adverb ought to be used. A few observations on this point, may serve to explain their judgment, and direct their determination. They should carefully attend to the definitions of the adjective and the adverb; and consider whether, in the one in question, a quality or manner is indicated. In the former case an adjective is proper; in the latter, an adverb. A number of examples will illustrate this direction, and prove useful on other occasions.

He feels warm. He feels warmly the insult offered to him. He became sincere and virtuous. He became sincerely virtuous. He lives freely from care. He lives freely at another's expense. Harriet always appears neat. She appears neatly. Charles has grown mean. By his wisdom. He has grown greatly in reputation. They appear happy. They appear happily in earnest. The sun appears red. The statement seems entirely correct. The verb to be, in all its modes and tenses, generally requires the word immediately connected with it to be an adjective, not an adverb; and consequently when this word can be substituted for any other, without varying the sense or the construction, that other verb must also be converted into an adjective. The following sentences elucidate these observations. "This is agreeable to our interest; The behaviour was not suited to his station; Rules should be considered in this sense." "The rose smells sweet; How sweet the hay smells; How delightful the country appears!" are

How pleasant the fields look! The clouds look dark. How black the sky looked! The apple was tastes sour! How bitter the plums tasted! He feels happy. In all these sentences, we can, with perfect propriety, substitute some tens of the verb to be, for the other verbs. But in the following sentences we cannot do this: "The dog smells disagreeably; George feels exceedingly. How piously she looks at us!"

The directions contained in this note are observed as useful, not as complete and unexceptionable. Anomalous in language everywhere whenever we come across them; but we must not reject rules because they are attended with exceptions.

SYNTAX.

Note V. When the comparative degree of an adjective is used, the latter term of comparison should not include the former; and when the superlative is used, the latter term should never exclude the former.

Examples to be corrected under Note 5, Rule I.

Eve was the fairest of all her daughters. Profane swearing is, of all other vices, the most inexcusable. A talent of this kind would, perhaps, prove the likeliest of all other to succeed. He spoke with so much propriety, that I understood him the best of all the others, who spoke on the subject.

Note VI. The personal pronoun these should never be used in the place of the adjective pronoun those; as, "Give me more books!" instead of "Give me these books!"

Examples to be corrected under Note 6, Rule I.

Go and ask for them articles. How many of them apples did you purchase? Which of them three men came to his assistance? I will give them two quills.

Note VII. The demonstrative this and these relate to the things last mentioned, or nearest; that and those things first mentioned, or farthest off.

Examples to be corrected under Note 7, Rule I.

Religion raises men above themselves; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that, binds them down to a poor, pitiful speck of perishable earth; this, opens for them a prospect to the skies.

"Farewell my friends! farewell my foes! My peace with these, my love with those!"

Note VIII. The adjective pronouns this and that, these and those, should agree in number, with the nouns to which they are added; as, "Three years," not, "This three years."

Examples to be corrected under Note 8, Rule I.

These kind of indulgences soften and injure the mind. Instead of improving yourselves, you have been playing this two hours. Those sort of favors did real injury, under the appearance of kindness.

Note IX. The adjective pronouns each, every, either, (and neither) agree with pronouns and verbs in the singular number only; as, "Each of you has his friends."

Examples to be corrected under Note 9, Rule I.

Each of them in their turn receive the benefits to which they are entitled. By discussing what relates to each particular, in their order, we shall better understand the subject. Every person, whatever be their station, are bound by the duties of morality and religion. Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water, teem with life. Every man's heart and temper is productive of much inward joy or bitterness. Whatever he undertakes, either his pride or his folly disgust us. Every man and every woman were numbered. Neither of those men seem to have any idea that their opinions may be ill-founded.

Note X. The adjective pronouns either and neither, must be used in reference to two things only; when more are referred to, any and more should be used; as, "Any of the three," not "Either of the three." "None of the four," not "Neither of the four."
Examples to be corrected under Note 10, Rule I.

Have you recited either of the ten commandments this morning? He presented five copies, but neither of them were received.

Examples to be corrected under Note II, Rule I.

The chain made by the earthquake was twenty foot broad, and one hundred fathom in depth.

Examples to be corrected under Note 13, Rule I.

He is the strongest of the two, but not the wisest. Trissyllables are often accentuated on the former syllable.

Examples to be corrected under Note 14, Rule I.

He spoke in a distinct enough manner to be heard by the whole assembly. Thomas is equipped with a new pair of shoes, and a new pair of gloves; he is the son of an old rich man. The two first in the row are cherry trees; the two others are pear trees.

ARTICLES.

RULE II.

The Article refers to its noun or pronoun in limitation.

The article a or an agrees with nouns in the singular number only, individually or collectively; as, "A Christian, an Indian, a score, a thousand. The definite article, the, may agree with nouns in the singular and plural number; as, "The garden, the houses, the stars."

The articles are often properly omitted; when used, they should be justly applied, according to their distinct nature; as, "Gold is corrupting; the sea is green; a lion is bold." If I say, "He behaved with a little reverence," my meaning is negative. And these two are by no means the same, or to be used in the same cases. By the former, I rather praise a person; by the latter, I disapprove him. For the sake of this distinction, which is a very useful one, we may better bear the seeming impropriety of the article before nouns of number. "When I say, "There were few men with him," I speak diminutively, and mean to represent them as inconsiderable; whereas, when I say, "There were a few men with him," I evidently intend to make the most of them. It is correct to say, with the article, "He is in great hurry, but not in great hurry." And yet, in this expression, "He is in great haste," the article should be omitted; as, it would be improper to say, "He is in a great haste."

A nice discernment, and accurate attention to the best usage are necessary to direct us on these occasions.

Note I. When a noun or pronoun is used in an unlimited sense the article should be omitted; as, "Man is the noblest work of creation," col. "A man," &c. The articles are omitted before nouns that imply the different virtues, vices, passions, qualities, sciences, arts, metals, herbs, &c. They are not prefixed to proper names; as, "Washington," "Jefferson," (because those of themselves denote determinate individuals, or particular things,) except for the sake of distinguishing a particular family; as, "This is an Howard, or of the family of the Howards," or by way of emphasis; as, "Every man is a Newton," or when some noun is understood; as, "He sailed down the river Thames, in the (ship) Britannia."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Note 1, Rule II.

Reason was given to a man to control his passions.

(Note proper, because the article a is used before man, which should be used in its widest sense.

Therefore it should stand thus, Reason was given to man to control his passions.)

The fire, the air, the earth, and the water, are the four elements of the philosophers. Arithmetic is a branch of the mathematics.

My friend is another sort of a man. He is strong in the faith. I am persuaded this way unto the death. Such qualities honor the nature of a man.

Note II. When a noun is not used in an unlimited sense, an article (or some other definite) should be prefixed to it; as, "The wisest and the best men sometimes commit errors."

Examples to be corrected under Note 2, Rule II.

We have within us an intelligent principle, distinct from body and from matter. Beware of drunkenness; it impairs understanding. There are some evils of life which equally affect both prince and people.

Note III. In expressing a comparison, if both nouns relate to the same thing, the article should not be prefixed to the latter, if to different things, it should not be omitted.

Examples to be corrected under Note 3, Rule II.

He is a much better writer than a reader. I should rather wrong a friend than fie.

Examples to be corrected under Note 4, Rule II.

The king has conferred on him the title of a duke. Our commander presented him the commission of a captain. The highest title in the State is the Governor.
SYNTAX.

Note V. When the indefinite article is required, it should always be used before the sound of a consonant, and as before that of a vowel.

Examples to be corrected under Note 5, Rule II. This is an historical allusion. This is a hard-saying. I have not seen such an one.

Note VI. Inconsistent qualities should not be joined to the same noun; as, "The old and new method."

Examples to be corrected under Note 6, Rule II. The book was read by the old and young. I have both a large and small grammar. I saw both the large and small vessel.

VERBS.

RULE III.

A Verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person; as, "I learn; thou art improved; the birds sing."

The following are a few instances of the violation of this rule—What signifies good opinions when our practice is bad? What speaks? We may suppose there were more imposters than one; but whether they would be healthy, live temporarily; if thou wouldst. Thou seest how little hath been done. Thou seest. Though thou cannot do much for the cause, thou may and should do something; Count not, money, and shouldst. Full many a flower are born to blush unseen; is born. A variety of blessings have been conferred upon us; nor been. Is pleasant and serene consist the happiness of man; consists. To these precepts are subjoined a copious selection of rules and maxims; is subjoined.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Rule III.

A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye.

[Not proper, because the verb charm, is of the plural number, and does not agree with its nominative variety, which is singular. But, according to Rule 56, "A verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person." Therefore charm should be charmed; thus, "A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye."

Disappointments sink the heart of man; but the renewal of hope give consolation. The smiles that encourage severity of judgment, hides malice and insincerity. He dare not act contrary to his instructions. Fifty pounds of wheat contains forty pounds of flour. The mechanism of clocks and watches were totally unknown a few centuries ago. The number of inhabitants in Great Britain and Ireland do not exceed sixteen millions. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons. In the conduct of Parmenio, a mixture of wisdom and folly were very conspicuous. The inequitable and curious is generally talkative. Great pains has been taken to reconcile the parties. I am sorry to say it, but there was more equivocal than one. The sincere is always esteemed. There is many occasions in life, in which silence and simplicity is true wisdom. Thou, who art the Author and Bestower of life, can doubtless restore it also; but whether thou will please to restore it, or not, thou only knows. O thou my voice inspire. Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire. Accept these grateful tears; for thee they flow, For thee that ever felt another's wo.

SYNTAX.

Note I. Every verb (excepting the infinitive mood) must have a nominative case, either expressed or implied; as, "a wake; arise;" that is, "to awake; to arise."  

Examples to be corrected under Note 1, Rule III.  

If the privileges, to which he has an undoubted right, and he has long enjoyed, should now be wrested from him, would be flagrant injustice. These curiosities we have imported from China, and are similar to those which were, sometime ago, brought from Africa.

Will martial flames fore ever die thy mind, And never, never be to Heaven resign'd?

Note II. Every nominative case, except the case absolute, and when an address is made to a person, should belong to some verb, either expressed or implied; as, "Whose Who wrote this book?"

"James" that is, "James wrote it."

"To whom thus Adam," that is, "spoke."

Examples to be corrected under Note 2, Rule III.

Two substantives, when they come together, and do not signify the same thing, the former must be in the genitive case. Virtue, however it may be neglected for a time, men are so constituted as ultimately to acknowledge and respect genuine merit.

Note III. Though a noun of multitude, (or signifying many), may have a verb, or a pronoun participle; as, "the multitude eager pursues pleasure as their chief good."

Examples to be corrected under Note 3, Rule III.

The people rejoice in that which should give it sorrow. The crowd were so great that the judges with difficulty made their way through them. When the nation complained, the rulers should listen to their voice. In the days of youth, the multitude eagerly pursues pleasure as its chief good. The church has no power to inflict corporal punishment. The regiment consist of a thousand men. The meeting have established several salutary regulations. The fleet is all arrived and moored in safety.

ADVERBS.

RULE IV.

Adverbs qualify verbs and participles.

Note I. Adverbs though they have no properties, should have that position which will render the sentence most perspicuous and elegant.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Note 1, Rule IV.

The heavenly bodies are in motion perpetually.

[Not proper, because the adverb perpetually is not in its proper place. But, according to Note 4 Rule IV., "though they have no properties, should have that position which will render the sentence most perspicuous and elegant." Therefore, perpetually should be placed before in; thus, "The heavenly bodies are perpetually in motion."]

He was pleasing not often, because he was vain. William nobly acted, though he was unsuccessful. We may happily live, though our possess-
sions are small. He offered an apology, which being not admitted, became submissive. So well educated a boy gives great hopes to his friends. We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure. It is impossible to rise from another. These things should be never separated.

Note II. The adverb here, there, and where, ought not to be applied to verbs signifying motion; as, "He came here hastily," "They rode there with speed!" instead of "He came hither," "They rode thither," &c.

Examples to be corrected under Note 2, Rule IV.

It is reported that the prince will come here to-morrow. George is active; he walked there in less than an hour. Where are you all going in such haste? Whither have they been since they left the city?

Note III. Two negatives, in English, destroy one another, or are equivalent to an affirmative; as, "For did they not perceive him?" that is, "they did perceive him." "His language, though inelegant, is not ungrammatical;" that is, "it is grammatical."

Examples to be corrected under Note 3, Rule IV.

Neither riches, nor honors, nor such perishing goods can satisfy the desires of an immortal spirit. Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise. We need not nor do not confine his operations to Nothing never affected her so much as this misconduct of her child. Do not interrupt me yourselves, nor let no one disturb my retirement. The have received no information on the subject, neither from him nor from his friend.

PARTICIPLES.

RULE V.

Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or are governed by prepositions.

PRONOUNS.

RULE VI.

Relative pronouns agree with their antecedents in person, number, and gender.

[The relative being of the same person that the antecedent is, requires the verb which agrees with it, to be of the same person that it would be to agree with the antecedent; as, "Thou who %aunt wisdom walkest uprightly; He who know wisdom, walkest uprightly."]

Note I. All pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in person, number and gender.

ETYMOLOGY.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Note 1, Rule VI.

Rebecca took goodly raiment which was with her in the house, and put them on Jacob.

(Note proper, because the pronoun them, is of the plural number, and therefore does not properly represent the noun raiment, which is singular. But, according to Note I, Rule 6th, "All pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in person, number, and gender."

Therefore, they should be it; thus, "Rebecca took goodly raiment, which was with her in the house, and put it upon Jacob."

The male among birds seems to discover no beauty, but in the color of its species. The wheel killed another man, which is the sixth which have lost their lives by this means. The fair sex whose task is not to mingle in the labours of public life, has its own part assigned it to act. The mind of man cannot be 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. Thou, who has been a witness of the fact, canst give an account of it. In religious concerns, or what is conceived to be such, every man must stand, or fall, by the decision of the Great Judge.

Note II. The relative pronoun, who, should be applied only to persons (and to other animals permitted), which to other animals, and inanimate things.

Examples to be corrected under Note 2, Rule VI.

I am happy in the friend which I have long proved. The exercise of reason appears as little in these sportsmen, as in the beasts whom they sometimes hunt, and by whom they are sometimes hunted. They which seek wisdom, will certainly find her. The wheel killed another man, which is the sixth that has lost his life by this means.

Note III. The relative that (applied to persons) is preferable to who in the following cases:—First, after the interrogative who; as, "Who that has any sense of religion, would have argued thus?" Secondly, when persons make but part of the antecedent; as, "The woman and the estate, that became his portion, were rewards far beyond his desert. Thirdly, after an adjective in the superlative degree—and after the adjective same, that is generally used in preference to who or which, as, "Charles XII. king of Sweden, was one of the greatest madness that the world ever saw."

Examples to be corrected under Note 3, Rule VI.

Moses was the meekest man whom we read of in the Old Testament. Humility is one of the most amiable virtues which we can possess. The men and things which he has studied have not improved his morals.

Note IV. When the name of a person is used merely as a name, the relative which is to be used, and not who.

Examples to be corrected under Note 4, Rule VI.

Having once disgusted him, he could never regain the favor of Nero, who was indeed another name for cruelty. Flattery, whose nature is to deceive and betray, should be avoided as the poisonous adder.

Note V. The relative pronoun should be placed as near its antecedent as possible, to prevent ambiguity in the sense.
Examples to be corrected under Note 5, Rule VI.

The king dismissed his minister without any inquiry; who had never before committed so unjust an action. There are millions of people in the empire of China whose support is derived almost entirely from rice.

Note VI. When the antecedent only implies the idea of person, and expresses them by some circumstance or epithet, which should be used, and not so; as, "The faction which," &c.

Examples to be corrected under Note 6, Rule VI.

He instructed and fed the crowds who surrounded him. The court, who gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary.

Note VII. Personal pronouns being used to supply the place of the noun, should not be employed in the same part of the sentence; as, "The king is just."

Examples to be corrected under Note 7, Rule VI.

Whoever entertains such an opinion, he judges erroneously. The cares of this world, they often choke the growth of virtue.

RULE VII.

Every Adjective Pronoun belongs to some noun or pronoun expressed or understood. [See examples under Rule I.]

VERBS.

RULE VIII.

Transitive Verbs govern the objective case.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Who did they entertain so freely?

[Not proper, because the relative who, which is the object of the transitive verb did entertain, is in the nominative case. But, according to Rule III, "Transitive verbs govern the objective case." Therefore, who should be whom; thus, "Whom did they entertain so freely?"

They, who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of nature. Who have I reason to love so much as this friend of my youth? Ye, who were dead, hath he quickened. The man who he raised from obscurity is dead. He and they we know, but who are you? She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply. Who did they send to him on so important an errand? That is the friend who you must receive cordially, and whom you cannot esteem too highly. He invited my brother and I to see and examine his library. He who committed the offence, you should correct; not I who am innocent.

SYNTAX.

PARTICIPLES.

RULE IX.

Participles have the same government as the verbs have from which they are derived; as, "I am weary with hearing him." "She is instructing us." "The tutor is admonishing Charles."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Rule IX.

Suspecting ye of unfairness, I was studious to avoid all intercourse. Suspecting ye of unfairness, I was studious to avoid all intercourse. I could not ye, but they also, I was studious to avoid all intercourse.

Note IX. When an Article, Possessive Adjective Pronoun, or Noun, in the possessive case, is prefixed to a Participle, it becomes a Noun, and should be followed by the Preposition of, if there be any following word which needs government. Both must be used, or both omitted.

Examples to be corrected under Note 1, Rule IX.

By observing of truth, you will command esteem as well as secure peace. He prepared them for the event, by the sending to them proper information. A person may be great or rich by chance; but cannot be wise or good, without the taking pains for it. Nothing could have made her so unhappy as the marrying a man who possessed such principles.

CONJUNCTIONS.

RULE X.

Nouns and Pronouns connected by conjunctions must be in the same case.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Rule X.

You and we enjoy many privileges.

[Not proper, because the pronouns you, which is in the objective case, is connected to you, which is in the nominative. But, according to Rule IX, "Noun and pronoun connected by conjunctions must be in the same case." Therefore we should be we; thus, You and we enjoy many privileges.

My brother and him are tolerable grammarians. She and him are very unhappily connected. Between him and I there is some disparity of years; but none between him and she.
SYNTAX.

PREPOSITIONS.

RULE XI.

Prepositions govern the objective case.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Rule XI.

He laid the suspicion upon some body, I know not who in the company.

[Not proper, because the prepositional case, which is the object of the preposition upon, is in the nominative case. But, according to Rule 11th, "Prepositions govern the objective case." Therefore who should be whom? thus, I know not whom in the company.]

I hope it is not I who he is displeased with. To poor me, there is not much hope remaining. Does that boy know who he speaks to? Who does he offer such language to? It was not he they were so angry with. What concord can subsist between those who commit crimes, and they who abhor them? The person who I travelled with, has sold his horse which he rode on during our journey. Who did he receive that intelligence from?

Note 1. The preposition to is used before Nouns of place, when they follow Verbs, and participle of motion; but at is generally used after the Verb to be. The preposition at is not before countries, cities and large towns; but before villages, single houses, and cities, which are in distant countries, proceed by a Neuter Verb, as is used.

Examples to be corrected under Note 1, Rule XI.

I have been to London, after having resided a year at France; and I now live in Islington. They have just landed in Hull, and are going for Liverpool. They intend to reside some time at Ireland.

[For further remarks on the use of Prepositions see page 81.]

RULE XII.

A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case is governed by the noun it possesses; as, "My father's house;" "Man's happiness;" "Virtue's reward."

Note 1. In writing the possessive case, its proper form should be observed.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Note 1, Rule XII.

His brother's offence will not condemn him.

[Not proper, because the noun brothers, which is intended for the singular number possessive case, is in the plural number, and has not the proper form of that case. But, according to Note 1st, Rule 12th, "In writing the possessive case, its proper form should be observed." Therefore, brothers should be brother's; thus, his brother's offence will not condemn him.]

I will not destroy the city for ten sakes. Nevertheless, Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord. A mothers tenderness and a fathers care, are natures gifts' for mans advantage. A mans manner's frequently influence his fortune. Wisdoms precepts' form the good mans interest and happiness.
understand the subject, and attends to it industriously, he can scarcely fail of success. If a man have a hundred sheep, and one of them is gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety and nine and goeth into the mountains and seeketh that which is gone astray? To be moderate in our views and proceeding temperately in pursuit of them, is the best way to ensure success.

Note I. When the sense requires the Verbs to be of different moods or tenses, the nominative must be repeated—then the Conjunction will connect two members of the sentence, not two words.

Examples to be corrected under Note I, RULE XIV.

Rank may confer influence, but will not necessarily produce virtue. He does not want courage, but is defective in sensibility. These people have indeed acquired great riches, but do not command esteem. Our season of improvement is short; and whether used or not, will soon pass away. He might have been happy, and is now fully convinced of it.

Note II. When a Disjunctive occurs between a singular Noun or Pronoun, and a plural one, the Verb is made to agree with the plural Noun or Pronoun, which should be placed next to the Verb.

Examples to be corrected under Note II, RULE XIV.

Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, was present at the transaction. Some parts of the ship and cargo were recovered; but neither the sailors nor the captain was saved. The cares of this life, or the deceitfulness of riches, has choked the seeds of virtue in many a promising mind.

Note III. When two pronouns, or a noun and a pronoun of different persons, are disjunctively connected, the verb must agree in number and person with the word nearest to it.

Examples to be corrected under Note III, RULE XIV.

Either thou, or I art greatly mistaken, in our judgment on this subject. I or thou am the person who must undertake the business proposed.

RULE XV.

A Perfect Participle, unconnected with an auxiliary, relates to the noun or pronoun which it qualifies or describes.

RULE XVI.

Intransitive, Passive, and Neuter Verbs take the same case after as before them, when both words signify the same person, or thing.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under RULE XVI.

I would not the same part if I were him, or in his situation.
SYNTAX.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Rule XIX.

Neither custom nor analogy support this opinion.

[Not proper, because the verb agree is of the plural form, and therefore does not agree with its two nominatives, context and analogy taken separately. But, according to Rule VIII, a verb having its true or more nominatives connected in the disjunction or, or nor, must be of the singular form.] Therefore, agree should be corrected; thus, Neither context nor analogy support this opinion.

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. Speaking impatiently to servants, or any thing that betrays imputation or ill-humor, are certainly criminal. There are many faults in spelling, which neither analogy nor pronunciation justify. When sickness, infirmity, or reverse of fortune affect us, the sincerity of friendship is proved.

RULE XX.

When a noun or pronoun has no verb to agree with it, but is placed before a participle, it is in the nominative case absolute.

RULE XXI.

When a direct address is made to a person or thing, the noun or pronoun is in the nominative case independent.

RULE XXII.

The Infinitive Mood, or part of a sentence, is sometimes the subject of a verb, and therefore its nominative.

Note 1. When the sentence conveys a unity of idea, the Verb must be of the singular number; but when it conveys a plurality of meaning, it must be plural. The Verb must always be singular, when the nominative sentence, or part of sentence, is preceded by the Conjunction that.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Note 1, Rule XXII.

To live soberly, righteously, and piously, are required of all men.

(Note proper, because the verb are is of the plural number, and does not properly agree with the preceding words which convey a unity of idea, and form its nominative. But, according to Note 1, Rule XXII, "When the sentence conveys a unity of idea the verb must be of the singular number," &c. Therefore, we ought to be, thus, To live soberly, righteously, and piously, are required of all men.)

To do unto all men, as we would that they, in similar circumstances, should do unto us, constitute the great principle of virtue. From a fear of the world's censure, to be ashamed of the practice of precepts, which the best improve and embrace, mark a feeble and imperfect character. The erroneous opinions which we form concerning happiness and misery, gives rise to all the mistaken and dangerous passions that embroil our life. That it is our duty to promote the purity of our minds and bodies, to be just and kind to our fellow creatures, and to be pious and faithful to Him that made us, admit not of any doubt in a rational and well-informed mind. To be of a pure and humble mind, is the sure means of becoming peaceful and happy. The possession of our senses entire, of becoming peaceful and happy. A sound understanding, of friends and companions, are often overlooked; a sound understanding, of friends and companions, are often overlooked; in the possession of our senses entire, of becoming peaceful and happy.

ON THE USE OF THE MOODS AND TENSES.

Examples to be corrected under Rule XI.

The next new-year's day I shall be at school three years. And he that was dead, sat up and began to speak. I should be obliged to him if he were to come away; but to have a doubt in that particular. If these persons had interfered, they would have created an unnecessary conflict, and to have interfered, they would have created an unnecessary conflict. The next new-year's day I shall be at school three years.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Examples to be corrected under Note 1.

I always intended to have rewarded my son according to his merit. It was my duty to have rewarded my son according to his merit. He has been dead, sat up and began to speak. I shall be obliged to him if he were to come away; but to have a doubt in that particular. If these persons had interfered, they would have created an unnecessary conflict.

Examples to be corrected under Note II.

I always intended to have rewarded my son according to his merit. It was my duty to have rewarded my son according to his merit. He has been dead, sat up and began to speak. I shall be obliged to him if he were to come away; but to have a doubt in that particular. If these persons had interfered, they would have created an unnecessary conflict.
he advances more forcible reasons. I shall walk in the fields to-day unless it rains. As the governess were present, the children behaved properly. She disapproved the measure, because it were very improper. Though he be high, he hath respect to the lowly.

Note IV. Last and that, annexed to a command preceding, necessarily require the elliptical form of the Subjunctive Mood; and if, with if following it, when futurity is denoted, also require the elliptical form.

Examples to be corrected under Note IV.

Despise not any condition lest it happens to be your own. Let him that is sanguine, take heed lest he miscarries. Take care that thou breakest not any of the established rules. If he does but intimate his desire, it will be sufficient to produce obedience. At the time of his return, if he is but expert in the business, he will find employment. If he do but speak to display his abilities, he is unworthy of attention. If he be but in health, I am content. Though he do praise her, it is only for her beauty. If thou dost not forgive, perhaps thou wilt not be forgiven. If thou do sincerely believe the truths of religion, act accordingly. Unless he learns faster he will be no scholar. Though he falls he shall not be utterly cast down. On condition that he comes, I will consent to stay.

Note V. The Imperfect Tense, and all the compound Tenses of the Subjunctive, retain the same termination with the Conjunction than they would, in any other mood, without it.

This Note applies to all Verbs except the Neuter Verb be, this verb when in the subjunctive Mood, varies its form from the Indicative, in the Imperfect as well as in the Present Tense.

Examples to be corrected under Note V.

If thou hast promised, be faithful to thy engagement. Though he have proved his right to submission, he is too generous to exact it. Unless he have improved, he is unfit for the office. If thou hast succeeded, perhaps thou wouldst not be the happier for it. Though thou didst injure him, he harbors no resentment. Was he ever so great and opulent, this conduct would debase him. Was I to enumerate all her virtues, it would look like flattery. Though I was perfect, yet I would not presume. Unless thou canst fairly support the cause, give it up honorably. Though thou might have foreseen the danger, thou couldst not have avoided it.

Note VI. When the qualities of different things are compared, the latter Noun or Pronoun, is not governed by the Conjunction than or as, but agrees with a Verb, or is governed by a Verb or a Proposition expressed or understood; as, "thou art wiser than I?" that is, "than I am." "They loved him more than me?" that is, "more than they loved me." The sentence is well expressed by Plato; but much better by Solomon than he; that is, "than by him."

Examples to be corrected under Note VI.

In some respects, we have as many advantages as are; but in the article of a good library, they have a greater privilege than us. The undertaking was much better executed by his brother than he. They are much greater gainers than me by this unexpected event. They know how to write as well as him; but he is much better grammian than them. Though she is not so learned as him, she is as much beloved and respected. These people, though they possess more shining qualities, are not so proud as him, or so vain as her.
PROSODY.

Prosody consists of two parts; the former teaches the true pronunciation of words, comprising Accent, Quantity, Emphasis, Pause, and Tone; and the latter, the laws of Versification.

Accent.—Accent is the laying of a peculiar stress of the voice on a certain letter or syllable in a word, that it may be better heard than the rest, or distinguished from them; as in the word presume, the stress of the voice must be on the letter u, and second syllable unce, which takes the accent.

Quantity.—The quantity of a syllable is that time which is occupied in pronouncing it. It is considered as long or short.

A vowel or syllable is long, when the accent is on the vowel, which occasions it to be slowly joined, in pronunciation, to the following letter; as, “Fall, bale, mood, house, feature.”

A syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant; which occasions the vowel to be quickly joined to the succeeding letter; as, “ant, hunger.”

A long syllable requires double the time of a short one in pronouncing it: Thus, “Mate” and “Note” should be pronounced as slowly again, as “Mat” and “Not.”

Emphasis.—By emphasis is meant a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word or words on which we design to lay particular stress, and so show how they affect the rest of the sentence. Sometimes the emphatic words must be distinguished by a particular tone of voice, as well as by a greater stress.

Pauses.—Pauses or rests, in speaking and reading, are a total cessation of the voice, during a perceptible, and, in many cases, a measurable space of time.

VERSIFICATION.

Versification, or Poetry, is a species of composition, made according to certain harmonious measures or proportions of sound.

Rhyme is that kind of poetry in which the terminating sound of one line agrees with that of another; as,

Go tell my son said he,
All thou hast heard of me.

Blank verse, like other poetry, is measured, but does not rhyme; as,

All on earth is shadow; all beyond
Is substance: the reverse is folly’s creed.

PROSODY.

Of Poetical Feet.

A certain number of syllables, connected, form a foot. They are called feet, because it is by their aid that the voice, as it were, steps along through the verse in a measured pace: and it is necessary that the syllables, which mark this regular movement of the voice, should, in some way, be distinguished from the others.

Feet are all reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three syllables; viz.

A Trochee — A Dactyl —
An Iambus — An Amphibrach —
A Sponee — An Anapast —
A Pyrrhick — A Tribrach —

A Trochee has the first syllable accented and the last unaccented; as, hateful, pestilence.

Restless mortals toil! for nought;
Bliss in vain from earth is sought.

An Iambus has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented; as, delay, beheld.

And may å*t last my weary age,
Find out the peaceful hermitage.

A Sponee has both the words or syllables accented; as, a high tree, the pale moon.

See the bold youth strain up the threatening steep,
Old time brings man to his long home.

A Pyrrhick has both the words or syllables unaccented; as, on the tall tree.

In å small stream, by the side of å mountain,
We bath’d with delight.

A Dactyl has the first syllable accented, and the last two unaccented; as, conquéror, horrifiable.

From the low pleasures of this fallen nature,
Rise we to higher, &c.

An Amphibrach has the first and last syllable unaccented, and the middle one accented; as, delightful, amazening.

The piece you say is incorrect, why take it,
I’m all submission, what you’d have it make it.

An Anapast has the two first syllables accented, and the last unaccented; as, incommode, contravene.

May I govern my passions with absolute sway,
And grow wiser and better, as life fades away.

A Tribrach has all its syllables unaccented; as, unpardonable innumerable.

And rolls impetuous to the plain.
Some of these feet may be denominated principal feet; as pieces of poetry may be wholly, or chiefly formed of any of them. Such are the Trochee, Iambus, Dactyl, and Anapaest. They are capable also of numerous variations by mixing them with each other, and by the admission of the secondary feet. The Spondee, Pyrrhic, Amphibrach, and Triphoach are secondary feet.

Measure, in poetry, is the number of syllables or feet contained in a line. The measures that are most in use are those of ten, eight, and seven syllables; but the Spondeik, Trochilic, and Anapastick verse, is sometimes very short, and sometimes long measure.

Directions respecting the use of Capital Letters.

CAPITALS are used in the following situations.

1. At the beginning of every principal word in the titles of books, chapters, &c. as, "Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language; Rollin's Ancient History."

2. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.

3. The beginning of the first word after a period; and if the two sentences are totally independent, after a note of interrogation or exclamation. But, if a number of interrogative or exclamatory sentences are thrown into one general group; or, if the construction of the latter sentence depends on the former, all of them must be begun with small letters; as, "How long, ye simple ones, will ye love simplicity? and will ye neglect knowledge? Alas! how difficult! yet how like the same!"

4. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a semicolon, or when it is in a direct form; as, "Always remember this maxim; Knew thyself."

5. The pronoun I, and the interjection O, must always be capitals; as, "I write; O earth."

6. At the beginning of every line in poetry.

7. All names, epithets, or qualities of our Creator, are always begun, if not wholly written, with capitals; as, God, Lord, Supreme Being, Almighty, Most High, Divine Providence. The word hearse must always begin with a capital, when used as the name of the King of heaven; as, "May Heaven prosper you." But when it is used as the name of the whole of the blessed, it may begin with a small letter, except at the beginning of a sentence; as, "The angels of heaven." "The Lord of heaven and earth."

8. All proper names, of whatever description, must begin with capitals; of persons, heathen gods and goddesses, heathen, the planets, the fixed stars and constellations, countries, kingdoms, states, cities, towns, streets, islands, mountains, rivers, lakes, seas, oceans, &c. as, Benjamin Franklin; Sir Isaac Newton; the Allegany Mountains; the Ohio River; Lake Superior; the Red Sea; the Frigate Guerriere. Also all adjectives derived from proper names; as, the Newtonian System; Ceven, Roman, American, French, Italian, &c.

*Earth excepted.

RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.

COMMA

The Comma usually separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

Rule 1. The several words which compose a simple sentence, having in general so much of connection with each other, that no points are requisite, except a full stop at the end of it. But when the simple sentence is a long construction, or the nominative case is accompanied with inseparable adjectives, a comma should be inserted immediately before the verb.

Rule 2. When the connexion of the different parts of a simple sentence is interrupted by an imperfect phrase, a comma is usually placed before the beginning, and at the end of such phrase.

Rule 3. When two or more Nouns, two or more Adjectives, two or more Verbs, or Participles, or Adverbs occur in the same grammatical construction, they are separated from each other by a comma; but when they are closely connected by a conjunction, the comma should not be inserted.

Rule 4. Expressions in a direct address, the nominative case absolute, and the Infinitive Mood absolute, are separated from the body of the sentence by a comma.

Rule 5. Simple members of sentences, connected by comparatives, are, for the most part, separated by commas. If the members are short, the comma is better omitted.

Rule 6. When words are placed in opposition to each other, or with some marked variety, they should be distinguished by a comma. Such sentences are called antithetical.

9. All titles of honour, professions, and callings of men, particularly when an address is made, ought to begin with capitals; as, Governor, General, Judge, Esquire, Mr. &c. Also all qualities used as titles of men; as, Honorable, Reverend, &c.

10. Capsules are always used to begin the names of all courts, societies, and public bodies of men; as, Congress, the General Assembly, the Supreme Judicial Court, the Court of Common Pleas, the Humane Society, the Corporation, &c.

11. The names of all religious sects and denominations, are begun with capitals; as, Episcopalians, Baptists, Friends, &c.

12. Capsules are always used to begin the names of months, and the days of the week; as, January, February, &c. Monday, Tuesday, &c. Also all public days; as, a Public Thanksgiving, a Solemn Fast, &c.

13. The names of all articles of commerce, when entered in merchants' books, advertisements, &c. should begin with capitals; as, Linen, Cotton, Silk, Rum, Sugar, Tea, &c. Also all sums of money specified in notes, bonds, &c. as, Ten Dollars, and Seventy-five Cents.

14. Very emphatical words are frequently begun, and sometimes wholly written in capitals.

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RULE 7. Relative Pronouns are connective words, and generally admit a comma before them; but when two members or phrases are closely connected by a Relative, restraining the general motion of the antecedent to a particular sense, the comma should be omitted. The whole of this rule applies, when the Relative is understood, as well as when expressed.

RULE 8. A simple member of a sentence, contained within another or following another, must be distinguished, by a comma. If, however, the members succeeding each other are very closely connected, the comma is unnecessary. When a Verb in the Infinitive Mood follows its governing Verb, with several words between them, those words should generally have a comma at the end of them. Several Verbs in the Infinitive Mood, having a common dependence, and, succeeding one another, are also divided by commas.

RULE 9. When the Verb to be is followed by a Verb in the Infinitive Mood, which, by transposition, may be made the nominative, the Verb to be is separated from the following Verb by a comma.

RULE 10. Where a verb is understood, a comma may often be properly introduced.

RULE 11. The words now, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now lastly, once more, above all, on the contrary, in the next place, in short, and all other words and phrases of the same kind, must generally be separated from the context by a comma.

SEMICOLON.

The Semicolon is used for dividing a compound sentence into two or more parts, not so closely connected as those which are separated by a comma, nor yet so little dependent on each other, as those which are distinguished by a colon.

[This point is not so much used as formerly.]

The Colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon; but not so independent as separate, distinct sentences.

The colon may be applied in the three following cases:

1. When a member of a sentence is complete in itself, but followed by some explanatory remark.

2. When a semicolon, or more than one, have preceded, and a still greater pause is necessary, in order to mark the concluding sentiment, and show its relation to the first.

3. The colon is generally used when an example, a quotation, or speech is introduced; as, The Scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: "God is love."

PERIOD.

When a sentence is complete and independent, and not connected in construction with the following sentence, it is marked with a period.

The period should be used, also, after every abbreviated word; as, M. S.—P. S.—N. B.—A. D.—O. S.—N. S., &c.

The Point of Interrogation (?) is used when a question is asked. The Exclamation (!) is used when some sudden emotion of surprise, joy, grief, or necessary &c. is expressed. The Parentheses (()) are used when some necessary information or useful remark is introduced into the body of the sentence construction; as, "Know, then, this truth, (enough for man to know,) Virtue alone is happiness below."

There are other characters, which are frequently made use of in composition, which may be explained in this place, viz:

An Apostrophe, marked thus ' is used to abbreviate or shorten a word; as 'tis for it is; tho' for though; e'en for even; judge'd for judged. Its chief use is to show the possessive case of nouns; as, "A man's property; A woman's ornament."

A Caret, marked thus ^ is placed where some word happens to be left out in writing, and which is inserted over the line.

A Hyphen, marked thus - is employed in connecting compounded words; as, Lap-dog, tea-pot, pre-existence, self-love, to-morrow, mother-in-law.

A Quotation " " Two inverted commas are generally placed at the beginning of a phrase or a passage, which is quoted or transcribed from the speaker or author in his own words; and two commas in their direct position, are placed at the conclusion; as, "The proper study of mankind is man."