

CONVERSATIONS

ON

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX;

BEING

AN ABSTRACT OF CONVERSATIONS

ON

ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

TO WHICH

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX ARE ANNEXED;

ADAPTED TO THE USE OF FAMILIES AND SCHOOLS.

BY CHARLES M. INGERSOLL.

There is no other method of teaching that of which any one is ignorant, than by means of something already known.—*Dr. Johnson.*

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Eastern District of Pennsylvania, to wit:

BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the tenth day of October, in the forty-seventh year of the Independence of the United States of America, A. D. 1822, Charles M. Ingersoll, of the said District, hath deposited in this office the title of a book, the right whereof he claims as author, in the words following, to wit:

"Conversations on Etymology and Syntax; being an abstract of Conversations on English Grammar; to which Exercises in False Syntax are annexed; adapted to the use of Families and Schools. By Charles M. Ingersoll. There is no other method of teaching that of which any one is ignorant, than by means of something already known.—Dr. Johnson."

In conformity to the act of the Congress of the United States, intitled "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 the 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 extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving, and etching historical and other prints."

D. CALDWELL,
Clerk of the Eastern District of Pennsylvania.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

The following are some of the recommendations of the work from which this Abstract is taken.

The following remarks by Mr. Walsh, are taken from "The National Gazette" of the 7th Sept. 1821.

"Our avocations prevented us from examining, until lately, 'The Conversations on English Grammar,' &c. by Charles M. Ingersoll; a work which was published not long since at New York. It appears to us to be superior in the plan and execution, as regards the purpose for which it is mainly designed,—the use of schools,—to any elementary treatise of English Grammar with which we are acquainted. He has chosen the happiest form and the most efficacious mode of instruction; and would seem, from the sound general views presented in his well written Preface, to have studied, with the greatest care, the kind and degree of assistance which the youthful mind requires in the pursuit of abstract knowledge. In his 'Conversations,' the nature, principles, and rules of English Grammar, are so unfolded, progressively, that the learner is assisted by each step in every further advance, and all the preliminary ideas necessary to the comprehension of any particular topic, are fixed in his mind as far as it is practicable.

"Mr. Ingersoll has, without question, administered important helps, in this volume, to such as are sufficiently ripe in understanding to master the subject. The work is a valuable accession to the list of school manuals, and may be profitably consulted by adults in every liberal walk of life."

—
"Mr. Charles M. Ingersoll,

"Sir—I have read with much satisfaction your 'Conversations on English Grammar.' The work contains all that is useful in Murray, Lowth, and others writers on grammar; and the instruction is conveyed on a plan entirely new, and well adapted to fix it methodically and permanently on the mind. Its introduction into our seminaries of education would facilitate the progress of the pupil, and I certainly hope that you may receive the patronage which the distinguished merits of this work demand. I am, sir, your most obedient servant,

J. V. N. YATES,

"Secretary of State, and, ex-officio, Superintendent of Common Schools."
Albany, Sept. 1, 1821.

—
Extract from the Montreal Courant, of August 11th, 1821.

"Education.—We again introduce the subject of Mr. Ingersoll's new system of Grammar, from the firm conviction of its superiority over any other work on the same subject."

—
"Messrs. Wiley & Halstead—I have examined with attention, and with pleasure, 'Conversations on English Grammar,' by Charles M. Ingersoll, Esq. and have no hesitation in saying, that, in my opinion, it is incom-

parably the best English Grammar, for the use of schools, that has been laid before the public. I trust that the facilities which it offers to young learners, will induce parents who consult their own interest and that of their children, and teachers who intend to do their duty to both, to unite in giving this book an immediate introduction into all our schools.

J. PERRY,

"Teacher of the Classical and Grammar School, No. 142 Fulton street."
New York, May 14th, 1822.

"We, the undersigned, Teachers in the city of Richmond, having examined Mr. C. M. Ingersoll's Conversations on English Grammar, conceive it a duty which we owe to the public, as well as to the author, to announce, that, in our opinion, the arrangement and improvements are most happily adapted to facilitate the acquisition of a correct grammatical knowledge.

"We recommend it as the best composition of the kind, which we have ever examined, and doubt not, that its general adoption would prove to be of vast utility in the instruction of youth.

PETER NELSON,

Former President of Washington Henry Academy.

HEBBERT C. THOMSON,

J. H. TURNER,

JNO. L. NELSON.

The following, by N. H. Carter, Esq. late Professor of Languages in Dartmouth College, is an extract from the Statesman.

"Mr. Ingersoll has brought to his subject a clear and philosophical mind; an extensive and accurate knowledge of the principles of universal grammar, and of the English language in particular; much experience in the science on which he has written; and a happy faculty of expressing and illustrating his ideas. It would exceed the limits of a newspaper paragraph to enter into a full explanation of his system. Suffice it to say, that he has, in our opinion, introduced many valuable improvements both in matter and manner. He has reversed many parts of the system of grammar, putting the first last, and the last, first, and following the order of the understanding, instead of the artificial and unnatural arrangement which his predecessors have adopted. His investigations have stripped the science of many of its technicalities, and of much of the mystery in which it has been enveloped; and by relieving the pupil from the severest and most irksome of all tasks—that of committing to memory what he does not comprehend, Mr. Ingersoll has rendered the study of grammar at once easy, pleasing, and profitable. Able and experienced instructors have pronounced it to be decidedly the best system which they have met with, and there is a prospect of its coming into general use. On the whole, we fully concur in the favourable opinion which others have expressed, and believe it to be a work highly creditable to its author, and worthy of public patronage."

William Coleman, Esq. Editor of the Evening Post, copied the whole article, and said, "As an evidence of our acquiescence in the above remarks of Mr. Carter, we have republished the above article. Mr. Ingersoll, in the course of this work, discovers an extensive and thorough acquaintance with the English grammarians who have preceded him; sometimes agreeing and sometimes disagreeing with them, and always states his reasons in language at once plain and perspicuous."

PREFACE.

1. THE suggestions of many respectable teachers who use "Conversations on English Grammar," have induced the author to prepare this **ABSTRACT** for the use of young learners, both in families and schools. It contains matter sufficient to give the pupil a good knowledge of Etymology and Syntax; and the arrangement and explanations of the subject, are such as will, with a few weeks' application, enable him to parse the English language with accuracy and despatch.

Parents, even those who have but a slender knowledge of English Grammar themselves, may, by using this book, or the larger editions of the same work, teach their children successfully, and with little labour to themselves or their pupils. Of this, it is believed, that any one who will take the trouble to read *one conversation*, and examine the arrangement of the subject-matter, will be convinced.

2. *It is the plan of this work*, to unfold to the learner's view, in his progress from the simplest elements to the most complicated connexions,

only such parts of the subject as he is prepared fully to comprehend; then to impress them thoroughly in his memory, by presenting parsing exercises, annexed to each conversation, composed exclusively of the materials previously explained; and to combine in each successive exercise, all the principles, presented in those which precede. Thus, at every step, what is *new*, is associated with what is *known*; and what is *known*, becomes more familiar by repetition.

In conformity to this plan, the verb is parsed, for a considerable time, without regard to the moods and tenses; the explanation of these being deferred, till the nature and character of this part of speech, are well understood. The explanations of the *passive* and *neuter* verbs are also deferred, till the *active* verb, and all the moods and tenses, are thoroughly known.

3. *The Questions and Exercises in Parsing*, annexed to each conversation, are, word for word, the same that are used in the entire work, and in the Abridgment.

The conversations are also numbered to correspond to those in the larger editions; (No. III. being set over the *first* conversation in this Abstract, because this is the *third* in the larger

editions, the first two, treating of Orthography, being excluded;) so that the three sizes may be used in the same class without confusion or inconvenience, if the *conversation* be referred to instead of the *page*.

4. One word, as to the *manner of teaching* with this book.

The pupil's business will not be to commit to memory, and recite verbatim, any particular portion of a conversation; but to read the *whole* conversation carefully, till he can answer the questions, and parse the exercises; and, when he can do this, he will, necessarily, not only have committed to memory all the rules and definitions, but he will understand their application.

No child should commence the study of grammar, till he is sufficiently matured, and advanced in his general knowledge of words, to comprehend what is written in these conversations. Many will be able to do this at seven years of age; but more, not till a later period. But whatever may be the age of the learner, the time spent in committing definitions and rules of grammar, before he is sufficiently improved to understand these simple conversations, and apply the principles and rules, *explained* in them,

in parsing the lessons annexed, will be *worse than lost*; for the subject cannot be presented to him in any form which will enable him to comprehend it at all, if he cannot understand it as it is here treated; and to compel him to study what his years, experience, and general acquirements, have not prepared him to understand, is not only *not to improve him*, but to do him a positive injury.

Philadelphia, Sept. 1822.

CONVERSATIONS ON ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

CONVERSATION III.

TUTOR—GEORGE—CAROLINE.

Tutor. Grammar treats of language, and may be divided into two sorts, Universal and Particular. Universal Grammar explains the principles which are common to all languages. Particular Grammar applies those general principles to a particular language, modifying them according to the genius of that language, and the established practice of the best speakers and writers by whom it is used.

George. I suppose, then, that the established practice of the best speakers and writers, is the standard by which we determine an expression to be grammatical or not.

Tutor. Yes. But I will proceed. Grammar treats,

First, of articulate sounds, which are the sounds of the human voice, formed by the organs of speech, and of the form and sound of letters, which are the representatives of those articulate sounds; of the combination of letters into syllables, and of syllables into words;

Secondly, of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivations;

Thirdly, of the just arrangement of words in the formation of a sentence; and

Fourthly, of the proper pronunciation and poetical construction of sentences. These four parts of Grammar are called,

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 1. ORTHOGRAPHY, | 3. SYNTAX, and |
| 2. ETYMOLOGY, | 4. PROSODY. |

At present, I shall speak only of ETYMOLOGY and SYNTAX.

Etymology treats of the different sorts of words, of their derivation, and various modifications on account of cases, moods, and tenses. *Syntax* treats of the arrangement of words in a sentence according to grammatical rules. But you cannot, at present, perfectly comprehend these definitions: I shall illustrate them more fully as we advance, and as I find you prepared to understand the subject.

Caroline. You say Etymology treats of the different sorts of words; I think there must be a great many sorts.

Tutor. Not so many, perhaps, as you imagine. Although there are nearly forty thousand words in the English language, yet there are only *ten* different sorts, viz. the NOUN, or SUBSTANTIVE,

VERB, ARTICLE, ADJECTIVE, PARTICIPLE, ADVERB, PRONOUN, CONJUNCTION, PREPOSITION, and INTERJECTION. We call these different sorts of words, parts of speech.

A substantive, or Noun, is the name of any thing that exists, or of which we have any notion. The word Noun, means name. The name of any thing which we can see, taste, smell, hear, feel, or conceive of, is a noun. Book, apple, rose, song, pin, modesty, truth, bravery, are nouns. Nouns have four different properties belonging to them, viz. *person*, *number*, *gender*, and *case*.

Nouns have two persons, the second and third. When we speak *of*, or *about* a thing, the word, which is the name of that thing, is a noun of the *third* person; when we speak *to* a person or thing, it is of the *second* person: as, when addressing a person, I say, The *book* is on the *table*, George;—the nouns, book and table, are of the *third* person, but George is of the *second* person, because I speak *of* the book, and the table, but I speak *to* George. Girls, study your lesson. In this example, girls is a noun of the *second* person, and lesson of the *third* person.

Nouns have two numbers, the singular number, and the plural number. When a word is the name of one person or thing, it is of the singular number; when it denotes more than one, it is of the plural number.

Nouns have three Genders. GENDER is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex. When a noun denotes animals of the male kind, it is of the *Masculine Gender*; when it denotes ani-

mals of the female kind, it is of the *Feminine Gender*; and when it signifies objects that are neither males nor females, it is of *Neuter Gender*. *Neuter* means neither one nor the other.

Nouns have three cases; the Nominative case, the Possessive case, and the Objective case. Case is the condition, or situation of the noun in relation to other words in the sentence.

At present I will explain to you, only the Nominative case; the others will be explained hereafter. A noun which denotes an animal or thing that does an action is in the Nominative case.* Or, in other words, when a noun is the *actor* or *agent*, it is in the nominative case. And if a noun signifies an actor, there must be some word in the sentence expressing the action.

George. What are the words, which express actions, called?

Tutor. VERBS. I shall now give you only such a definition of a Verb, as is sufficient for your present purpose; and, indeed, the only one which you can yet clearly comprehend; but, as we advance, I shall give you a more complete definition. And let me remark to you, once for all, that I shall present to you only such parts of the subject as I know you are prepared to understand; and give you such definitions as you can comprehend at the time they are given. Each Conversation will prepare you for the one that will follow.

George. That is the way in which you have

* This definition is sufficient for the learner's present purpose. See Conv. XVIII, the definition in *Italic*.

instructed us in other subjects; and if you can do so in this, I am sure we shall be interested in it.

Tutor. I will proceed with the Verb. A verb is a word that expresses an action of some creature or thing. Thus, if I say, The boy runs—The ball rolls—The dog barks—The bird flies—The children play—The rain falls—you can be at no loss to know which words are the verbs. They are those that express the actions, viz. runs—rolls—barks—flies—play—falls. The nouns, boy, ball, dog, bird, children, rain, are *actors*, or persons and things that act or move, and, therefore, in the nominative case to the verbs that express their several actions.

You may perceive, then, how intimate the connexion is, between the nominative case and the verb: one denotes the actor, and the other the action. And you will readily see that, if only one animal or thing acts, there can be only one action. Or, in other words, when the word denoting the *actor* signifies only one thing, the word denoting the *action* will signify only one action. Thus, when I say, the box rolls—*box* is in the singular number, because it denotes but one thing, and *rolls* denotes but one action, which the box does; therefore the verb *rolls* is of the singular number, just like the nominative *box*. If the nominative case, or the actor, is of the singular number, the verb must also be of the singular number. And the verb must also be of the same *person* that the nominative case is. On this account I will give you a rule.

RULE I.

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

I shall now give you some sentences to *parse*. Parsing a noun is telling its person, number, gender, and case; and also telling all its grammatical relations in a sentence with respect to other words. Parsing any part of speech is telling all its properties and relations. These relations, then, must be perfectly understood before the scholar can parse. You cannot yet parse a verb completely, as you are not yet informed of all its distinctions and properties; but you can explain such as you have already learned.

When you parse verbs, you will only tell their persons and numbers, which are the same as those of their nominatives; and you will tell with what nominative the verb agrees, according to the rule which I have just given you. You will not give to the verb *gender* and *case*. I will parse for you one sentence, containing a nominative case and a verb; the only sort of sentences which you are prepared to parse.

EXAMPLE.

Smoke ascends. Smoke is a noun of the *third* person, singular number, of neuter gender, in the nominative case to the verb *ascends*. *Ascends* is a verb of the third person, singular number, and agrees with its nominative case *smoke*.
A verb must agree, &c.

Now, parse this sentence several times, till the manner of parsing it is quite familiar to you, and then parse the following

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Snow falls.

Boys play.

Men labour.

David studies.

Emma writes.

Man talks.

Fire burns.

Cats mew.

Ladies dance.

Children study.

Girls write.

Men talk.

REMARKS ON NUMBER.

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

Some 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, bellows, scissors, ashes, riches, &c.

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

The plural number of nouns is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular: as, dove, doves; face, faces; thought, thoughts. But when the substantive 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, rebuses. If the singular ends in *ch* hard, the plural is formed by adding, only the *s*: as, monarch, monarchs; distich, distichs.

Nouns which end in *o*, have sometimes *es*

added to form the plural: as, cargo, echo, hero, negro, manifesto, potato, volcano, wo: and sometimes only *s*: as, folio, nuncio, punctilio, seraglio. When the *o* is immediately preceded by a vowel, we add only *s*.

Nouns ending in *f*, or *fe*, are rendered plural by the change of those terminations into *ves*: as, loaf, loaves; half, halves; wife, wives: except grief, relief, reproof, and several others, which, form the plural by the addition of *s*. Those which end in *ff*, have the regular plural: as, ruff, ruffs; except staff, staves.

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

It is agreeable 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*, *pneumatics*, with other similar names of sciences.

The word *news* is now almost universally considered as belonging to the singular number.

The noun *means* is used both in the singular and the plural number.

Some words derived from the learned languages, are confined to the plural number: as, antipodes, credenda, literati, minutæ.

The following nouns being, in Latin, both singular and plural, are used in the same manner,

when adopted into our tongue: hiatus, apparatus, series, species.

QUESTIONS.

What is Grammar?

How may Grammar be divided?

What does Universal Grammar explain?

What does Particular Grammar teach?

What does English Grammar teach?

What is the standard of English Grammar, by which we must be governed?

Into how many parts is English Grammar divided?

What are they called?

Of what does each treat?

How many parts of speech are there?

What is a noun?

How many persons has it?

How do you distinguish the persons?

How many numbers have nouns?

What are they?

How do you distinguish them?

How many genders have nouns?

What are they?

How do you know them?

How many cases have nouns?

When is a noun in the nominative case?

What is a verb?

What belong to verbs?

Have they genders and cases?

How do you know the person and number of verbs?

Are verbs of the singular and plural number spelled alike?

What rule do you give when you parse a verb?

What is the use or necessity of this rule?

What nouns are used only in the singular form?

What are used only in the plural form?

What are the same in both numbers?

How is the plural number of nouns generally formed?

When the noun singular ends in *x*, *ch* soft, *sh*, *ss*, or *s*, how is the plural formed?

But if the singular ends in *ch* hard, how is the plural formed?

How do nouns ending in *o*, form their plural?

How those ending in *f*, or *fe*? what exceptions?

How those in *y*? what exception?

What is the general rule respecting the names of things weighed and measured?

Is there any exception to this?

What nouns change *a* into *e*, and *oo* into *ee*, to form the plural?

What is the plural of *brother*?

Of what number are *fruits*, *riches*, *alms*, *ethics*, *optics*, &c.?

Of what number is *news*?

How is the noun *means* used?

How are *hiatus*, *apparatus*, *series*, *species*, used? Why?

CONVERSATION IV.

OF NOUNS AND VERBS. CASES OF NOUNS.

Tutor. You were yesterday informed, that nouns have three cases, the Nominative, Possessive, and Objective; but I explained only the *Nominative*, which denotes an actor. I shall now give you the *Possessive* and *Objective* cases.

When the noun is in the Possessive Case, it denotes the possessor of some thing, and is spelled differently from the nominative case: as, Boy's hat.—The boy is the possessor of the hat, which is shown by an apostrophe and an *s*, after the word boy. When a noun of the plural number ends in *s*, and is in the possessive case, we only add an *apostrophe* to it: as, Boys' hats.—If the plural number is formed otherwise than by adding *s* to the singular, the possessive case *plural* is formed by the apostrophe and the *s* also, just as we form the possessive case *singular*: as,—Man's house.—Men's house.—Woman's bonnet.—Women's bonnets. In these examples, *man's*, and *woman's*, are in the possessive case, singular number, and the nouns *men's* and *women's*, are in the possessive case, plural number.

Caroline. I understand the Nominative and Possessive cases; please to explain the Objective.

Tutor. The *Objective* case denotes the object of an action, and is spelled just as the nominative is. The following examples illustrate the three cases of nouns.

EXAMPLES.*

Nom. Case.	Verb.	Poss. Case.	Obj. Case.
The boy	beats	the man's	horse.
The horse	kicks	the man's	boy.
The man	struck	that man's	man.
The servant	lost	those boys'	ball.

You have now had nouns in their three cases; and see that *case* means the different situation or relation of nouns in sentences. Every noun must be either in the Nominative, Possessive, or Objective Case.

When we put a noun in the three cases without making a sentence, but merely to show the termination of the noun in the different cases, we call it *declining* a noun. Termination means ending. The Possessive case you have seen has a termination, or ending, different from that of the Nominative, or Objective case.

• The nouns, Man and Mother, are thus declined :

Sing. num.		Plu. num.	
Nom.	Man	Nom.	Men
Poss.	Man's	Poss.	Men's
Obj.	Man	Obj.	Men

* The pupil should parse the nouns and verbs in these examples, omitting the other words.

Sing. num.		Plu. num.	
Nom.	Mother	Nom.	Mothers
Poss.	Mother's	Poss.	Mothers'
Obj.	Mother	Obj.	Mothers

When nouns in the singular number end in *ss*, we sometimes write the Possessive case with an apostrophe only, without another *s*; as *goodness' sake*, *righteousness' sake*; because it would cause too much of a hissing sound to say *goodness's sake*, &c. But the apostrophic *s*, is not always omitted in words ending in double *s*. We write the word *witness*, when in the Possessive case, thus: *Witness's* testimony. When the word ends in *ence*, the *s* should be omitted: as, for conscience' sake; but, observe, the apostrophe is used.

George. Yes, for conscience's sake, would not only be disagreeable to the ear, but somewhat difficult to be pronounced with distinctness. But although we have nouns in all their cases, we know how to parse them only in the Nominative case.

Tutor. I will give you two rules which will inform you how to parse the Possessive and Objective cases.

RULE II.

When two nouns come together, signifying different things, the former implying possession must be in the possessive case, and governed by the latter.

Sometimes the latter noun which governs the Possessive case is understood: as, this is

John's hat, but that is Peter's. The noun hat is understood after Peter's, and it governs Peter's in the Possessive case.

RULE III.

Transitive verbs govern the objective case.

Caroline. We do not know what a *transitive* verb is.

Tutor. A *transitive* verb, is one that expresses an action done to some *object*, and governs that object in the objective case.

George. What does the word *transitive* mean?

Tutor. It means *passing*—or having the power of passing from one thing to another. When applied to a verb, it means that the verb expresses an action which the Nominative case does to some object: as, men *build* houses—horses *eat* hay—fire *consumes* wood. In these sentences, *build*, *eat*, *consumes*, are *transitive verbs*, and govern *houses*, *hay*, and *wood*, in the objective case, according to the rule, *Transitive verbs govern the objective case*.

Caroline. I suppose if a *transitive* verb expresses an action done to some object, an *intransitive* verb must express an action which is not done to any object.

Tutor. You are right. Intransitive verbs express actions confined to the actors. Give me an example of an intransitive verb.

Caroline. George *runs*. *Runs* is an intransitive verb, because George's action is confined to himself, and does not affect any object.

Tutor. Very well explained. Now, George, give me an example of a *transitive* verb.

George. Caroline broke the glass. *Broke* is a *transitive* verb, because it expresses an action done by the Nominative case *Caroline*, to the object *glass*. *Broke* governs *glass* in the Objective case, according to Rule III, *Transitive verbs govern*, &c.

Caroline. Give us, if you please, a few such sentences as we are prepared to parse, that we may practise upon them.

Tutor. I will.

Horses draw men's carriages.

I will parse this sentence for you, and then you can parse the others yourselves. If you find any difficulty, reflect upon what has been told you, and you will at length succeed. *Horses* is a noun of the third person, plural number, masculine gender, in the nominative case to the verb *draw*. *Draw* is a transitive verb of the third person, plural number, and agrees with its nominative case *horses* according to Rule I, which says, The verb must agree, &c. *Men's* is a noun of the third person, plural number, masculine gender, in the Possessive case, and is governed by the following noun *carriages*, agreeably to Rule II. Repeat the rule. *Carriages* is a noun of the third person, plural number, of neuter gender, in the Objective case, and is governed by the transitive verb *draw*, according to Rule III. Repeat the rule.

Parse the following sentences, in the same

manner, only take care to call the verb *intransitive*, when there is no object acted upon.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Foxes kill people's geese. Women wash children's clothes. Women walk. Mothers make daughters' frocks—Daughters increase mothers' pleasures—John whips Peter's dog—Peter's dog bites John's finger—George's wife's sister loves Emma's brother.—In this last sentence *George's* is governed by *wife's*, and *wife's* by *sister*.

David *plays*—Boys *play*—Take notice in these, as well as in the other sentences, that the singular verb ends in *s*, but in writing the plural verb the *s* is omitted.

REMARKS ON NOUNS.

Substantives or nouns, are either common or proper.

Proper names or substantives, are the names appropriated to individuals: as, George, Boston, Delaware, Ohio.

Common names or substantives, stand for kinds containing many sorts, or for sorts containing many individuals under them: as, animal, man, tree, &c.

When proper names have an article annexed to them, they are used as common names: as, "He is *the Cicero* of his age; he is reading the lives of *the Twelve Cæsars*."

To substantives belong gender, number, and case; and they are all of the third person, when spoken of, and of the second, when spoken to:

as, "Blessings attend us on every side; be grateful, children of men!" that is, *ye* children of men.

Some substantives, 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.

Nouns 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: *Verbal* or *participial* nouns: as, beginning, reading, writing.

The English language has three methods of distinguishing the sex, viz.

1. By different words: as,

Male.	Female.
Bachelor	Maid.
Boar	Sow
Boy	Girl
Dog	Bitch
Drake	Duck
Earl	Countess

2. By a difference of termination: as,

Male.	Female.
Abbot	Abbess
Actor	Actress
Administrator	Administratrix
Jew	Jewess
Landgrave	Landgravine
Lion	Lioness

3. *By a noun, pronoun, or adjective, being prefixed to the substantive: as,*

A cock-sparrow

A hen-sparrow

A man-servant

A maid-servant

It sometimes happens, that the same noun is either masculine or feminine. The words *parent, child, cousin, friend, neighbour, servant*, and several others, are used indifferently for males or females. *Parents* is a noun of the masculine and feminine gender; *Parent*, if doubtful, is of the masculine or feminine gender; *Parent*, if the gender is known by the construction, is of the gender so ascertained.

QUESTIONS.

What is a noun?

How many persons have nouns?

How many numbers?

How many genders?

How many cases?

How do you distinguish the three cases?

What rule do you give when you parse the possessive case?

When you parse an objective case what rule?

What is a verb?

What distinction have I given respecting a verb?

What is the difference between a *transitive* and an *intransitive* verb?

Are verbs, in the singular number, written as they are in the plural?

What is the distinction between a common and a proper noun?

Of what person are all nouns?

How are nouns, naturally neuter, made of masculine or feminine gender?

Can proper nouns be converted into common nouns? How?

CONVERSATION V.

OF ARTICLES.

Tutor. In the two preceding Conversations, I endeavoured to explain to you the two principal parts of speech in the language, viz. the *Noun* and the *Verb*. Every thing that you see about you is called by some name. The substance on which I write is called *paper*; the thing with which I write, is called a *pen*; the thing which you hold in your hand, is called a *book*; and the thing which Caroline wears in her hair, is called a *comb*. You perceive, then, that *things* are called by names as well as persons; and a word that is a name, you know, is a noun. A Verb, you remember, is a word of a very different meaning from a noun: a Verb signifies an *action* that some person or thing does. I will now introduce another part of speech.

An Article is a word prefixed to nouns, to limit their signification.

In the English language, there are but two

articles, *a* and *the* : *a* becomes *an*, when the following word begins with a vowel, or a silent *h* : as, *an acorn*, *an hour*. Here you see that *acorn* begins with a vowel; and *h* in *hour* is silent; therefore *an* is used; for the first letter sounded in *hour* is the vowel *o*.

George. Must we always use *a* before a word beginning with *h* that is sounded?

Tutor. No : there is one exception. *An* must be used when the following word begins with an *h* that is sounded, if the accent is on the second syllable : as, *an heroic action*, *an historical account*. But when the *h* is sounded, and the accent is not on the second syllable, *a* is only to be used : as, *a hand*, *a husband*, *a heathen*.

Caroline. You said we must use *an*, and not *a*, before a word beginning with a vowel; is there no exception to that?

Tutor. Yes : there are two. *An* must not be used before the vowel *u*, when it is sounded long, but *a* : as, *a union*, *a university*, *a useful book*, &c. *A* must be used also before the word *one* : as, *many a one*—because in pronouncing *one*, we sound it as if it were written with a *w*.

A or *an* is called the indefinite article; because it is used to point out one single thing of a kind in an indefinite manner : as, Give me *a* book—Bring me *an* apple; not meaning any particular book, or any particular apple. *The* is called the definite article; because it points out what particular thing or things are meant : as, Give me *the* book—Bring me *the* apples; meaning some particular book, or apples. A

noun used without an article to limit it, is generally taken in the widest sense : as, *Man is mortal*. You readily see that this does not mean the same, as *a man is mortal*. The former phrase means, the creature, man, that is, all mankind; the latter restricts the meaning to an individual. The rule we give, then, when we parse an article, is

RULE IV.

The article refers to a noun, expressed or understood, to limit its signification.

George. Do both the articles limit the nouns they refer to?

Tutor. Yes; but in different ways. *A* or *an* requires the following noun to be in the singular number, and therefore limits it as to its number.

Caroline. Does *a* or *an* always require the following noun to be singular?

Tutor. Not always; for when the words *few*, *great many*, *dozen*, *hundred*, *thousand*, come between the article and noun, the noun is plural : as, *a few men*, *a great many men*, *a dozen men*, *a hundred houses*, *a thousand houses*.

George. I could not properly say, *a houses*; but if I use *few*, or any of the words you mentioned, I perceive that the noun must be plural : as, *a few houses*, &c. But the definite article, *I see*, may be used with nouns of either number : I can say, *the house*, or *the houses*, with equal propriety; how then does the definite article limit its noun?

Tutor. By referring to some particular thing

or things, *known* ; while *a* or *an* refers to things unknown, and of course, to no *particular* thing.

Caroline. I believe, that we now entirely comprehend the different uses of the articles.

Tutor. I think you do ; and I shall now write several questions for you to answer, and then give you a parsing lesson.

QUESTIONS.

How many articles are there in the English language ?

What are they called ?

For what purpose are they used ?

How does the indefinite article limit the noun ?

How does the definite article limit it ?

When must *a* become *an* ?

In what instances must *a* be used before a vowel ?

When must *an* be used before an *h* that is not silent ?

When must *a* be followed by a plural noun ?

What *rule* do you give when you parse the articles ?

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The men saw wood. A boy runs. A girl writes. The husband governs the family. An owl hoots. The owls hoot. An ostrich runs. A bird flies. The ladies teach the children. The merchant sells the goods. The farmers sell produce.

REMARKS ON THE ARTICLES.

The article is omitted before nouns that im-

ties, sciences, arts, metals, herbs, &c. : as "prudence is commendable ; falsehood is odious ; anger ought to be avoided," &c.

When an adjective is used with the noun to which the article relates, it is placed between the article and the noun : as, "a *good* man," "an *agreeable* woman," "the *best* friend." On some occasions, however, the adjective precedes *a* or *an* : as, "*such* a shame," "as *great* a man as Alexander," "too *careless* an author."

CONVERSATION VI.

OF ADJECTIVES.

Tutor. An ADJECTIVE is a word added to a noun to express some *quality*, or *circumstance* of the *person* or *thing*, of which the noun is the name : as, a *good* apple—a *sweet* apple—a *small* apple. I wish you to be careful to make the distinction here between the word that denotes the *thing*, and the word that denotes the mere *quality* or *circumstance* of the thing. I have known many pupils to mistake the adjective for the *noun*, even after studying grammar a long time. A little reflection on the nature of these two parts of speech, will prevent mistakes of this sort. When I say, that I wear a *new* hat, you may readily perceive the difference between the word denoting the *thing*, and the word de-

thing it is. In order to make yourselves familiar with the adjective, write a few *nouns*, and then prefix as many *adjectives* to them as you can. Thus, you may write the nouns, *trees, room, table, street, &c.* and then prefix such adjectives to them, as will make sense: as, *dry, tall, green, shady, trees, &c.*—a *warm, high, low, well-furnished, room*—a *short, wide, narrow, dirty, or cleanly, table or street*. You understand that each of these adjectives expresses some *quality* of the *things*, of which the nouns are the *names*. You must practise in this way frequently, till you completely comprehend the nature of an adjective.

George. Adjectives, then, being words to express *qualities*, and not *things*, cannot, I think, have person, number, gender, and case.

Tutor. Why not?

George. Because if I say, the *long*, the *short*, the *round*, I must tell what it is, that is *long, short, or round*, before I express any sense; and these words do not show, whether I mean to speak of one person or thing, or more than one; therefore they have no number; nor do they denote actors, possessors, or objects; therefore they have no case.

Tutor. You are right. In our language, adjectives have no person, number, gender, or case; and the only variation, which they admit, is that of the degrees of comparison.

There are commonly reckoned three degrees of comparison; The POSITIVE, the COMPARATIVE, and the SUPERLATIVE.

The Positive State expresses the quality of

an object, without increase or diminution: as, *good boys, wise boys, great boys.*

The Comparative Degree increases or lessens the Positive in signification: as, *wiser boys—greater boys—less wise boys*—or boys *less wise*. An Adjective may be placed *after* a noun, as well as *before* it, as in the last example.

The Superlative Degree increases or lessens the Positive to the highest or lowest degree: as, *greatest, wisest, least wise boys, or men, or people.*

The Simple word, or Positive, becomes the Comparative, by adding *r* or *er*; and the Superlative, by adding *st* or *est* to the end of it: as,

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Com.</i>	<i>Super.</i>
wise,	wiser,	wisest,
great,	greater,	greatest,

The words *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, have the same effect: as,

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Com.</i>	<i>Super.</i>
wise,	more wise,	most wise,
wise,	less wise,	least wise,

You must perceive that an Adjective is a very simple part of speech; and when you parse it, you will merely tell of what degree of comparison it is, and to what noun it belongs; and then give this rule:

RULE V.

Every adjective belongs to some noun, expressed or understood.

Caroline. I suppose we are now prepared to

parse sentences, composed of Nouns, Verbs, Articles, and Adjectives.

Tutor. Yes. I will first parse one for you, and then give you several more, which you must practise upon.

The little girls write a long letter.

The is the definite Article, and refers to the noun *girls*. Repeat Rule IV. *Little* is an Adjective of the Positive state, and belongs to the noun *girls*. Repeat Rule V. *Girls* is a noun of the third person, plural number, of the feminine gender, and nominative case to the verb *write*. *Write* is a transitive verb, of the third person, plural number, and agrees with its Nominative case, *girls*. Repeat Rule I. *A* is the indefinite Article, and refers to the noun *letter*. Repeat Rule IV. *Long* is an Adjective, of the Positive state, and belongs to the noun *letter*. Repeat Rule V. *Letter* is a noun of the third person, singular number, of neuter gender, and in the Objective case, governed by the transitive Verb *write*. Repeat Rule III.

Parse this sentence several times; and when you can do it accurately, practise upon the following, in the same manner.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The great ships carry large burdens; the smaller ships bear less burdens. Generous persons relieve the poor, old men. Wealthy ladies help indigent females. The little children cry. The old birds fly. Wise mothers teach little girls. The man's discourse caused much excitement. The girl's friends abuse the chil-

dren's parents. The parents' servants brush the boys' new clothes.

NOTE. *An adjective, used without a substantive, having the definite article before it, has the force and meaning of a substantive of the plural number, and must be parsed thus: The rich help the poor.*

Rich is an adjective used substantively, third person plural, in the nominative case to the verb *help*.

Poor is an adjective used substantively, of the third person, plural number, and in the objective case, governed by the transitive verb *help*. Repeat Rule III.

Private virtues adorn a man.

The grey horses prance.

NOTE. *One, two, three, &c. are called numeral or cardinal adjectives.*

The two armies conquered the enemies.

Thirty men killed twenty wolves.

NOTE. *The words, first, second, third, &c. are called ordinal adjectives.*

The third man killed the fourth wolf.

I shall now give you a number of questions, which you will be able to answer, if you recollect what I have said in this Conversation.

QUESTIONS.

What is an Adjective?

Do adjectives vary, as nouns do, on account of number, gender, or case?

Do they ever vary?

What variation have they?

How many degrees of comparison have they?

How is the Comparative formed?

How the Superlative?

Is the noun, to which the adjective belongs, always expressed?

What rule do you give, when you parse adjectives?

Is an adjective ever used in the nature of a noun?

Of what number is the adjective when used substantively?

REMARKS ON ADJECTIVES.

Monosyllables, 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 *le* after a mute, as, able, ample; or accented on the last syllable, as, discreet, polite; easily admit of *er* and *est*; as, happier, happiest; abler, ablest; politer, politest. Words of more than two syllables hardly ever admit of those terminations.

In some words the superlative is formed by adding the adverb *most* to the end of them: as, nethermost, uttermost, or utmost; undermost, 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, "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 or elder, oldest or eldest;" and a few others.

QUESTIONS.

How are adjectives of one syllable compared?

How do you compare those of two syllables?

How do you compare dissyllables, ending in *y*, in *le* after a mute, and those accented on the last syllable?

Do adjectives of *more* than two syllables admit of the terminations, *er* and *est*?

What adjectives are compared irregularly?

What words form the superlative by adding *most* to the end of them?

What is the effect of the termination *ish*?

Do adjectives ever become nouns?

Do nouns ever become adjectives?

How are *numeral* adjectives divided?

Which are ordinal?

Which are cardinal?

When an adjective ends in *y*, what do you change the *y* into to form the comparative and superlative degrees?

When it ends in *le*, as, *able*, what do you add to form the comparative and superlative degrees?

CONVERSATION VII.

OF PARTICIPLES.

Tutor. I shall now explain to you the part of speech, called *Participle*; and then introduce it into your exercises in parsing. A participle is a word which is derived from a verb, and par-

participates of the nature of a *verb*, and also of an *adjective*. It participates of the nature of a verb, because it expresses *action* as a verb does; and it partakes of the nature of an *adjective*, because it frequently belongs to some noun, and is used as an adjective. There are three kinds of participles: *present*, *perfect*, and *compound perfect participles*.

A present participle, which is the only one I shall now explain to you, denotes an action continuing, or still going on, and ends in *ing*: as, I see a boy *beating* a dog.—I see the dog *running*, *walking*, *fighting*, *eating*, *drinking*, &c. These are present participles, derived from the verbs *beat*, *run*, *walk*, *fight*, *eat*, *drink*, &c. The rule you will give when you parse this participle is,

RULE VI.

The participle ending in ing, when not connected with the auxiliary verb, to be, refers to some noun or pronoun denoting the subject or actor.

George. I suppose, then, according to the rule, that the first participle which you mentioned, *beating*, refers to the noun *boy*—and *running*, *walking*, *eating*, *drinking*, *fighting*, all refer to the noun *dog*.

Tutor. You are right.

This participle never varies its termination; it is spelled in the same manner whether the word denoting the actor, is singular or plural, as you may see by the following examples: I see the *boys* running, or the *boy* running.

Caroline. I understand that a participle does not agree with a noun, but simply *refers* to it; and I know it must, of necessity, refer to some word that denotes the *actor*, because a participle expresses an action as the verb does, and there can be no *action* without an *actor*.

George. You said that a participle partakes of the nature of an *adjective*, and sometimes belongs to a noun like an adjective; will you give us some examples?

Tutor. Yes: I see a *running* stream, and *flying* clouds. Here you see that the participles, *running* and *flying*, are used as adjectives. And when participles are so used, you may call them adjectives. Some grammarians call them participial adjectives. But I have another relation to explain, respecting the participle. When I say, *The master sees the great boy teaching the little child*,—what *case* do you think the noun *child* is in?

George. *Child* is the *object* of the action, expressed by the *participle teaching*, therefore I should take it to be in the objective case, but we have no rule yet, which tells us that an objective case is governed by a participle.

Tutor. You are right; and, as you understand the proper relation of the words, you might make a rule yourself. I will, however, give you one.

RULE VII.

Participles of TRANSITIVE verbs govern the objective case.

Now parse all the words in the sentence I

gave you a few minutes since—*The master*, &c.—and then parse the following examples, containing the five parts of speech with which you are acquainted: viz. Nouns, Verbs, Articles, Adjectives, and Participles.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The hunters shoot the deer running.
The flying clouds obscure the sun.
The rattling hail pelts the windows.
The labouring men cultivate the earth.
The child sees the hawk killing the chickens.
The servant watches the horse eating oats.

QUESTIONS.

What is a Participle?
Why is it called *Participle*?
How does it differ from a verb?
How many participles are there?
What are they called?
Which have I explained?
What rule do you give when you parse a participle?
What rule, when you parse an objective case which is governed by it?

REMARKS ON PARTICIPLES.

The participle derives its name from its participating, not only of the properties of a verb, but also of those of an adjective: as, "I am desirous of *knowing him*;" "*admired and applauded*, he became vain;" "*having finished his work*, he submitted it," &c.

In the phrase, "An admired performance," the word *admired* has the form of the imperfect tense, and of the participle passive of the verb *to admire*; and, at the same time, it denotes a quality of the substantive *performance*, which shows it to be an adjective.

There are three participles, the Present or Active, the Perfect or Passive, and the Compound Perfect: as, "loving, loved, having loved."

Participles sometimes perform the office of substantives, and are used as such: as in the following instances: "The *beginning*;" "a good *understanding*;" "excellent *writing*;" "The chancellor's *being attached* to the king secured his crown;" "The general's *having failed* in this enterprise occasioned his disgrace;" "John's *having been writing* a long time had wearied him."

QUESTIONS.

In what respect is a participle like a verb?
How does it differ from a verb?
How is it like an adjective?
How does it differ from it?
Is a participle ever used as a noun?
Can you give examples with the *present*, *passive*, and *compound perfect* participle so used?

CONVERSATION VIII.

OF ADVERBS.

Caroline. The Adverb, I believe, is the next

part of speech in order; so I suppose we are to have that in this Conversation.

Tutor. Yes; an Adverb is a word which generally expresses *manner, time, place, or degree*, and has its grammatical connexions always with a *Verb, Participle, Adjective*, or another *Adverb*; so that you are now prepared to receive the explanations concerning this part of speech, and understand its relations in a sentence. It has no connexion with a noun; or any other part of speech except the four, which I have just mentioned. It is called *adverb*, because it is more frequently added to the verb than to any other part of speech; and when added to a *verb*, or a *participle*, it usually expresses the *time*, the *manner*, or the *place*, in which an action is done: as, the boy walks *slowly, leisurely, quickly, hastily*, or *badly*, &c.; or with a *participle*: as, I see the boy *walking slowly, leisurely, quickly*, &c.; these adverbs qualify the *participle*; and you see that all these express the *manner* in which the *actions* are done, that are denoted by the verb or *participle*.

When an adverb is joined to an adjective or adverb, it generally expresses the degree of the adjective or adverb; for some adverbs have degrees of comparison like adjectives: as, the adverbs, *soon, often, much, well*; and these are compared thus:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
soon,	sooner,	soonest.
often,	oftener,	oftenest.
much,	more,	most.
well,	better,	best.

Adverbs ending in *ly*, are compared by *more* and *most*:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
wisely,	more wisely,	most wisely.
ably,	more ably,	most ably.

And adverbs express the degrees of adjectives: as,

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
wise,	more wise,	most wise.
wise,	less wise,	least wise.
prudent,	more prudent,	most prudent.

When such phrases as the following; *none at all, a great deal, many times, a few days ago*; are used to express the *manner*, or *time*, and are joined to verbs or participles, you will call them *adverbial phrases*.

George. I suppose we can now parse sentences containing six parts of speech: Nouns, Verbs, Articles, Adjectives, Participles, and Adverbs.

Tutor. Yes: and you must be careful to remember how each is parsed.

In parsing a *Noun*, tell whether it is common or proper, its person, number, gender, and case.

In parsing the *Verb*, tell whether it is transitive or intransitive; also tell its person, number, and with what nominative it agrees, and give Rule I.

In parsing an *Article*, tell what kind, and what it refers to, and give Rule IV.

In parsing an *Adjective*, tell the degree of comparison, and what noun it belongs to, and give Rule V.

In parsing a *Participle*, tell what it refers to, and give Rule VI.

In parsing an *Adverb*, tell of what kind it is, whether of time, place, or quality, &c. and what particular word it qualifies, and give*

RULE VIII.

Adverbs qualify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

By observing these directions, you can parse these sentences which I have written for you to practise upon.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Good boys study well. *Very* industrious children study a great deal. *Very* idle girls learn none at all.

NOTE. You perceive in these sentences, that the word *very* does not belong to the nouns *children* and *boys*; for the sense is not *very children*—*very boys*, but it belongs to the adjectives *industrious* and *idle*, and it is therefore an adverb, and qualifies an adjective. A word is always an adverb when it qualifies a *verb*, an *adjective*, a *participle*, or another *adverb*, as I have before explained to you.

Now parse the following examples:

Old houses soon fall—The new ship sails

* The pupil, as he advances, should be made to give an account, in this manner, of the mode of parsing all the parts of speech.

fast—Good people love young children learning well—Large cities contain many poor inhabitants—Persons seeing little girls, learning grammar thoroughly, feel much pleasure—Behaving carelessly, boys do mischief—Running swiftly, horses break carriages—servants driving horses very carelessly, often break people's limbs.

The definite article is frequently prefixed to adverbs of the comparative and superlative degrees, to mark the degree more strongly: as,

The *more* the wind blows, the *faster* the ship sails—The *more* the boy studies the lesson, the *better* the boy understands the lesson.

REMARKS ON ADVERBS.

There are many words in the English language, that are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs: as, "More men than women were there;" or, "I am more diligent than he." In the former sentence, *more* is evidently an adjective, and in the latter an adverb. There are others that are sometimes used as substantives, and sometimes as adverbs: as, "To-day's lesson is longer than yesterday's:" here *to-day* and *yesterday* are substantives, because they are words that make sense of themselves, and admit besides of a possessive case: but in the phrase, "He came home yesterday, and sets out again to-day," they are adverbs of time; because they express the time *when* "he came and sets out." The adverb *much* is used as all three: as, "Where much is given, much is required;" "Much money has been expended;" "It is much better to go than to stay." In

the first of these sentences *much* is a substantive; in the second, it is an adjective; and in the third, an adverb. In short, nothing but the sense can determine what they are.

Adverbs, though very numerous, may be reduced to certain classes, the chief of which are those of Number, Order, Place, Time, Quantity, Manner or Quality, Doubt, Affirmation, Negation, Interrogation, and Comparison.

1. Of *number*: as, "Once, twice, thrice," &c.
2. Of *order*: as, "First, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, fifthly, lastly, finally," &c.

3. Of *place*: as, "Here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, herein, whither, hither, thither, upwards, downwards, forwards, backwards, whence, hence, thence, whithersoever," &c.

4. Of *time*.

Of *time present*: as, "Now, to-day," &c.

Of *time past*: as, "Already, before, lately, yesterday, heretofore, hitherto, long since, long ago," &c.

Of *time to come*: as, "To-morrow, not yet, hereafter, henceforth, henceforward, by and by, instantly, presently, immediately, straightways," &c.

Of *time indefinite*: as, "Oft, often, oft-times, oftentimes, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, always, when, then, ever, never, again," &c.

5. Of *quantity*: as, "Much, little, sufficiently, how much, enough, abundantly," &c.

6. Of *manner or quality*: as, "Wisely, foolishly, justly, unjustly, quickly, slowly," &c.

Adverbs of quality are of the most numerous kind; and they are generally formed by adding the termination *ly* to an adjective or participle, or changing *le* into *ly*: as, "Bad badly; cheerful, cheerfully; able, ably; admirable, admirably."

7. Of *doubt*: as, "Perhaps, peradventure, possibly, perchance."

8. Of *affirmation*: as, "Verily, truly, undoubtedly, doubtless, certainly, yea, yes, surely, indeed, really," &c.

9. Of *negation*: as, "Nay, no, not, by no means, not at all, in no wise," &c.

10. Of *interrogation*: as, "How, why, wherefore, whither," &c.

11. Of *comparison*: as, "More, most, better, best, worse, worst, less, least, very, almost, little, alike," &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, "Hereof, thereof, whereof; hereto, thereto, whereto; hereby, thereby, whereby; herewith, therewith, wherewith; herein, therein, wherein; therefore, (i. e. there-for,) wherefore, (i. e. where-for,) hereupon, or hereon, thereupon, or thereon, whereupon, or whereon, &c. Except *therefore*, these are seldom used.

In some instances, the preposition suffers no change, but becomes an adverb merely by its application: as, when we say, "he rides *about*:" "he was *near* falling;" "but, do not *after* lay the blame on me."

There are also some adverbs, which are composed of nouns and the letter *a* used instead of *at*, *on*, &c.: as "Aside, athirst, afoot, asleep, aboard, ashore, abed, aground, afloat," &c.

The words *when*, and *where*, and all others of the same nature, such as, *whence*, *whenever*, *wherever*, &c. may be properly called *adverbial conjunctions*, because they participate the nature both of adverbs and conjunctions.

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." When, it is subjoined to *and*, *if*, or *since*, it is an adverb, the connexion being made out without it.

QUESTIONS.

- What is an adverb?
- To what does an adverb belong?
- To what does an *adjective* belong?
- When a word qualifies a verb, participle, adjective, or another adverb, what part of speech is it?
- Are adverbs compared?
- How are adverbs ending in *ly* compared?
- What is the rule when you parse an adverb?
- Does an article ever refer to an adverb?
- For what purpose does the article refer to it?
- For what purpose do adverbs seem to have been originally contrived?
- What is an adverbial phrase?
- What words are used sometimes as adverbs,

sometimes as adjectives, and sometimes as nouns?" Can you give examples?

When are the words, *to-day*, *yesterday*, and *to-morrow*, nouns, and when adverbs?

What are the adverbs of *number*?

What are the adverbs of *order*?

What are the adverbs of *place*?

What are the adverbs of *time present*?

What are the adverbs of *time past*?

What are the adverbs of *time to come*?

What are the adverbs of *time indefinite*?

What are the adverbs of *quantity*?

What are the adverbs of *quality* or *manner*?

What are the adverbs of *doubt*?

What are the adverbs of *affirmation*?

What are the adverbs of *negation*?

What are the adverbs of *interrogation*?

What are the adverbs of *comparison*?

What adverbs are composed of nouns, and the letter *a*?

What words are called *adverbial conjunctions*?

Why may they be so called?

When is the word, *therefore*, an adverbial conjunction, and when an adverb?

CONVERSATION IX.

OF PRONOUNS.

OF THE PERSONAL AND ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Tutor. I shall this morning make you acquainted with *Pronouns*.

George. What is meant by *pro*?—a noun we know is a *name*.

Tutor. *Pro* means *for*, or *instead of*.

Caroline. Now I think I understand what a pronoun is. It means *instead of* a noun, or it is a word used instead of a noun.

Tutor. It is a word used instead of a noun to prevent the too frequent repetition of the same word. Thus if we had no pronouns in the language, I should say, "Caroline is a good girl, because *Caroline* studies *Caroline's* lessons well, and *Caroline* will soon understand *Caroline's* grammar." But we have pronouns which are used to prevent this disagreeable repetition.

George. And therefore, instead of repeating the word *Caroline*, so many times as you did just now, I should say,—"*Caroline* is a good girl, because *she* studies *her* lessons well, and *she* will soon understand *her* grammar."—It is plainly to be seen, that *she* and *her* are *pronouns*, used instead of the noun *Caroline*.

Caroline. And if the same could be said of

George. I should say, "*He* studies *his* lessons well," &c.

Tutor. Yes: and you must readily perceive that *gender* belongs to pronouns; for when you speak of *George*, you say *he* and *his*; but when you speak of *Caroline*, you say *she* and *her*; but when you speak of a thing that is neither masculine nor feminine, *it* is used: as, "I hold a book; *it* belongs to you, and you must use *it* carefully." Now you see, that pronouns must be of the same gender, as the nouns are for which they stand.

George. I should think, that they must agree in number too, for when I speak of *two* or more books, I do not say *it*—but I say *they* or *them*.

Tutor. I will give you a rule concerning pronouns.

RULE IX.

Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand in number and gender.

Caroline. Do not pronouns agree with their nouns in person too?

Tutor. They may agree in person, or they may not. Pronouns are frequently used in such a manner, that they cannot agree in person with the nouns for which they stand: as, "And Jesus cried with a loud voice, *Lazarus*, come forth; and *he* came forth bound hand and foot," &c. *He* means *Lazarus*, which is second person, but *he* is third.

Caroline. I understand it. The pronouns may agree in person with their nouns, but they do not *always*; but they must *always* agree in

number and gender, therefore we may put that fact into the form of a rule.

Tutor. You are right, Caroline.—There are four kinds of pronouns, viz. PERSONAL, ADJECTIVE, RELATIVE, and INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

At this time I shall only notice those called *Personal*, and those called *Adjective* pronouns. There are five *Personal* pronouns, viz. I, thou, he, she, it, and their plurals.

<i>I</i> , is the first person	} Singular.
<i>Thou</i> , is the second person	
<i>He, she, or it</i> , is the third person	
<i>We</i> , is the first person	} Plural.
<i>Ye, or you</i> , is the second person	
<i>They</i> , is the third person.	

The *noun*, you know, has but two persons, viz. the *second*, when it denotes the person or thing *spoken to*; and the *third*, when it denotes the person or thing *spoken of*. But you must perceive that the pronoun is also used to denote the person *speaking*; for when *I* or *we* is used, it denotes the person or persons speaking. Pronouns, therefore, have *three* persons, viz. the *first*, *second*, and *third*.

PERSON, in grammar, is the property of a noun or pronoun, which shows us whether the noun or pronoun denotes the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the one that is spoken of. This property of the noun or pronoun also causes the verb to vary in the *second* and *third* persons singular: as,

First person singular, I walk.

Second person singular, Thou walkest.
Third person singular, He walks, or walketh.
First person plural, We walk.
Second person plural, Ye or you walk.
Third person plural, They walk.

Here observe that all the persons of the plural verb are alike, viz. walk, walk, walk.

In these examples you see, that *walk* is first person to agree with its nominative *I*, but when the verb is joined with *thou* for its nominative, it ends in *est*, and when it agrees with *he*, it ends in *s*, or *eth*; and in the plural, that the verb does not vary at all; and so in other verbs: as,

I go,	I speak,	I eat,
Thou goest,	Thou speakest,	Thou eatest.
He goes, or } goeth, &c. }	He speaks, or } speaketh, &c. }	He eats, } or eateth, &c. }

Whenever you see a verb ending in *est*, you know it to be of the *second person singular*, and it must agree with a nominative of the *second person singular*; and when you see a verb ending in *s*, or *eth*, you know it to be of the *third person singular*: and it must agree with a nominative of the *third person singular*. So, then, if the nominative of the *second* or *third person* should not be *written*, which frequently happens, you will know of what person the verb is, by its spelling: Thus, *walkest*, *goest*, *buildest*, &c. are all of the *second person singular*; and *walks* or *walketh*, *eats* or *eateth*, *drinks* or *drinketh*, *builds* or *buildeth*, &c. are all of the *third person singular*; and they must agree with their nominatives

according to Rule I, viz. *A verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.*

Caroline. I now see more clearly the use of this rule; for it would not be grammatical to say, *I reads* or *readeth*, *I goes* or *I goeth*; because the verbs *reads*, *readeth*, *goes*, *goeth*, are of the *third* person singular, and *I* is a nominative of the *first* person. Nor would it be correct to say, *thou go*, or *thou goes*; because neither of these verbs is of the second person, as it should be to agree with the nominative *thou*; therefore the verb should be *goest*; then the verb would agree with its nominative agreeably to the rule.

Tutor. You are right, Caroline. Now, George, can you give me an example of bad English, which this rule enables you to correct?

George. I think I can. "*The boys whispers*;" — "*The children plays*" — "*The people saith*," are ungrammatical, because the verbs, *whispers*, *plays*, *saith*, are all of the third person singular, and their nominatives are third person plural; so they do not agree with their nominatives. They should be *whisper*, *play*, *say*.

Tutor. Very well. I shall now give the personal pronouns in their different cases. The personal pronouns are declined in the following manner:

SINGULAR NUMBER.

1st Person.	2d.	3d. Mas.	3d Fem.	3d Neu.
Nom. I.	Thou.	He.	She.	It.
Poss. Mine.	Thine.	His.	Hers.	Its.
Obj. Me.	Thee.	Him.	Her.	It.

PLURAL NUMBER.

1st Person.	2d.	3d.	3d.	3d.
Nom. We.	Ye or you.	They.	They.	They.
Poss. Ours.	Yours.	Theirs.	Theirs.	Theirs.
Obj. Us.	You.	Them.	Them.	Them.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS are a kind of pronouns that belong to nouns like adjectives; and are, on that account, called pronouns *adjective*, or *adjective pronouns*. They are therefore of a mixed nature, participating of the properties both of pronouns and adjectives. They may be divided into four sorts. Those which imply possession are called *possessive adjective pronouns*, viz.

My, thy, his, her, our, your, their, own.

Those that denote the persons or things that make up a number, each taken separately and singly, are called *distributive adjective pronouns*, viz.

Each, every, either.

These you will perceive must be used with nouns of the *singular* number only.

George. I see clearly it would be improper to say, *every boxes*—*each houses*—*either persons*, &c. I should say, *every box*—*each house*—*either person*. But what are the other two kinds of adjective pronouns?

Tutor. The *demonstrative* and *indefinite*. The *demonstrative* are those which precisely point out the subject to which they relate: they are, *This* and *that*, and their plurals, *these* and *those*, and the words *former* and *latter*. The last two are declinable.

The *indefinite* are those which express their

subjects in an indefinite or general manner. Of this kind are the following:

Some, one, any, other, all, such, &c.

George, let me hear you repeat the adjective pronouns.

George. The adjective pronouns are,

Possessive: My, thy, his, her, our, your, their, own.

Distributive: Each, every, either.

Demonstrative: This and that, these and those, former and latter.

Indefinite: Some, one, any, other, all, such, &c.

Tutor. You have repeated them very accurately. Several of these words are sometimes used apart from any nouns: or in other words, they do not *always* belong to a noun like an adjective.

Caroline. When they are not used with a noun like an adjective, either expressed or understood, then I suppose they are not to be called adjective pronouns, but pronouns only.

Tutor. You are right; for the meaning of the word *adjective*, is *added*—therefore, when a word is not *added* to a noun it is not an *adjective*. For example, when *his* and *her* are not added to a noun, they are personal pronouns, and by declining *he* and *she* you will find what case they are in. So *each*, *every*, and *either*, when used without a noun, are *distributive pronouns*. So also, with the *demonstratives*. You will call them *demonstrative pronouns*, when they are not prefixed to any nouns expressed or un-

derstood. And *some, one, any, other, all, and such*, you will call *indefinite pronouns*, when they are not prefixed to nouns expressed or understood.

George. Will you give us some examples of these words, when used as *pronouns merely*, and some examples in which they are used as *adjective pronouns*?

Tutor. I shall, in a few minutes, give you some parsing lessons to practise upon; and in them, I will give you such examples as will illustrate the use of these words as pronouns *merely*, and also as adjective pronouns. But I have to remark to you, that none of these pronouns are declinable except *his* and *her*, which you know are the possessive and objective cases of *he* and *she*; and the words *one* and *other*, and *former* and *latter*.

One is declined in the following manner:

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	One.	Ones.
Poss.	One's.	Ones'.
Obj.	One.	Ones.

And *other* is declined thus:

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	Other.	Others.
Poss.	Other's.	Others'.
Obj.	Other.	Others.

One and *other* when declinable, or used apart from any noun, you will call *indefinite pronouns*, as well as the others mentioned with them. The word *another* is composed of the indefinite article and the word *other*; and it may be declined in

the singular number, and used as a pronoun merely, like *other*, or as an *adjective pronoun*. The word *none* is composed of *not* and *one*; and it seems originally to have signified only a single person or thing; but there is good authority for using it in both numbers. *None*, then, is an *indefinite pronoun*, either of the singular or plural number, as the sense may require.

When *none* is used as an *adjective pronoun*, it follows the noun to which it belongs: as, "*Terms of peace were none vouchsafed.*" *Self* is added to possessive adjective pronouns; as, *myself*, *yourselves*; and sometimes to personal pronouns: as, *himself*, *themselves*, &c. and these you will call compound personal pronouns; and *myself* and *yourself*, &c. the same, in the singular number. *Himself* and *themselves* are now used in the nominative case, instead of *hissself* and *theirselves*. I will now give you a number of questions, and when you can answer them all, you will be prepared to parse the sentences which I shall give you to practise upon.

QUESTIONS.

- What is a pronoun?
- How many personal pronouns are there?
- How many persons have pronouns?
- How many cases have they?
- What is the first person?
- How do you decline it?
- What is the personal pronoun of the second person?
- How is it declined?

How do you decline the personal pronoun of the third person, masculine gender?

How the third person of feminine gender?

How the third person of neuter gender?

When you decline the pronoun of the second person, you find that *you* is used in the nominative case, as well as in the objective. When you see the word *you*, written in a sentence, then, how will you know whether it is a nominative or an objective case?

How will you know when the pronoun *it*, is a nominative or an objective case?

When you say a word is of the first, second, or third person, what do you understand by the word *person*?

What are *adjective pronouns*?

How many kinds are there?

What are the possessive?

What are the *distributive*?

What are the *demonstrative*?

What are the indefinite?

Which of the *possessive* are declinable?

Are these two called *adjective pronouns* when they are declinable and have cases?

What are they called?

Which of the indefinite are *declinable*?

Decline *one*.

Decline *other*.

Are any of the *distributive* or *demonstrative* declinable?

Decline *former* and *latter*.

When are all these considered as *adjective pronouns*, and when as pronouns merely?

What do you understand by the word *adjective*?

What rule have you for pronouns?

What is the personal termination of the verb of the second person singular? or in other words, how does the verb of the second person singular end?

What is the personal termination of the verb of the third person singular?

Does the verb vary in the plural?

What is *none*?

Of which number is it?

How is it used when an adjective?

How are *himself* and *themselves* used?

Now parse the following sentences, in which you will find the *personal* and *adjective pronouns*, combined with those parts of speech which you had before; and when parsing the adjective pronoun, you will give

RULE X.

Every adjective pronoun belongs to some noun, or pronoun, expressed or understood.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

I see that man teaching his child. Your father loves his children very much. My friends visit me very often. People many times complain unreasonably. I run. Thou runnest. He runs. He runneth. We run. You run. They run. Thou teachest me. I teach thee. He teaches us. She loves him. He pities her. Her they instruct. Them we command. You they feed. Them you carry. Every man helps

a little. Some persons labour, others labour not; the* former increase, the latter decrease. Those horses draw the new coach very easily. Each pupil daily recites his *own* lesson twice. You have not any other books.

NOTE. A pronoun in the possessive case, like a noun, is governed by the following noun expressed or understood.

One loves one's self. Our neighbours invite their friends. Her boys play a great deal. Her son loves her. Thy daughter pleases her teacher. Your dog hurts mine. My servant assists yours.

NOTE. Adjectives, and adjective pronouns, belong to pronouns as well as to nouns.

The old bird feeds the young ones.

Every one learns his task well.

Great boys teach the small ones.

None does his duty.

CONVERSATION X.

OF RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

In our last Conversation I told you, that there were four kinds of pronouns, viz. personal, adjective, relative, and interrogative pronouns. The first two I have explained to you; the last

* The article refers to a pronoun as well as to a noun.

two I will endeavour to make you acquainted with, this morning.

Relative pronouns are such as, in general, relate to some preceding noun or pronoun. The preceding noun or pronoun, is called the *antecedent*. Antecedent means going before. The noun or pronoun, therefore, that goes before the relative, which the relative stands for, or relates to, is its *antecedent*; and the relative must be made to agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender; because the relative is a pronoun used to save the repetition of its antecedent. The relative pronouns are, *who*, *which*, and *that*. Thus, we say, "The boy learns well *who* studies." *Who*, in this sentence, is a relative pronoun, third person, singular number, masculine gender, agreeing with its antecedent noun *boy*, and in the nominative case to *studies*.

Sometimes the antecedent to a relative, is a phrase, a sentence, or part of a sentence; and then the relative is of neuter gender. A personal pronoun, and, sometimes, an interrogative pronoun, may be an antecedent to a relative: as, *I* who came, remain; *Who* that deals honestly, behaves thus? The first *who* agrees with *I*; the relative *that* agrees with the second *who*, its antecedent.

And when you parse a relative, always give this rule:

RULE XI.

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

I have said that *who*, *which*, and *that*, are re-

latives. *That* is a relative, only when it has the sense of *who*, or *which*; that is, when you can use *who* or *which* in its place. Thus, when I say, "Here is a box *that* I bought," it is the same sense, as if I were to say, "Here is a box *which* I bought." "The man *that* came," &c. is the same sense, as the "man *who* came."

George. But I remember the word *that*, was among the *demonstrative adjective pronouns*. How shall I know when it is a *demonstrative*, and when it is a *relative* pronoun?

Tutor. When *that* is a *demonstrative*, it points out something precisely, and it cannot be changed into *who* or *which*, as it can when it is a relative. For example, "Give me *that* box"—"See *that* box." In these phrases *that* is a demonstrative, and you perceive that you cannot supply its place by *who* or *which*, as you can in these: "The boy *that* studies will improve,"—"The wood *that* I bought is good."

Caroline. Are the relatives declined as the personal pronouns are?

Tutor. The relative *who* is thus declined: Singular, Nominative *Who*, Possessive *Whose*, Objective *Whom*. The plural is the same. Relative pronouns do not vary on account of their person, number, or gender.

George. How then shall we know their person, number, and gender?

Tutor. By their antecedents.

Caroline. I could have answered that question, for I remember the tenth rule, "Relative pronouns agree with their antecedents in person, number, and gender." But is it proper to

say, The master *which* teaches me, teaches George?

Tutor. No: when the antecedent denotes persons, or intelligent beings, you must use *who*, *whose*, and *whom*; therefore you should say, the master *who* teaches, &c. But when the antecedent denotes *animals* or *things*, you must use *which* or *that*.

George. Are *which* and *that* declinable?

Tutor. No: these relatives are indeclinable. They are used in the nominative, and objective cases, and are spelled in the same manner in both; but they have no possessive case.

Caroline. Is *that* never used as a relative, when the antecedent denotes persons, or intelligent beings?

Tutor. Yes, in several instances: as, first, when *who* has been used in the same member of the sentence, to prevent the too frequent recurrence of the same word, we use *that*. Secondly, when persons make but part of the antecedent: as, "The *man* and the *horses that* were drowned, have been found." In this sentence, neither *who* nor *which* would be proper. Thirdly, when we ask a question with *who*: as, "Who *that* is honest would behave thus?" Fourthly, *that* is more elegantly used as a relative than *who* or *which* after adjectives of the superlative degree: as, "Moses was the *meekest* man *that* ever lived." "Solomon was the *wisest* man *that* we read of." "This is the *best* pen *that* I ever had." Fifthly, *that* is used after the adjective *same* in preference to *who* or *which*: as, "He is the *same*

man *that* you saw." The word *as*, when it follows *such*, is used as a relative, in preference to *who*, *which*, or *that*: as, "I like such people *as* are agreeable." "I am pleased with such pupils *as* improve," &c.

George. What are the interrogative pronouns?

Tutor. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions, are *interrogative* pronouns. *Who* and *which*, when they relate to antecedents, are *relatives*; when used in asking questions, *interrogatives*. *Who* is declined in the same manner when an *interrogative*, as it is when a *relative*. *What* is indeclinable. This word should not be used as a *relative*. "The book *what* you gave me," &c. is bad English. It should be, "The book *which*, or *that*, you gave me," &c.

Which and *what* are sometimes joined to nouns like adjectives, and then they become *interrogative adjective* pronouns: as, "What man is *that*?" "Which pen will you have?"

But *what*, *whatever*, and *whoever*, sometimes include both the antecedent and relative; and when *what*, or *whatever*, has the sense of *that which*, or *those which*, and *whoever* has the sense of *he who*, they are called *compound pronouns*, because they include an antecedent and a relative. *Whatever* is sometimes used as an *indefinite adjective* pronoun; and *whoever* is sometimes an *indefinite pronoun*.

Caroline. We know now, that *who*, *which*, and *that*, are called *relative pronouns*, because they relate to some antecedent, and that *adjec-*

tive pronouns are so called, because they belong to some noun, like an adjective; and that *interrogative pronouns* are so called, because they are used in asking questions; for a question means an *interrogation*; but we do not know why *personal pronouns* are so called.

Tutor. They are so called, because they denote their person by their spelling. They do not depend on any other word for their *person*. Thus, if I write the word *I*, or *thou*, or *he*, or *she*, or *it*, without any connexion with another word, you know what person each of them is; but if I write the word *who*, or *which*, or *that*, you cannot tell what person it is. But if I write *he* as an antecedent before the relative, then we know the *person* of the relative, as well as its number and gender; because the *relative* depends on the antecedent for its *person*, *number*, and *gender*, and agrees with it according to the tenth rule. Thus, when I say, "I who—Thou who—He who—We who—You who—They who"—in all these instances, you perceive that *who* does not vary, and you can know its person, &c. only by its antecedents, *I*, *thou*, *he*, &c. But it is not so with respect to its antecedents, *I*, *thou*, *he*, &c. which are *personal pronouns*. They have persons of themselves, and denote their person by their spelling.

Caroline. I think we now understand why the different kinds of pronouns are distinguished by particular names or terms. These distinctions of the pronouns show us, in some degree, their different natures and connexions.

Tutor. I shall now ask you a number of questions which I presume you can answer.

QUESTIONS.

What are Relative Pronouns?

How do you decline *who*?

Are *which* and *that* declinable?

When must *who* be used?

In what instances is *that* more elegantly applied to *persons* than *who*?

In what instances must *that* be used as a relative, where neither *who* nor *which* would be proper?

When must *as* be used as a relative?

How do you know the person, number, and gender of a relative pronoun?

How do you know when *that* is a relative, and when a demonstrative?

Which and *that* being indeclinable, how will you know their case? See the rule below.

What are the interrogative pronouns?

When *which* and what are added to nouns, what are they?

When are *what* and *whatever* compound pronouns?

When they are such, what do they include?

When is *whoever* a compound pronoun, and when an indefinite pronoun?

I will now give you some exercises, which you are prepared to parse.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Who does that work?—Who recites this lesson?—Whom see I?—Whom seest thou now?

—Whom sees he?—Whom see ye sometimes?
 —Whom lovest thou most?—What dost thou
 to-day?—What person seest thou teaching that
 boy?—Which girl instruct they?—I have an
 excellent house.—Thou hast a handsome little
 sister.—He has an honest friend.—He hath two
 new knives.—We have most worthy friends.—
 You have a most agreeable temper.—They have
 an easy task.—What has he?—What book has
 he?—Which road takest thou?—What child
 teaches he?—Us they teach.—Them we teach.
 —Her I instruct.—Thee he often praises.

RULE XII.

When no nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is the nominative to the verb; but when a nominative does come 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, participle or preposition, in its own member of the sentence.

EXERCISE IN PARSING.

The man who teaches you pleases your father.—The person whom I teach, loves his friends.—The woman whose house they hire, owns many houses.—Thee, whom thy friends admire, we also love.—Them, whom thou pleasest, some others displease.—Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I.—Him, whom you see, I love still.—The house which he occupies, our neighbour owns.—The elegant books, which the little boys read, the old man

sells.—I, whom you call, hear your voice.—
 Thou, who makest my shoes, sellest many more.
 —I have goods books, you have better, he has
 the best.

CONVERSATION, IX.

OF PREPOSITIONS.

Tutor. We commence this morning with the preposition, which is a part of speech very easily understood. Prepositions serve to connect words with one another, and to show the relations between them. Prepositions, being words used to express connexions, have no person, number, gender, or case. They agree with nothing; but they govern nouns and pronouns that follow them in the objective case.

The principal prepositions are the following:

of	in	betwixt	near	over against
out of	into	beneath	up	across
to	over	from	down	except
for	under	beyond	before	athwart
by	through	at	behind	towards
with	about	instead of	off	beside
within	amidst	notwithstanding	on	according to
without	below	concerning	upon	throughout
around	between	touching	amongst	

There are others which need not be mentioned, because by examining and parsing these, you will easily understand the nature and character of this part of speech, and be able to distinguish it from others whenever you see it.

George. You say that prepositions govern the objective case. They do not express any action done to an object, as a verb or participle does.

Tutor. That is true. The objective case that is governed by a preposition, is not the object of an *action*, but the object merely of a *relation*. They require the noun or pronoun following, to be in the *objective* case, and not the nominative or possessive case. This you will perceive by putting pronouns after the prepositions which I have written. You will see that the pronouns must be *me, thee, him, her, us, them*, and not *I, thou, he, she, they*. To say, *Of I, to thou, with they, &c.* you immediately perceive, is contrary to usage, and that it is nonsense.

When *nouns* are placed after prepositions, then, they must be in the same case that a pronoun would, if placed where the noun is, for nouns and pronouns have the same construction.

When you parse an objective case, governed by a preposition, you will give this rule:

RULE XIII.

*Prepositions govern the objective case.**

Caroline. I do not perceive very clearly how prepositions connect words together; nor do I well understand how they show the relation between them.

* The adverb *like*, and the adjectives *worth* and *like* when they belong to preceding nouns or pronouns, also govern the objective case; as, *She dances like him; she is like him; she is worth him and all his family.*

Tutor. I will illustrate the nature and office of a preposition by a few examples.

The boy writes—a pen. The man walks—the river. My horse is—the stable. You live—St. Paul's. The man fell—the water. The Theatre is situated—the park.

In each of these expressions, you perceive either a total want of connexion, or such a connexion as produces either falsehood or nonsense. Fill up each vacancy in its order, by the following prepositions, *with, towards, in, opposite to, or over against, into, opposite to*, and you will see that the *connexion* will be perfect, and the sense complete.

George. I now see the necessity and use of prepositions as connectives, but I should like to hear one word, if you please, on the subject of *relation*.

Tutor. When I say this box lies *on* the table, you may perceive that *on* shows the existing relation between the box and the table, or the relative position each has in respect to the other. And so when I say, I throw the box *under* the table—*up* the chimney—*through* the window—*down* stairs—*into* the fire. &c. the several prepositions show the different relations between the box and the other things mentioned. Prepositions, then, being words that show the relation between persons, places, and things, necessarily show the relation also, between the *words*, that denote the persons, places, and things.

Caroline. I think the office of the preposition, is quite distinct from that of any other part of speech, we have been made acquainted

with; and that we now clearly comprehend its use, and know how to parse it.

Tutor. I think you do; but I shall here make a few remarks concerning the verbs, which you were not before prepared to comprehend. There are three sorts of verbs, viz. the active, the passive, and the neuter verbs. The passive and neuter verbs, I shall reserve for some future Conversation. The one which I have explained to you, and which you have been parsing, is called the *active* verb, because it expresses an action, that is performed by its *nominative*; and the nominative case to such a verb, may therefore be defined to be the *actor*, as it is the word that denotes the person or thing that acts. This active verb then, is either *transitive* or *intransitive*. In a former Conversation, I explained the distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs. But I can now, perhaps, make you see the distinction more clearly. The *transitive* verb does not always, in reality, express an action done to the object, expressed by the objective case which it governs. This, you will perceive in the use of the verbs, *resemble*, *understand*, *believe*, and many others: as, "James resembles him"—"You understand her"—"We believe you."—The transitive verb, however, has a *direct* reference to the object, and does not permit a preposition to be placed between it and its object. But the object which follows an *intransitive* verb, must be governed by a preposition, either expressed or understood, and the idiom of our language generally requires the preposition to be expressed; as you

may remember from the examples I gave to show you, that prepositions connect words. Thus when I say, "*I walk the window*," you perceive that some preposition must be placed before the word window: as, "*I walk to, or by, or towards, the window*." But the *transitive* verb requires no preposition to follow: as, "*I strike the window*"—"I break the window," &c. I will now give you a few more examples; first of *transitive* verbs, and next of *intransitive* verbs.

Men build ships.	We love thee.
He instructs me.	They carry her.
She teaches him.	Men build houses.

Intransitive Verbs.

He looks me.	They play her.
She dances him.	Men labour houses.
The man goes Boston.	We complain thee.

Supply such prepositions, in these sentences, as will make sense. Reflect upon these examples, until you have a clear notion of the *transitive* and *intransitive* verbs.

Verbs are frequently compounded of verbs and prepositions: as, to *uphold*—to *invest*—to *overlook*; and this composition gives a new sense to the verb: as, to *understand*—to *withdraw*—to *forgive*. But the preposition is still more frequently placed after the verb, and separately from it, like an adverb: in this situation it does not less affect the sense of the verb, and give it a new meaning, and may be considered a part of the verb, as it is, when placed before it. When you parse such verbs, you may call

them *compound verbs*. And remember if the preposition gives a new meaning to the verb, which it would not have without it, it becomes a part of the verb, whether placed before, or after it. Thus, *to cast*, means *to throw*; but in the phrase *to cast up* an account—*to cast up*, means to compute. So, *to fall on*, *to bear out*, *to give over*, &c. have very different meanings, from what they would, if the prepositions or adverbs after them, were not used.—You now know, that three parts of speech govern the objective case, viz. transitive verbs, participles, and prepositions. An objective case is always governed by one of these three.

QUESTIONS.

What is a preposition?

What case does it govern?

Is it ever compounded with a verb?

What kind of verbs are these called?

Explain the difference between a transitive and intransitive verb.

What parts of speech govern the objective case?

I shall now give you a parsing lesson to practise upon.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

An honest advocate pleads the cause of his client with much zeal. Good children tell no lies; they speak the truth; they love their parents; they respect their superiors. Envy nourishes many bad passions. Behave ye kindly to your friends; treat them with candour. Love not idleness, it destroys many. Persons

who have ingenuous minds, suspect not others of disingenuousness. The man whom my friend supports, treats him ill. The army which encamps on the banks of the river, marches thence to-day. The pen, with which I write, makes too large a mark. My neighbour's little girls, going to school, the other day,* lost their books. My workmen, ploughing the ground, broke the plough. She is like him. She writes like him. She is worth him and all his connexions.

CONVERSATION XII.

OF CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

Tutor. I will now give you the last two parts of speech, viz. the Conjunction and Interjection.

A CONJUNCTION is a part of speech chiefly used to connect sentences; so as, out of two or more sentences, to make but one. It sometimes connects only words. Conjunctions are divided into two sorts, the COPULATIVE and the DISJUNCTIVE.

The conjunction copulative serves to connect, or continue a sentence, by expressing a condition, a supposition, a cause, &c.: as, "He

* Nouns of time, place, and distance, are generally governed by a preposition understood. See the large grammar, sec. 3, rule 3d, page 183.

and his sister study." "I will go, *if* he will permit me." "The man is happy, *because* he is good."

The conjunction disjunctive serves not only to connect and continue the sentence, but also to express opposition of meaning in different degrees: as, "He *or* his sister studies." "I would go, *but* he will not permit me." "Though she is rich, *yet* she is not amiable."

George. I see clearly a difference between the copulative and disjunctive conjunctions; for when I say, Peter and John study, the expression implies, that *they both* study. But, when I say, Peter *or* John studies, the expression shows, that only *one* studies—and therefore I use the verb *studies*, in the third person singular, not *study*, in the plural.

Tutor. Very well. I will now mention the principal conjunctions, and you must make them familiar to you; but you must study the character of the two sorts of conjunctions, so that you may know to which class any one belongs, wherever you may see it. The *nature* and *office* of each part of speech must be carefully studied—not *particular words*; for the same word may, in different senses, be used as several parts of speech. Of this I shall, by and by, give you examples.

The principal conjunctions are the following:

The *Copulative*. And, if, that, then, both, since, for, because, therefore, wherefore, besides, further.

The *Disjunctive*. But, or, nor, either, neither,

as, than, lest, unless, yet, notwithstanding, though, whether, except, as well as.

Caroline. The conjunctions are so different from the other parts of speech, that I think we should have known them, even if you had not written them.

Tutor. I shall now say something to you about simple and compound sentences, that you may more clearly perceive the use and importance of conjunctions.

A *simple sentence* contains only one nominative, and one verb that agrees with that nominative. There may be other words in it; indeed a simple sentence may contain several parts of speech, and be longer than many compound sentences; yet, if it contains but one nominative, and one verb, which agrees with that nominative, it is but a *simple sentence*. Thus, "*Grass grows*," is a simple sentence; and, "*Excellent grass grows in great abundance, in all the northern regions of our country, particularly in the New England States*," is but a simple sentence, for it contains but one nominative, *grass*, and one verb, *grows*.

A compound of any thing, you know, is made up of simples; so a compound sentence is compounded of two or more simple ones, connected together by conjunctions, expressed or understood. Thus, "*Grass grows, and water runs*," is a compound sentence. I will now give you several simple members, which you will perceive have no relation to each other, till conjunctions are used to connect them.

He is older — I am. She can improve — she

pleases. He has talents — opportunities to cultivate them, — friends desirous — he should make a figure.

Here you see the want of conjunctions. Fill up the blanks by the following conjunctions in their order, *than, if, and, and, that*, and you will better understand the importance of this part of speech.

George. This illustrates the use of the conjunction very clearly. When these conjunctions can be placed between the simple members, they connect them, and make one compound sentence.

Tutor. Some conjunctions can be used to connect sentences only. That is, after one complete sentence is finished, the next may be commenced with one of these conjunctions, to show that it has some connexion with the former; or to express something in addition to what has been said. The conjunctions, *besides, further, again, &c.* are of this sort. These are never used to join the simple members of a compound sentence.

If, than, lest, though, unless, yet, notwithstanding, because, and the compound conjunctions, *so that, and as well as,* are used only to connect simple members of a compound sentence. And some may be used either to connect sentences, or simple members of compound sentences: such are, *and, but, for, therefore, &c.* Some may be used also to connect words. These are, *and, or, nor, as, &c.* And when conjunctions connect nouns and pronouns, the following rule must be observed.

RULE XIV.

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

George. Are the words which are used as conjunctions, ever used as other parts of speech?

Tutor. Yes, it frequently happens that the same word is used as two or three different parts of speech in one sentence. "Thus, "He laboured *for* a dollar a day, *for* he could get no more." In this sentence, you perceive that the first *for* is a *preposition*, and governs *dollar* in the objective case, and that the second is a *conjunction*, connecting the two members of the compound sentence.

For is a conjunction, whenever it has the meaning of *because*. So the word *after* may be used as a conjunction, or a preposition, or an adverb: as, "I went *after* him, *after* I had seen his friend, and, not long *after*, I found him." But I can place the noun *time* after the last *after*, and then it will become a preposition: as, "not long *after that time*," &c. The word *before* may also be used as a preposition, or a conjunction, or an adverb.

When *before* shows the relation between some two words, and governs an object, it is a preposition;—when it connects two members of a sentence, a conjunction; and, when it has a reference to time merely, it is an adverb. The same remark applies to *since* and *after*.

Whenever the words *since, after, before, when, whilst, while, whenever, and wherever,* are used to connect simple members of sentences, they

may be called *adverbial conjunctions*; because, although they connect as conjunctions, they have a reference to *time* as adverbs.

Caroline. I think we now understand the *conjunction*. Will you explain the *interjection*, which is the last of the ten parts of speech; and we shall then be able to parse sentences, containing all the parts of speech.

Tutor. INTERJECTIONS are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence to express the sudden passions or emotions of the speaker. The interjections of earnestness and grief, are oh! ah! alas! &c. there are many other interjections expressive of wonder, pity, contempt, disgust, admiration, and salutation. Sometimes a whole phrase is used as an interjection, and we call such *interjectional* phrases: as, *out upon him! away with him!*—*Alas, what wonder!* &c. In parsing an interjection, you merely tell what part of speech it is. I shall now ask you some questions, and then give you a parsing lesson, containing all the parts of speech.

QUESTIONS.

What are conjunctions?

How many kinds are there?

What are the principal copulative conjunctions?

What are the disjunctive?

What conjunctions connect *sentences* only?

What conjunctions may connect either *sentences* or members of sentences?

Which are they that may also connect single words?

When nouns and pronouns are connected by conjunctions, what rule must be observed?

Are the words used as conjunctions, ever employed as other parts of speech?

Give examples.

What is a simple sentence?

What is a compound sentence?

What is an interjection?

When is the word *that* a relative pronoun?

When a demonstrative adjective pronoun?

When a demonstrative pronoun merely?

And when a conjunction?

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The boy improves very fast, because he applies well to his studies. Your son behaves so well that he pleases every person that sees him. The snow, falling from the houses, hurt that child very much. You employ all your time in study and exercise; *that* strengthens the mind, and *this* the body.

NOTE. The prepositions *to* and *for* are frequently understood; but they govern the objective case then, as well as when expressed, as you will perceive by the following sentences.

He gives a book *to* me. He gives me a book. We lend them assistance. You give me many presents.

Modesty makes large amends for the pain, it gives the persons, who labour under it, by the prejudice, it affords every worthy person in their favour.

NOTE. In this last sentence, you will observe, that the relative *which* is understood twice:

first after *pain*, and is governed by *gives*, *secondly* after *prejudice*, and is governed by *affords*, according to the latter part of Rule XI.

The friends whom you treat politely, often call at your house; and they sometimes visit me, and my brothers and sisters. I often see good people bestowing charity on the poor. The rich, giving employment to the needy, afford to the latter, the means of support, and keep them from idleness and dissipation.

REMARKS ON CONJUNCTIONS.

The same word is occasionally used both as a conjunction and as an adverb; and sometimes, as a preposition. "I rest, *then*, 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 first 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*."

CONVERSATION XIII.

Tutor. When I spoke of the conjunction in the last Conversation, I told you that some con-

nect *single words*. When the copulative conjunction *and*, connects two or more actors, you may perceive that the verb, which is used to declare the action, expresses the action of *both* or *all* the actors, and is therefore a *plural* verb: as, the boy *and* his sister *study*—not *studies*. The man *and* horse *walk*—not *walks*; because the verbs *study* and *walk* in each example, express the action of both the nominatives, and it must therefore be plural. But, if I say, the boy *or* his sister, I must use the verb *studies*, in the singular number. The man *or* horse *walks*.

Caroline. I see the difference very clearly; for when the disjunctive conjunction *or* is used, the expression does not mean that *both* nominatives act together, but that only one acts: it means, that the boy *studies*, *or* his sister *studies*; but that they do not *both study*. And in the other sentence, the meaning is, that either the man *walks*, *or* the horse *walks*, but not both.

Tutor. I will give you a rule concerning this matter.

RULE XV.

When two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns of the singular number, are connected by a COPULATIVE conjunction, expressed or understood, they must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns in the PLURAL number to agree with them; but when they are connected by a DISJUNCTIVE conjunction, they must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns in the SINGULAR number to agree with them.

Caroline. Will you please to illustrate this rule by a few examples, showing us why the *nouns and pronouns* must be plural, when other nouns or pronouns are connected by a copulative conjunction, and why they must be singular, when such other nouns or pronouns are connected by a conjunction *disjunctive*.

Tutor I will. *George and William, who obey their father, are dutiful sons.* In this sentence, the relative *who* is third person, *plural*, because its two antecedents, *George and William*, are connected by the copulative conjunction *and*; therefore, the verb *obey*, must be *plural*, to agree with *who*; and the adjective pronoun *their*, is plural for the same reason that *who* is; *are* is plural, to agree with its two nominatives *George and William*; and *sons* is plural, because it means both *George and William*.

But let us use the disjunctive *or*. *George or William who obeys his father is a dutiful son.* Here you perceive, that the verbs, nouns, and pronouns must be singular.

George. These examples sufficiently illustrate the rule, and I now perfectly comprehend it.

Tutor. I will now give an exception to the first part of this rule. When a distributive adjective pronoun belongs to each of the nominatives, the verbs, nouns, and pronouns, must be in the *singular* number: as, every man, and every boy, *exerts himself*. Sometimes an adjective pronoun is used with the first noun, and is *understood* with those that follow: as, every

leaf, and twig, and drop of water, *teems* with life.

George. I see the propriety of this exception to the general rule, because, although several things are referred to, yet each is taken separately, and the verb agrees with each nominative separately. The sense is, that, Every leaf teems, every twig teems, every drop of water teems, &c.

Tutor. That is right. And when you parse such sentences, supply a verb for each nominative, as you have now.

I will now give you another rule.

RULE XVI.

Nouns and pronouns in apposition, must be in the same case.

Caroline. What is meant by *apposition*?

Tutor. *Apposition*, in grammar, means the addition of another name for the same person or thing: as, "*Watts, the merchant, sells goods.*"

In this sentence you understand, that *Watts* is the name of the man, and *merchant* is another name for the same person; therefore *merchant* is in apposition to *Watts*, or another noun in addition to *Watts*, and must be in the same case. Sometimes several nouns or pronouns are used in addition to the first, and then they are all in apposition to the first.

You readily perceive, that the two nouns must be in the same case; because, if *Watts* sells goods, the merchant sells goods—for both nouns mean the same person, and, therefore,

both are in the nominative case to the verb *sells*.

Again, "I saw *Phelps* the tailor." Now it is plain that, when I saw *Phelps*, I saw the *tailor*; for Phelps was the tailor; therefore the noun *tailor* is in the objective case, and is in *apposition* to Phelps, and is governed by the transitive verb *saw*, according to Rule 16th.

George. This rule will be easily remembered, because the reason of it is plain.

Tutor. And you will find it of use to you in your writing and conversation, as it will guard you against such errors as the following:—"Love your Maker, *he* that made you." "You should honour your parents, *they* that nourish and protect you." "Give the book to my brother, *he* whom you saw here to-day."

In the first of these sentences, *he* is wrong; because it stands for *Maker*, which is in the objective case and governed by *love*; therefore *he* must be changed into *him*, in apposition to *Maker*.

In the second example *they* must be changed into them, in apposition to *parents*, and governed by *honour*. In the third example, *he* must be changed into *him*, in apposition to brother, and governed by the preposition *to*.

QUESTIONS.

When nouns and pronouns of the singular number, are connected by a *copulative* conjunction, of what number must verbs, nouns, and pronouns be to agree with them?

Is there any exception to this?

What is it?

What is the rule when nouns and pronouns of the singular number are *disjunctively* connected?

How do you parse nouns and pronouns in *apposition*?

What is meant by apposition?

How do you parse nouns and pronouns, coming together, and signifying different things? See Rule II.

When is an adjective used substantively?

Of what number is it when so used?

How many cases have nouns and pronouns?

What are they?

How do you distinguish them?

In which case does the noun vary?

How does it vary?

How many persons have nouns?

How many have pronouns?

Decline the three persons of the personal pronouns.

How many kinds of adjective pronouns are there?

What are they? Repeat them.

Which of them are declinable?

Decline the relative *who*.

Are *which* and *that* declinable?

How many parts of speech may *that* be used for?

When is it a relative?

When is it a demonstrative adjective pronoun?

When is it a demonstrative pronoun merely?
When is it a conjunction?

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The generous never recount their deeds of charity; nor the brave, their feats of valour. That man whom you see, bestows more benefits on the poor, than any other whom I know. My neighbour has two sons, William and John. Phelps, the tailor, works for me. You honour your parents, them who protect and educate you. John Stiles, the attorney, pleads my cause against Tom Nokes, who pleads for my adversary, the broker. A contented mind and a good conscience make a man happy in all conditions. Prudence and perseverance overcome all obstacles. What thin partitions sense from thought divide! The sun that rolls over our heads, the food that we receive, and the rest that we enjoy, daily admonish us of a superior and superintending power. Idleness and ignorance produce many vices. Either his pride or his folly disgusts us. Every twig, every leaf, and every drop of water, teems with life. None more impatiently suffer injuries, than they that most frequently commit them.

NOTE. When nouns and pronouns of different persons are connected by a copulative conjunction, the verbs and pronouns must agree in person, with the *second*, in preference to the *third*, and with the *first* in preference to either.

EXAMPLES.

He and thou study *your* lessons well.—He and thou, and I, labour much in *our* fields.

In the first sentence *study* is in the second person plural. It is *plural* agreeably to Rule 15th, because its two nominatives are connected by *and*, and the *second* person agreeably to this note. In the second sentence, *labour* is of the first person, *plural*, according to the same rule and note.

CONVERSATION XIV.

Tutor. I shall commence this Conversation, by explaining to you what is called the *nominative case independent*. All the nouns and pronouns which you have yet parsed in the nominative case, have had a verb, you know, to agree with them; therefore in parsing such, you have said they were in the nominative case to the verb. But a noun, or pronoun, may be so used, that it can have no verb to agree with it, and still be in the nominative case. This frequently happens, when we make a direct address to a person or thing: as, "George, I wish you would study more." Caroline, will you give me your book?"

In these sentences, you perceive that the two nouns, George and Caroline, have no verb to agree with them; therefore they cannot be nominatives to any verbs; and you also perceive that they are not in the possessive or objective case; but they must be in one of the three

cases. The rule then, for such a construction, is,

RULE XVII.

When a direct address is made, the noun, or pronoun is in the nominative case INDEPENDENT.

George. The nominative case independent, then, must always be of the second person; because the rule says,—*When a direct address is made, &c.*—and when we make a *direct address*, the person or thing we speak to, is of the *second* person.

Tutor. Right. The nominative independent, is always in the *second* person; but you must observe, that a nominative of the second person is not always independent: it is *independent* only, when it has no verb to agree with it. And what is meant by its being *independent*, is, that it is independent of any verb. All your other nominatives have had verbs to agree with them, and therefore they were *not* independent.

Caroline. Will you give us a few examples to parse under this rule?

Tutor. Yes; you may parse these

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

"George, Caroline studies better than you."

"Caroline, you understand this rule quite well."

"Boy, I love you for your good conduct."

You, and I, and my cousin, meet here daily.

I saw you yesterday writing a letter.

You see me now teaching you.

Caroline hears George reciting his lesson.

Some persons behave well, others ill.

Two and three make five.

One and one make two.

Two persons perform more work than one.

One likes not ill treatment.

Boys, you do your work very well.

Those who labour with diligence, succeed in business; but the idle and vicious come to poverty.

NOTE. The word *what* frequently has the sense of *that which*, and *those which*, and then it must be parsed as a compound pronoun, including both the antecedent and the relative.* In this construction, *that* is a demonstrative pronoun. I will illustrate this by a few

EXAMPLES.

I like *what* you dislike. *That is*, I like *that, which* you dislike.

What pleases me, displeases you. *What* we have, we prize not to the worth, while we enjoy it. Whatever fortune robs us of, we enjoy whatever she leaves. I see no object whatever.

Parse the following

EXAMPLES.

He gave me a book. He bought me a present. *That is*, He bought *for* me a present. He gave *to* me a book. Her father bought her a present, which she gave her friend.

Modesty makes large amends for the pain it gives the persons who labour under it, by the

* See pages 56 and 7.

prejudice it affords every worthy person in their favour.

CONVERSATION XV.

OF THE MOODS AND TENSES OF VERBS.

Tutor. I will now commence the explanation of the moods and tenses of the verbs.

MOOD or MODE, is a particular form of a verb, showing the *manner* in which the action or being is represented. It consists in the change which the verb undergoes, to signify various intentions of the mind, and various modifications and circumstances of action. Thus, the expressions, *I walk—If I walk—I may or can walk—To walk—Walk thou*—are all different moods or modes of expressing the same action.

George. I perceive a difference between these five forms of expression. *I walk*, expresses positively what I do. *If I walk*, does not declare positively, but it expresses doubt. *I may or can walk*, does not declare that I *do* walk; nor does it express a *doubt*, but it shows, that I am at liberty to walk, or that I am able to walk. And the fourth expression, *to walk*, is different from the three others: this simply expresses an action without a nominative. And the fifth, *walk thou*, is different from all the others; it simply commands a second person to do the action.

Tutor. Very well; your distinctions are quite correct.

Caroline. Are there no more than five forms, or moods?

Tutor. No; English verbs have but five moods.

George. What are the names of these different moods?

Tutor. INDICATIVE, SUBJUNCTIVE, POTENTIAL, INFINITIVE, and IMPERATIVE.

I will now explain the *Indicative* Mood to you; and you will perceive, that nearly all the verbs that you have hitherto parsed, have been in this mood.

When a verb makes a direct affirmative, or asks a question, it is in the *INDICATIVE* Mood: as, "He walks, he walked, he will walk:" or, "Does he walk? Did he walk? Will he walk?"

This mood is called *Indicative*, because, generally, this form of the verb simply *indicates*, or declares the action.

I shall, in the next Conversation, explain to you the other moods, and show you how they differ from the indicative. With *this*, therefore, you must make yourselves very familiar, that you may the more clearly see how the others differ from this, and from one another.

TENSE means time, or the distinction of time. Every action must be done in some time; either in *past*, *present*, or *future* time. You perceive, then, there are three grand divisions of time, viz. *Past*, *Present*, and *Future*.

When I say, *I walk*, walk is a verb in the indicative mood, present tense or time; but when

I say, *I walked—I have walked—I had walked*—the verbs are in the indicative mood, *past* tense; and the expressions, *I shall or will walk*, or *I shall have walked*, put the verb in the *future* tense, because these expressions indicate actions to be done hereafter, in some future time.

You will observe, that the three expressions in past time, are all different, viz. *walked—have walked—had walked*—so that there are three distinct tenses, or distinctions, of the past time. These are called *Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect*.

And now observe those that indicate *future* time, and you will perceive *two* future tenses, viz. *shall or will walk—and shall have walked*. These are called *First Future*, and *Second Future* tenses.

The INDICATIVE MOOD, then, has *six* tenses, or distinctions of time, viz. *Present, Imperfect, Perfect, Pluperfect, and First and Second Future*.

The SUBJUNCTIVE has also the same *six* tenses.

The POTENTIAL has *four*, viz. the *Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, and Pluperfect*.

The INFINITIVE has *two*, the *Present and Perfect*.

The IMPERATIVE has *one*, the *Present*.

I will directly explain to you, how all the tenses of the indicative mood are formed and distinguished: but before I do that, I must inform you, that verbs are either *regular or irregular*, and explain to you the difference between those which are called *regular*, and those called *irregular*.

The verbs which form their imperfect tense,

and perfect or passive participles, by adding either *d*, or *ed*, to the present tense, are *regular*; and those which form their imperfect tense, and perfect or passive participles otherwise, are *irregular*. Take the regular verb *love*, for example: as,

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect, or Passive Participle.</i>
I love.	I loved.	loved.

Here you perceive that the *imperfect* tense, and the perfect participle, are formed by adding *d* to the present tense, *love*; but when the present tense does not end in *e*, *ed* must be added to form the imperfect tense and perfect participle of *regular* verbs: as,

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect, or Passive Participle.</i>
I walk, I labour,	I walked, I laboured,	walked. laboured.

But observe how the following form their imperfect tense, and perfect participle:

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect, or Passive Participle.</i>
I write, I beat, I teach,	I wrote, I beat, I taught,	written. beaten. taught.

These are *irregular* verbs.

When I first explained the Participle to you, in a former Conversation, I told you there were three participles, viz. the *present*, the *perfect*, and the *compound perfect*. The *present*, or ac-

tive participle, I explained then. You now have the *perfect*; and the *compound perfect* is formed by placing *having*, before the *perfect* participle.

The three participles, then, of the verb *love*, *labour*, *teach*, are,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Compound Perfect.</i>
Loving.	Loved.	Having loved.
Teaching.	Taught.	Having taught.
Labouring,	Laboured.	Having laboured.

You will perceive, that the imperfect tense, and perfect participle, of all *regular* verbs, and of many *irregular* verbs are spelled alike.

George. I have observed, that the verbs *love* and *teach*, make *loved* and *taught*, in the imperfect and participle; *loved* and *taught*, then, are sometimes verbs in the imperfect tense, and sometimes perfect or passive participles. How shall we know when these words are *verbs*, and when *participles*?

Tutor. If you observe the conjugation of the verbs, you will perceive, that the *imperfect tense* of a verb has a nominative, but the participle has none: as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
I teach,	I taught,	taught.
I write,	I wrote,	written.

Whenever you have a verb to parse, the first thing you must do, is, to find whether it is *regular* or *irregular*, by conjugating it in the Pre-

sent and the Imperfect tenses, and naming the perfect participle: as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
I speak,	I spoke,	Spoken.
<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
I leave,	I left,	Left.

Here you perceive that the imperfect tense, and the participle of the verb *leave*, are spelled alike, but the *verb* has a nominative—the *participle* has not.

The Conjugation of a verb, is the regular combination and arrangement of its several numbers, persons, moods, and tenses. Or it is coupling the verb with its nominative of the different numbers and persons, and making it agree with that nominative, through all the moods and tenses.

I will now present to you the conjugation of the regular verb *walk*, in the indicative mood.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>PRESENT TENSE.</i>	<i>IMPERFECT TENSE.</i>	} <i>Perfect or pass. participle.</i>
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	
I walk,	I walked,	} walked.
Thou walkest,	Thou walkedst,	
He, she, or it walketh,	He, she, or it walked.	} walked.
or walks.		
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	
We walk,	We walked,	
Ye or you walk,	Ye or you walked,	
They walk.	They walked,	

To form the *Perfect Tense*, prefix *have* to the perfect participle: as,

PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I have walked,	We have walked,
Thou hast walked,	Ye or you have walked,
He, she, or it, hath or has walked.	They have walked.

To form the *Pluperfect* Tense, prefix *had* to the perfect participle: as,

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I had walked,	We had walked,
Thou hadst walked,	Ye or you had walked,
He, she, or, it had walked.	They had walked.

To form the *First Future* Tense, prefix *shall* or *will* to the present tense: as,

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

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

To form the *Second Future* Tense, prefix *shall* *have* or *will have* to the perfect participle: as,

SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

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

Now observe the Present and Imperfect Tenses.—These are denoted by the simple

verbs; I *walk*, thou *walkest*, &c. in the present tense; and I *walked*, thou *walkedst*, in the imperfect. These, therefore, are called *simple tenses*. But the four other tenses, you perceive, are formed by the help of other words, called *auxiliary verbs*, or *helping verbs*. You must also remember, that when *have* or *had*, is used as an auxiliary verb, it must be used with the participle, and not with the imperfect tense.

All the tenses which are formed by auxiliary verbs are called *compound tenses*.

I will now give you a list, which contains nearly all the *irregular* verbs in our language; the others are, of course, *regular*, and are to be conjugated like *walk*.

Many verbs become irregular by contraction: as, "feed, fed; leave, left:" others, by the termination *en*: as, fall, fell, fallen:" others, by the termination *ght*: as, "buy, bought; teach, taught," &c.

Now you can conjugate these verbs, except *am*, in the Indicative Mood, through all the six tenses, with the personal pronouns in the different persons and numbers, as *walk* was conjugated: as

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Imperfect Tense.</i>	<i>Perf. or Pass. Part.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, n.	awaked
Bear to bring forth bare		born

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect Tense.</i>	<i>Perf. or Pass. Part.</i>
Bear, to carry	bore	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent	bent
Bereave	bereft, <i>n.</i>	bereft
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built	built
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught, <i>n.</i>	caught, <i>n.</i>
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, to stick or adhere	} REGULAR.	
Cleave, to split		
Cling	clove, or cleft,	cleft, cloven
Clothe	clung	clung
Come	clothed	clad, <i>n.</i>
Cost	came	come
Crow	cost	cost
Creep	crew, <i>n.</i>	crowed
Cut	crept	crept
Dare, to venture	cut	cut
Dare, <i>n.</i> to challenge	durst	dared
Deal	dealt, <i>n.</i>	dealt, <i>n.</i>
Dig	dug, <i>n.</i>	dug, <i>n.</i>
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drive	drove	driven
Drink	drank	drunk
Dwell	dwelt, <i>n.</i>	dwelt, <i>n.</i>

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. or Pass. Part.</i>
Eat	eat, or ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken*
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	got†
Gild	gilt, <i>n.</i>	gilt, <i>n.</i>
Gird	girt, <i>n.</i>	girt, <i>n.</i>
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven, <i>n.</i>
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Have	had	had
Hang	hung, <i>n.</i>	hung, <i>n.</i>
Hear	heard	heard
Hew	hewed	hewn, <i>n.</i>
Hide	hid	hid, hidden
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Knit	knit, <i>n.</i>	knit, <i>n.</i>

* Walker observes, that Milton has availed himself of the license of his art, (an art as apt to corrupt grammar, as it is to raise and adorn language,) to use the preterit of this verb for the participle :

"Th' immortal mind that hath forsook

Her mansion."

† *Gotten* is nearly obsolete. Its compound *forgotten* is still in good use.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. or Pass. Part.</i>
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid*	laid
Led	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, <i>to lie down</i>	lay	lain
Load	loaded	laden, n.
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, n.
Pay	paid	paid
Put	put	put
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	rode, ridden†
Ring	rung, rang	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, n.
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape	shaped	shaped, shapen
Shave	shaved	shaven, n.
Shear	sheared	shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone, n.	shone, n.

* This is often improperly used for *lay*, the imperfect of *lie*.

† *Ridden* is nearly obsolete.

<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. or Pass. Part.</i>
Show	showed	shown
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Shrink	shrunk	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sung, sang	sung
Sink	sunk, sank	sunk
Sit	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit, n.	slit, or slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	sowed	sown, n.
Speak	spoke	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilt, n.	spilt, n.
Spin	spun	spun
Spit	spit, spat	spit, spitten*
Split	split	split
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprung, sprang	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk	stunk
Stride	strode or stride	stridden
Strike	struck	struck or stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strow or strew	strowed or strowed	{ strown, strowed, strowed
Swear	swore	sworn

* *Spitten* is nearly obsolete.

<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. or Pass. Part.</i>
Sweat	swet, n.	swet, n.
Swell	swelled	swollen, n.
Swim	swum, swam	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	throve, n.	thriven
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden
Wax	waxed	waxen, n.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Work	wrought	wrought or worked
Wring	wrung	wrung
Write	wrote	written*

In the preceding list, some of the verbs will be found to be conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly; and those which admit of the regular form are marked with an n.

QUESTIONS.

What is the conjugation of a verb?

What is the mood of a verb?

How many moods are there?

What are they called?

Which have I explained?

Why is this called *indicative*?

* You must study these irregular verbs, till you know the imperfect tense and the participle of every one.

What is the meaning of *tense*?

How many tenses has the indicative mood?

What are they called?

Which of these are past tenses?

Which are called *simple* tenses?

Which are called *compound*?

Why are they called so?

Which tenses are formed on the *perfect* participle?

Which tense is formed on the *present*?

How is the imperfect formed?

How is the perfect formed?

How the pluperfect?

How the first future?

How the second future?

What is the difference between a regular and an irregular verb?

Can you now conjugate the verb *speak*, in the indicative mood, through all its tenses, persons, and numbers?

What is a participle?

How many kinds of participles are there?

What are they?

Can you give me the present participles of the verbs, *speak*, *run*, *go*, *ride*?

Can you give me the perfect and compound perfect of these verbs?

How do you distinguish the perfect participle from the verb in the imperfect tense when they are both spelled alike?

I will now give you a long lesson in parsing, that you may become very familiar with the indicative mood, and all its tenses, before I give you the other moods.

In these exercises you will find the verb, in the indicative mood, in all its tenses, and the present, perfect, and compound perfect participles.

In parsing the verb *now*, *first* tell whether it is regular or irregular; *secondly*, whether transitive or intransitive; *thirdly*, the mood and tense; *fourthly*, its person and number, and what it agrees with for its nominative, and then give the rule.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

I learn my lesson well.—Thou learnest thy lesson badly.—He learns his lesson soon.—We learn our lesson to-day.—Ye or you learn your lesson hastily.—They learn their lesson easily.—Learn I my lesson?—Learnest thou thy lesson?—Learns he his lesson?—Learn my lesson?—Learnest thy lesson?—Learns his lesson?—Learn our lesson?—Learn your lesson?—Learn their lesson?—I learned grammar.—Thou learnedst thy task well.—He learned his task thoroughly.—Learned we the subject sufficiently.—Learned you your exercises yesterday?—Learned they their pieces perfectly?

RULE XVIII.

The passive participle, unconnected with an auxiliary, belongs, like an adjective, to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood.

I see a child well taught.—I saw a boy badly beaten.—Thou seest me sorely afflicted.—Thou sawest a letter slovenly written.—He sees a child wilfully abused.—He saw you ill treated.—Some

pieces of wood, curiously carved, floated ashore.—We, teaching the class, talk a great deal.—The men, having finished their work, went abroad.—The boys, having learned their lesson, played.—The workmen, ploughing the ground, broke the plough.—The men, having ploughed the field, left it.—My neighbour bought a field well ploughed.—John Stiles purchased a farm well cultivated.—He cultivates one well purchased.

Who does that work?—Who did this mischief?—Who saw that mischief done?—Whom see I?—Whom seest thou now?—Whom sees he?—Whom see ye sometimes?—Whom saw ye yesterday?—Which lovest thou most?—What dost thou to-day?—I have a book.—Thou hast a pen.—He has money.—We have gold.—Ye or you have houses.—They have property.

What has he?—What book has he?—Which book has he?—Which road takes thou note?—Whose house liveth thou?—Whose child teaches he?—Us they teach.—Them we teach.—Hér I instruct.—Thén he cheats.—I who teach you, love them.—Thou who teachest me, lovest her.—He who teaches us, loves them.—We who teach the boys, love them.—You who teach the girl, love her.—They who teach the daughter, love her mother.

I, whom you commanded, loved your father once.—Thou, whom he taught, dost well.—Him, whom you see, I love still.—Whom thou seest, him love I.—Them whom he whips, I pity.—The book which I lost, you found.—The book I lost, you found.—The money I lost, he

spent.—The house you built, I bought.—I saw, to-day, the horse you sold.—I taught the boy you sent.—They caught the thief, you suspected.—The boys the boy injures.—The boy the boys injure.—The boy the boys carries.—The boys the boy carry.—Thee whom they betray, we love.

I have learned my task.—Thou has learned thy lesson.—He has learned his exercises.—He hath learned them.—We have learned very slowly.—The man has seen his son daily.—The men have seen their sons thrice.—The parents have clad their children warmly.—I had seen him.—Thou hast seen them often.—I shall see you to-morrow.—Thou wilt see me some days hence.—He will see thee twenty times.—I shall have seen you ten times to-morrow.—Thou wilt have seen her abused twice, perhaps thrice, by-and-by.—He will have finished his work to-morrow.

You gave a book to me.—You have given me a book.—He lent me some money.—He has lent you a book.—Her father bought her a present, which she gave her friend.—That man's brother and sister left him a fortune, which he soon wasted.—Whom, ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you.—Modesty makes large amends for the pain, it gives the persons who labour under it, by the prejudice, it affords every worthy person in their favour.

I invited his brother and him to my house.—Him and his friend I had seen before.—Him whom the master taught, your brother had taught before.—I shall see him before you ar-

rive.—He will finish his studies first, because he commenced them before you.—I saw her and her sister long since.—I have seen you since I saw her.—I walked before you, and your friend rode before me.—Some people have seen much more of the world than others.—He has seen more years than I.—You labour more than he.—He came down stairs slowly, but he went briskly up again.

CONVERSATION XVI.

OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Tutor. You now understand the indicative mood, with all its tenses, so well, that you will find the other moods and their tenses very easily acquired.

Caroline. We expected to find the moods and tenses of the verbs somewhat difficult to learn; but we now begin to think, that they are very easily understood and remembered.

Tutor. If you listen attentively to what I say, and reflect well upon it, I think you will readily comprehend every part of the subject.

I will now proceed to explain the subjunctive mood.

When a verb is preceded by a word, or by words, which express a condition, doubt, motive,

wish, or supposition, it is in the SUBJUNCTIVE Mood: as,

He will injure his health, *if he walk* in the rain; I will respect him, *though he chide* me; *on condition that he come*, I will consent to stay.

George. I perceive, by your examples, that the third person singular of the verb, in the *subjunctive* mood, present tense, has not the same termination, that it has in the indicative. In the indicative, the verbs, which you have given, viz. *walk, chide, come*, would be *walks, chides, comes*.

Tutor. That is true. The subjunctive mood does not vary the verb in the *present tense*. All the persons are like the first person singular, as you may see by these examples:

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

You will conjugate all verbs, in the subjunctive present, in the same manner. But in the subjunctive *imperfect, perfect, pluperfect, first future*, and *second future*, the verb is conjugated just as it is in those tenses of the indicative mood; except that *will* and *wilt* are not used in the subjunctive *second future*, and that a conjunction, expressing a condition, doubt, &c. is used before it, as you have seen, in the examples I have given you. The subjunctive *second future* of the verb *come*, is conjugated thus:

Singular Number.

If I shall have come.
If thou shalt have come.
If he shall have come.

Plural Number.

If we shall have come.
If ye or you shall have come.
If they shall have come.

And all others in the same manner.

George. I now see that the difference between the conjugation of the verb in the indicative mood, and in the subjunctive, is only in the *present* tense, and the *second future*. In the *present*, it does not vary on account of the person of its nominative, as it does in the indicative; and in the *second future*, *will* and *wilt* are not used; but *shall* and *shalt*.

Tutor. That is right.

Caroline. I suppose *any* conjunction, that expresses a condition, doubt, motive, &c. may be used, in conjugating the verb in the subjunctive mood, as well as *if*.

Tutor. Certainly. You may use *though, whether, unless, lest*, &c. but these being longer words, are not so convenient in conjugating the verb as *if*.

George. Are the conjunctions which express condition, doubt, motive, &c. always written before the verb in the subjunctive?

Tutor. No: sometimes they are understood, and the form of the expression will show you

when they are understood: as, "Had he come sooner, I should have seen him;" "Were he rich, he would be liberal;" that is, "If he had come," &c.; "If he were rich," &c.

Caroline. I believe we comprehend the character and use of the subjunctive mood.

Tutor. I believe you comprehend what I have said; but I have a few words more to say on this subject. There are two forms of the *Present Tense* of the subjunctive mood, which I denominate the *First Form*, and the *Second Form* of the subjunctive present: the *Second Form* is that which I have explained. The *First Form* is that in which the verb retains the personal termination in the second and third persons singular, as it does in the indicative present: as,

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

FIRST FORM.

If I study.
If thou studiest.
If he studies.

Plural.

If we study.
If ye or you study.
If they study.

SECOND FORM.

If I study.
If thou study.
If he study.

Plural.

If we study.
If ye or you study.
If they study.

George. The distinction of these two forms of the present tense of the subjunctive, is very easily remembered, because the *first* is like that of the indicative present, except the conjunction must be prefixed; and the *second* you explained before.

Caroline. But I perceive one difficulty; which is, that I do not know when I must use the *first* form, or when I must use the *second*.

Tutor. I will try to inform you on this point.

The *Second Form* of the subjunctive present, as I have given it to you, always has a *future* signification; or a reference to *future* time, as you will perceive by reflecting on the examples which I have used to illustrate it.

The *first form* has no reference to *future* time. Both are preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, or by some words which express a condition, doubt, motive, &c. so that, when you take the whole compound sentence together, in which the subjunctive present is used, and find that the expression has a reference to *future* time, you must use the *second form*; otherwise, the *first*.

The truth is, that the *second form*, having a reference to future time, always has some auxiliary verb understood before it; such as *may*, *can*, or *should*. Now you will perceive, that, if we conjugate the verb, and use one of these auxiliaries, the *principal* verb cannot vary, in the second and third persons singular: as,

If I <i>should</i> go.	If I <i>can</i> come.
If thou <i>shouldst</i> go.	If thou <i>canst</i> come.
If he <i>should</i> go, &c.	If he <i>can</i> come, &c.

And when I say, "George will improve, if he study;" the phrase means, that George will improve, if he *should* study.

George. I perceive, that is the meaning; and the verb must be *study*, and not *studies*; for

we cannot say, "If he *should studies*;" and the principal verb must be written in the same manner, when the auxiliary is understood, as it is, when expressed.

Tutor. That is right; and I think now, that you both understand the subjunctive mood; and when you parse a verb in the present tense of this mood, always tell whether it is in the *first* or *second* form.

I will now question you concerning the subject of this Conversation.

QUESTIONS.

When is a verb in the subjunctive mood?

Why is this mood called *subjunctive*?

Is this mood ever used in simple sentences?

What is the difference between the *first* and the *second* form of the subjunctive present?

How many tenses has this mood?

In what tenses of the subjunctive mood is the verb conjugated, as it is in the correspondent tenses of the indicative?

In which is it conjugated differently?

In what instances must the *first* form of the subjunctive present be used?

In what must the *second* be used?

Can you conjugate the verb *speak*, through all the tenses of the subjunctive mood, giving both forms of the present tense?

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

I shall walk in the fields to-morrow, unless it rain. If George studies well, he does his duty in that respect. If that man thinks as he speaks,

he will hereafter find himself in error. My estate has considerably increased during this year, unless my accountant deceives me. If he acquire riches, and make not a good use of them, they will corrupt his mind.

It is here necessary to give you another rule, to assist you in the proper use of the verbs, in the construction of compound sentences.

RULE XIX.

Verbs, connected by conjunctions, must be in the same mood and tense, and, when in the subjunctive mood, they must be in the SAME FORM.

You remember, doubtless, the 14th rule, which says, "Nouns and pronouns, connected by conjunctions, must be in the same case."

This rule, and the 19th, which I have just given you, are of great importance, in the construction of compound sentences; and you must, therefore, pay particular attention to them.

CONVERSATION XVII.

OF THE POTENTIAL, INFINITIVE, AND IMPERATIVE MOODS.

Tutor. In this Conversation, I will give you the remaining moods, and their tenses. I shall, first explain to you the potential mood.

This mood implies possibility, or liberty, will;

or obligation: as, "It *may* rain; he may go; I can walk; he would ride; they should study."

This mood, you may remember, has four tenses, viz. the present, the imperfect, the perfect, and the pluperfect.

I have told you, that those tenses which are formed by auxiliary verbs, are called *compound* tenses. The present and imperfect tenses, of the indicative and subjunctive moods, you know, are *simple* tenses, and the others are compound; but *all* the tenses of the potential mood are compound.

The auxiliaries which form the tenses of the potential mood, are, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would* and *should*.

I will, first, show you how these auxiliaries are conjugated, and will, then, give you the potential mood.

MAY.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

I may.

Thou mayst.

He may.

Plural.

We may.

Ye or you may.

They may.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

I might.

Thou mightst.

He might.

Plural.

We might.

Ye or you might.

They might.

CAN.

Singular.

I can.

Thou canst.

He can.

Singular.

I could.

Thou couldst.

He could.

Plural.

We can.

Ye or you can.

They can.

Singular.

I must.

Thou must.

He must.

Plural.

We must.

Ye or you must.

They must.

You will here observe that *must* has no variation on account of *person*, *number*, or *tense*.

Singular.

I will.

Thou wilt.

He will.

Plural.

We will.

Ye or you will.

They will.

Singular.

I shall.

Thou shalt.

He shall.

Plural.

We shall.

Ye or you shall.

They shall.

Plural.

We could.

Ye or you could.

They could.

MUST.

Singular.

I must.

Thou must.

He must.

Plural.

We must.

Ye or you must.

They must.

WILL.

Singular.

I would.

Thou wouldst.

He would.

Plural.

We would.

Ye or you would.

They would.

SHALL.

Singular.

I should.

Thou shouldst.

He shouldst.

Plural.

We should.

Ye or you should.

They should.

George. I observe that you have given no perfect or passive participle to these verbs.

Tutor. These verbs have no participles; and they are, therefore, called *defective* verbs.

Caroline. You say, that all these are used in forming the tenses of the potential mood; but I recollect, that *shall* and *will* were used as auxiliaries, in forming the first and second future tenses of the *indicative* and *subjunctive* moods.

Tutor. They were; and, when they denote *futurity*, as in these expressions: "I shall see you to-morrow; or I will meet you;" meaning at some future time; they put the verbs in the indicative first future. So, in these phrases, "I shall have seen him," or if I shall have seen him," &c. the verbs are in the indicative and subjunctive, second future.

But, when these auxiliaries denote inclination or willingness, resolution, or promise, they put the verbs in the potential present: as, "*Will* you give me that book, George?" that is, "Are you *willing* to give me that book." Again, "Some persons *will* never assist the poor;" that is, some persons are *unwilling* to assist the poor.

Once more, "*Shall* I hear you recite now?" "You *shall* recite now." "He *shall* obey me at all times," &c. But *will* and *shall* are not so often used in this sense, as they are in that which denotes futurity.

May, *can*, *must*, and their *imperfect tenses*, and the *imperfect* tenses of *will* and *shall*, viz. *would* and *should*, are the auxiliaries, which are almost always used to form the potential mood.

I will now give you the irregular verb *BEAT* in the four tenses of the potential mood.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

To form the *present* tense, prefix the *present* tense of any of the auxiliaries, which I have just explained, to the verb: as,

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

I may or can, &c. beat,
Thou mayst or canst, &c. beat,
He may or can, &c. beat.

Plural.

We may or can, &c. beat,
Ye or you may or can, &c. beat,
They may or can, &c. beat.

To form the *imperfect* tense, prefix the *imperfect* of any of these auxiliaries to the verb: as,

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

I might, could, would, or should, &c. beat,
Thou mightst, &c. beat,
He might, &c. beat.

Plural.

We might, &c. beat,
Ye or you might, &c. beat,
They might, &c. beat.

To form the *perfect* tense, combine the *present* tense of any of these auxiliaries with *have*, and prefix them both to the perfect participle : as,

PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

I may or can, &c. have beaten,
Thou mayst, &c. have beaten,
He may, &c. have beaten.

Plural.

We may, &c. have beaten,
Ye or you may, &c. have beaten,
They may, &c. have beaten.

To form the *pluperfect* tense, combine the *imperfect* of any of these auxiliaries with *have*, and prefix them both to the perfect participle : as,

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

I might or could, &c. have beaten,
Thou mightst, &c. have beaten,
He might, &c. have beaten.

Plural.

We might, &c. have beaten,
Ye or you might, &c. have beaten,
They might, &c. have beaten.

I have now presented to you the potential mood with its tenses, and have explained the manner in which they are formed.

George. I now see that all the tenses of this mood are compound tenses, because they are all formed by auxiliaries. I think, with a little reflection, that it will not be difficult to remember the particular form of each.

Caroline. If you please, I will endeavour to tell how each is formed.

Tutor. Let me hear.

Caroline. The potential *present* is formed by prefixing *may*, *can*, *must*, *will*, or *shall*, to any verb ; the *imperfect* is formed by prefixing the *imperfect* tense of these, viz. *might*, *could*, *must*, *would*, or *should*, to any verb ; the *perfect* is formed by prefixing *may have*, *can have*, or *must have*, to the *perfect participle* of any verb ; and the *pluperfect* is formed by prefixing *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, &c. to the *perfect participle* of any verb.

Tutor. The word *potential*, means *powerful*, or *existing in possibility*. When used as a term in grammar, it denotes the possibility of doing an action. Although this mood does not *always* represent the power or possibility of doing an action, yet it *frequently* does, and we, therefore, call this form of the verb the Potential Mood.

I will here remark to you, that, as the indicative mood is converted into the subjunctive, by the expression of a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c. being superadded to it ; so the potential mood may, in like manner, be turned into the subjunctive ; as will be seen by the following examples : " If I could deceive him, I should abhor it ; " " Though he should increase in wealth, he would not be charitable ; " " Even in

prosperity he would gain no esteem, unless he should conduct himself better."

When the verb is changed from the potential into the subjunctive mood, the *tense* is not changed. For example: "I may go," is potential present; "If I may go," is subjunctive present; and, "He would go," potential imperfect; and, "If he would go," subjunctive imperfect, &c.

Caroline. Now I should like to hear some explanation of the infinitive mood.

Tutor. The INFINITIVE MOOD is that form of the verb which simply expresses the action, without a nominative case: as, *to walk, to eat, to speak*, &c. Every verb must have a nominative case, if it is not in the infinitive mood; but in this mood, you may easily perceive that it cannot have a nominative; for this form of the verb, as I have shown you, is, *to walk, to go*, &c. and we cannot say, "I *to go*, I *to walk*, he *to run*," &c. A verb in any mood, except the infinitive, is called a *finite* verb; because it is *finite*, or limited, in respect to its number and person; for a verb, when it has a nominative, must agree with it in number and person. Thus, when I say, "I run," run, you know, is of the *first* person singular to agree with *I*; and, when I say, "They run," run is of the *third* person plural to agree with *they*. It is the nominative, then, you perceive, that gives number and person to the verb. When I say, "To run," run has no nominative, and of course it has neither number nor person, and is, therefore, not a *finite* verb, but a verb in the *infinite form*, or infinitive mood.

When, in a former Conversation, I explained to you simple and compound sentences, I told you, that a simple sentence has but one nominative and one verb. You did not, then, know the difference between a *finite* verb, and a verb in the infinitive mood; or I should have told you, that a *simple sentence* is one, which contains but one nominative and one *FINITE* verb. It may contain other verbs in the infinitive mood, and still it will be a simple sentence.

Caroline. I think you have said, that this mood has but *two* tenses.

Tutor. Yes; the *present* and *perfect*. The present tense is formed by prefixing *to*, which is called the *sign* of the infinitive mood, before any verb: as, "*To go, to walk, to eat*," &c. The perfect is formed by prefixing *TO HAVE* before the perfect participle of any verb: as, "*To have gone, to have walked, to have eaten*," &c.

But, when a verb is in the infinitive mood, and is placed after *make, need, see, bid, dare, feel, hear, let*, in any of their moods or tenses, or after their participles, the *to* must be omitted: as, "I make him *study*; I hear her *sing*; I see him *run*; I will let him *go*; I dare not *speak*;" &c. In these examples, you perceive, that it would be inelegant to express the *to*, and say, "I heard her *to sing*," &c.

George. All this is very plain, and easily understood; but how must we parse a verb in the infinitive mood? for we cannot apply the first rule, as we do, when we parse verbs in other moods, because a verb in this mood has no nominative case.

Tutor. You will tell whether it is *regular* or *irregular*; *transitive* or *intransitive*; as you do of verbs in other moods; then the mood and tense, and give this

RULE XX.

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

Government, is the influence which one word has over another in directing its *case* or *mood*. A verb in the infinitive mood, has no nominative. When a verb, noun, adjective, or participle, then, prevents the following verb from having a nominative, it prevents it from being a *finite* verb, and, consequently, causes it to be in the infinitive mood.

Caroline. Will you illustrate this rule by a few examples?

Tutor. I will. When I say, "She sings;" you know that *she* is the nominative to the verb *sings*. But now I write, "*I will let*," before that phrase, and you will perceive that the pronoun *she*, can no longer remain as the nominative to *sings*, but must be changed into *her*, in the objective case, because *let* is a *transitive* verb, and governs that case; and the *s*, which is the personal termination of the third person singular, of the indicative mood, must be taken off; then the phrase will stand thus: "I will let *her* sing;" and *sing* is now in the infinitive mood, and governed by the verb *will let*.

George. I see very clearly, that *will let*, governs *sing*; or causes *sing* to be in the infini-

tive mood; for we cannot say, "I will let *she* sing."

Tutor. This mood is generally governed by the preceding verb; but, sometimes, by a noun, adjective, or a participle; and, when these govern it, they, in some way or other, prevent the verb from having a nominative. Thus, if I say, "I go," "they work;" *go* and *work* are finite verbs; but insert the verbs *intend* and *expect*; "I intend to go," "they expect to work;" now, *intend* and *expect* take *I* and *they* for their own nominatives, and put the other verbs into the infinitive mood.

So, when I say, "*Endeavouring* to persuade them," &c. "He is *eager* to learn"—"They have a *desire* to improve;" you see, that a nominative could not be inserted after the participle *endeavouring*, the adjective *eager*, or the noun *desire*; but, that they govern the verbs that follow them, in the infinitive mood.

I will just remark to you, that the verbs in the infinitive mood, that follow *make*, *need*, *see*, *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, and their participles, are always governed by them.

And I will also observe, that there are a few verbs, besides these, which *sometimes* require the infinitive, that follows them, to be used without the sign *to*.

Caroline. I hope you have now finished your remarks on the infinitive mood; for I wish to hear something about the imperative, which is the last of the moods.

Tutor. The IMPERATIVE MOOD may be very soon disposed of.

It simply expresses a command to a second person; and the person commanded, is its nominative. It is, therefore always of the *second* person; and, as we cannot command in *past* or *future* time, it is always of the present tense.—The nominative to a verb in this mood, is generally understood: as, “Go;” that is, “Go thou,” or, “Go ye.”—“Come to me, and recite;” that is, “Come thou, or come ye or you,” &c.

The verb in the imperative mood, then, is always in the present tense, and always of the second person, either singular or plural. When *one* person is commanded, it is of the singular number, and agrees with *thou*, expressed or understood; when more than one are commanded, it is of the plural number, and agrees with *ye* or *you*, expressed or understood. *Do* is sometimes used as an *auxiliary*, in this mood, as well as in the indicative and subjunctive; as, “*Do* study;” “*Do* thou study, or *do* you study;” “*Do* do the work better,” &c. “*Do* let that alone.”

When I gave you the potential mood, I made you acquainted with some of the defective verbs.

DEFECTIVE VERBS are those which are used only in some of the moods and tenses, and have no participles.

The principal of them are these :

*Present.**Imperfect.**Perf. or Pass. Participles wanting.*

May,
Can,
Will,
Shall,
Must,
Ought,

might.
could.
would.
should.
must.
ought.
quoth.

All these are used as auxiliaries except *ought* and *quoth*; these two are never used as such. You will observe that *ought* is the same in both tenses; you will be able to determine its tense, then, only by the following infinitive; for it is always followed by a verb in the infinitive mood. When the following infinitive is in the present tense, *ought* is in the present tense; as, “He *ought* to go;” and when followed by the infinitive perfect, *ought* is in the imperfect: as, “He *ought* to have gone.”

I will ask you a few questions concerning the subjects of this Conversation.

QUESTIONS.

What are the auxiliaries which form the potential mood?

How many tenses has this mood?

How is the present formed?

How is the imperfect formed?

How is the perfect formed?

How is the pluperfect formed?

What is the meaning of tense?

When is a tense called compound?

What is a simple tense?

Which tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods are simple, and which compound?

How many tenses has the infinitive mood?

How are they formed?

How does this mood differ from the others?

Why is it called infinitive?

Why is the imperative so called?

Of what person must a verb in the imperative mood *always* be?

How do you know the tense of the defective verb *ought*?

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Study, if you wish to improve.—Behave well if thou lovest virtue or a good name.—Strive to imitate the virtues, which thou seest exhibited by the good; then thou wilt give evidence of thy own.—He may improve himself if his industry should increase.—He ought to study more.—He ought to have studied his lesson better.—He can go if he chooses.—The boy must not treat his superiors ill.—My neighbour may have sold his house, for aught that I know.—I told him that he might go yesterday, but he would not.—He might have acquired great wealth, if he had desired it.—The man should have returned when he found his enterprise unsuccessful.—We would not serve him then, but we will hereafter.

CONVERSATION XVIII.

OF PASSIVE AND NEUTER VERBS.

When, in the third Conversation, I explained the verb to you, I gave you this definition of it: "*A verb is a word that expresses an action of some creature or thing.*" This definition, although it has been sufficient for our purpose, thus far, is, nevertheless, very incomplete, as you will soon perceive.

VERBS are divided into three sorts, the *Active*, the *Passive*, and the *Neuter* verbs.

The definition of a verb, which has been given by the most respectable grammarians is this: "A verb is a word which signifies to BE, to DO, or to SUFFER: as, I am, I rule, I am ruled."

In this example, AM is a verb neuter, RULE is a verb active, and AM RULED is a verb passive. According to this definition, then, a verb neuter signifies to BE, or to *exist* merely; a verb active signifies to DO, or to *act*; and a verb passive signifies to SUFFER.

This definition of the active verb you understand; but, perhaps, you would hardly know a passive verb, from the definition here given.

George. To *suffer*, means to undergo pain, or inconvenience. Then, when I say, "I suffer pain; I suffer inconvenience; I endure pain;" are not *suffer* and *endure*, passive verbs?

Tutor. No: these govern objective cases, and

any verb that governs an objective case, is a *transitive* verb. You must reflect on what I said about the transitive and intransitive verbs, in Conversation XI. You may remember, that I called your attention to this subject immediately after giving you an explanation of the prepositions.

Caroline. To *suffer*, sometimes means to allow, or to permit. If I say, "I *allow*, I *permit*," without using an objective case; as, "I *allow* that he is right," &c.; are not *these* passive verbs?

Tutor. No: *allow*, in the sentence you have just given, governs the whole phrase that follows it, as an object. These verbs require an object, without which they make no sense.

Caroline. Then I do not understand the definition that is given of the passive verb.

Tutor. I will endeavour to explain the different kinds of verbs, so that you will be able to distinguish the *active* verb from the *passive*, and the *neuter* from either, without hesitation.

To *nominate*, means to name, or to designate, or to point out by name; and *NOMINATIVE*, is derived from the verb to *nominate*, and, when used in grammar, means the creature or thing *named*, or *pointed out*; so that all nouns, when they are merely *named*, and not connected in sentences, are in the *nominative* case; that is, they denote things that exist, *named* merely: as, houses, trees, men, paper, &c.: these words, used in this manner, simply denote things *named*; or in a state, condition, or *case*, *named* merely, without having any relation with any other

things. But, when we frame a sentence, and make a complete sense, *which we can never do without a VERB*, the term *nominative*, is used to designate, or point out, the *subject*, concerning which the verb makes some affirmation; in contradistinction to the *object* of an action or of a relation.

Every sentence must have in it, at least one *verb* and one *nominative*, expressed or understood. We cannot form a sentence of any kind, which will make a complete sense, without a *nominative* and a *verb*. This you will easily perceive, by a few examples. If I say, "The man in the house;" "The horse in the stable;" "The books on the table;" "The labourers in the field," &c. you cannot ascertain what is meant, because there is no affirmation in any of these expressions. But insert the verbs, *eats*, *drinks*, *sleeps*, *is*, *walks*, *remains*, in the first two; and *are seen*, *are found*, *are beheld*, *will be observed*, in the next two, and you will see, that a complete sense will be formed in each simple sentence, for you will have a *nominative* and *verb* in each.

A nominative to a verb, then, is the word which denotes the person or thing, concerning which the verb makes an affirmation.

The *nominatives* to verbs may be divided into three classes, viz. those which *produce* the action expressed by the verb; those which *receive* the action expressed by the verb; and those which neither produce any action, nor receive any, but are the subjects of the verbs, which simply express the *existence* of these subjects, or their *state* of existence.

The first class, then, are *active* nominatives; the second are *passive* nominatives; because *passive* is in direct opposition to active; it means unresisting, or receiving an action, or an impression, without resistance; and the third are *neuter* nominatives; that is, nominatives which neither produce nor receive an action; because these are connected with verbs which do not express any action, but a mere existence, or state of existence.

To illustrate what I have said, take the following examples:

First, of ACTIVE NOMINATIVES: as, "The box rolls;" "The horse runs;" "The men labour;" "The man writes a letter."

Secondly, of PASSIVE NOMINATIVES: as, "The box is held;" "The horse is seen;" "The men are punished;" "The man is carried."

Thirdly, of NEUTER NOMINATIVES: as, "The box lies on the table;" "The horse remains in the field;" "The men stay in the house;" "The man abides in the city."

Caroline. I think I now understand the difference between the *active*, *passive*, and *neuter* verbs. When a verb expresses the action of its nominative, it is an active verb; when it expresses the action received by its nominative, or done to its nominative, it is a passive verb; and when it expresses no action at all, but the mere existence of its nominative, or its state of existence, it is a verb, neither active nor passive, and is, therefore, called neuter.

George. So the verb takes its character from its nominative. If the verb has an *active* nomi-

native, it is an *active* verb; if a *passive* nominative, it is a *passive* verb; and if a *neuter* nominative, it is a *neuter* verb.

Tutor. That is right. But I will now give you the conjugation of the neuter verb BE, through all its moods and tenses. When you understand this verb, so that you know it instantly, in all its moods and tenses, you will possess additional means for distinguishing the passive verb; because this neuter verb BE, is frequently used as an *auxiliary*, as well as a principal verb, and no *passive verb* can be formed without it. You will, therefore, find it of great importance to make this verb, which is the most irregular one in the English language, exceedingly familiar to you.

The auxiliary and neuter verb *To be*, is conjugated as follows:

TO BE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
I am,	We are.
Thou art,	Ye or you are.
He, she, or it is.	They are.

Imperfect Tense.

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

Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I have been,	We have been.
Thou hast been,	Ye or you have been.
He hath or has been.	They have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

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

First Future Tense.

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

Second Future Tense.

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

This neuter verb *Be*, in the Subjunctive Mood, has *two forms* of the IMPERFECT, as well as of the *present* tense. All other verbs, in the subjunctive mood, have two forms of the *present* tense only.

The two forms of the subjunctive present and

imperfect tenses of the neuter verb *Be*, are these :*

FIRST FORM.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
If I am,	If we are.
If thou art,	If ye or you are.
If he is.	If they are.

Imperfect Tense.

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

SECOND FORM.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
If I be,	If we be.
If thou be,	If ye or you be.
If he be.	If they be.

Imperfect Tense.

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

* To understand the proper use of these, see Sec. XX, page 263, and onwards, in the large grammar.

The remaining tenses of this mood are similar to the correspondent tenses of the Indicative Mood, with the exception which I have before given you, viz. that *will* and *wilt* are not used in the second future.

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.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.

I might, could, would,

or should have been,

Thou mightst, couldst,

wouldst, *or* shouldst

have been,

Hemight, could, would,

or should have been.

Plural.

We might, could, would,

or should have been.

Ye *or* you might, could,

would, *or* should have

been.

They might, could,

would, *or* should

have been.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

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

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Be thou, *or* do thou be,

Plural.

Be ye *or* you, *or* do ye

be.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being.

Compound Perfect. Having been.

Perfect. Been.

I remarked to you, before I gave you the conjugation of this verb, that no passive verb can ever be formed without it. I will now tell you how the passive verb is formed: Add the perfect, *or* passive *participle*, of any verb that can be made *transitive*, when used in an *active* sense, to this neuter verb BE, and you

will have a passive verb, in the same mood and tense that the neuter verb would be in, if the participle were not added. You cannot form a passive verb in any other way.

Caroline. I think I understand it. If I take the word *forsaken*, which is the perfect or passive participle of the active verb *to forsake*; for this verb can be made *transitive*: as, "I forsake him;" "He forsakes me," &c. and place it after the neuter verb *be*: as, "I am forsaken; thou art forsaken; he is forsaken; I was forsaken, &c.; I have been forsaken, &c.; I had been forsaken, &c.; I shall be forsaken, &c.; I shall have been forsaken, &c.;" I shall have a *passive* verb, from the *active* verb *to forsake*, in all the six tenses of the indicative mood. And I perceive, that the pronoun *I*, when connected with a passive verb, is not an *active*, but a *passive* nominative.

Tutor. I believe, *Caroline*, that you understand how to form the passive verbs.

George. But there are many active verbs that are *intransitive*; such as, *go, fly, arrive, &c.* Suppose that I should put the perfect participle of an active *intransitive* verb after the neuter verb *be*, and say, "He is gone;" "He is arrived;" "The bird is flown," &c.; what kind of a verb shall I have then?

Tutor. A neuter verb, in a *passive* form.

Caroline. Is this neuter verb *be*, ever used as an auxiliary connected with the *present* participle?

Tutor. Yes, very often. What is the rule which you give, when you parse the present participle?

Caroline. The active participle ending in *ing*, when not connected with a verb, refers to some noun, or pronoun, denoting the actor.

Tutor. That is right; but when it is added to the neuter verb *be*, *be* becomes an *auxiliary*, and marks the mood and tense of the verb, and the *participle* becomes the *principal* part of the verb, just as the *passive* participle does when you form a *passive* verb.

George. And what sort of a verb have we, when the *present* participle is added to the neuter verb *be*?

Tutor. Either an active *transitive* or *intransitive* verb, or a verb neuter. If the participle is derived from a transitive verb, you have an active transitive verb; if the participle is derived from an intransitive verb, then you have an intransitive verb; but, if it is derived from a verb neuter, you have a neuter verb: as, "I am writing a letter;" here you see that *am writing*, is a transitive verb from the verb *to write*, and governs *letter* in the objective case; "I am running;" here you see the verb is *active*, but *intransitive*, from the verb *to run*; and, "I am sitting; I am standing; I am lying on the bed;" you now perceive that the verbs are neuter, from the neuter verbs *to sit, to stand, to lie*. And I will remark to you, that this neuter verb *be*, is never used as an auxiliary, except with the *present*, or *passive* participles of other verbs.

I will now give you the conjugation of the regular verb *to love*, in the passive form.

A passive verb is conjugated by adding the

perfect participle to the auxiliary *to be*, through all its changes of number, person, mood, and tense, in the following manner:

TO BE LOVED.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

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

Imperfect Tense.

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

Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I have been loved,	We have been loved,
Thou hast been loved,	Ye or you have been loved,
He hath or has been loved.	They have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

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

First Future Tense.

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

Second Future Tense.

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

The passive verb, necessarily, has the same two forms of the subjunctive present and imperfect tenses, that the neuter verb *Be* has.

FIRST FORM.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
If I am loved,	If we are loved.
If thou art loved,	If ye or you are loved.
If he is loved,	If they are loved.

Imperfect Tense.

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

SECOND FORM.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

If I be loved,
If thou be loved,
If he be loved,

Plural.

If we be loved.
If ye or you be loved.
If they be loved.

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.*

If I were loved,
If thou wert loved,
If he were loved,

Plural.

If we were loved.
If ye or you were loved.
If they were loved.

The remaining tenses of this mood are similar to the correspondent tenses of the Indicative Mood, except *will* and *wilt* are not used in the second future.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

I may or can be loved,
Thou mayst or canst be loved,
He may or can be loved,

Plural.

We may or can be loved.
Ye or you may or can be loved.
They may or can be loved.

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.*

I might, could, would, or should be loved,
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be loved,

Plural.

We might, could, would, or should be loved.
Ye or you might, could, would, or should be loved.

He might, could, would, or should be loved,
They might, could, would, or should be loved.

*Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

I may or can have been loved,
Thou mayst or canst have been loved,
He may or can have been loved,

Plural.

We may or can have been loved.
Ye or you may or can have been loved.
They may or can have been loved.

*Pluperfect Tense.**Singular.*

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

Plural.

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

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

To be loved.

Perfect.

To have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Be thou loved, or do thou be loved.

Plural.

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

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Being loved.
<i>Perfect or Passive.</i>	Loved.
<i>Compound Perfect.</i>	Having been loved.

Now you can take the passive participles of other verbs, and conjugate them in the same manner. Take *beaten, carried, seen, forgotten*, and many others, and use them instead of *loved*, as an exercise to make you familiar with the conjugation of a passive verb.

You will now observe, that, when an auxiliary is joined to the participle of the principal verb, the auxiliary goes through all the variations of person and number, and the participle itself continues invariably the same. When there are two or more auxiliaries joined to the participle, the first of them only is varied according to person and number. The auxiliary *must* admits of no variation.

I will now give you some

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The man beats the boy.—The boy is beaten by the man.—The horses draw the coach.—The coach is drawn by the horses.—The master teaches the children.—The children are taught by the master.—The carpenter built the houses.—The houses were built by the carpenter.—Commerce introduces luxury.—Luxury is introduced by commerce.—That farmer cultivates his farm

well.—The farm is well cultivated.—The goods were purchased.—The house was sold.—The ship has been lost.—The money will be found.—The boy will have completed his task before you see him.—The task will have been completed an hour, in ten minutes more.—The lady remains at home.—The book lies on the table.—The desk stands in the corner of the room.—The coach and horses are in the stable.—I am here.—Thou art here.—He is in town.—We are honest.—You are proud.—They are sober.—I was sleepy.—Thou wast angry with him.—He was not eager to learn.—They were guilty.—We were reasonable in our demands.—Ye were found guilty.—I have been on the water frequently.—I have been seen on the water frequently.—I have seen the man.—I have been seen by the man.—The boy had seen it.—The boy had been seen.—The letter will be here.—The letter will be brought hither.—Be honest.—Be not idle.—Be instructed.—Be carried.—You like to be carried.—You may be carried.—You ought to be carried.—He ought to have been carried.—He should have been carried, had I known his situation.—The house can be enlarged.—He might be convinced.—He might have been convinced.—Being ridiculed and despised, he still maintained his principles.—Having been ridiculed, he could not endure his chagrin.—Ridiculed, despised, insulted, he became discouraged.—If I be beaten by him, he will be punished.—If he has been seen, he has not been caught.—Whether he is at home or not, I have

no means of knowing.—If I were beaten as badly as he, I should complain.—If he was beaten, it is not known.

CONVERSATION XIX.

OF THE AUXILIARY VERBS, AND OF THE TENSES.

Tutor. You must, by this time, have observed the great importance of auxiliary verbs in the English language; for you have seen, that without them, the verbs would be limited in their moods and tenses, to the indicative and subjunctive moods, in the present and imperfect tenses; the infinitive mood, present tense; and the imperative mood.

George. I perceive, that they are of great importance in giving variety, as well as precision, to the language. For with these, we form the perfect, pluperfect, and two future tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods; all the tenses of the potential mood; and the perfect of the infinitive.

Tutor. Some of these auxiliaries, I have already particularly noticed, viz. *may*, *can*, *must*, *will*, and *shall*. None of these, except *will*, is ever used as a principal verb, but as an *auxiliary* to some *principal*, either expressed or understood. *Will* is sometimes a principal verb,

as I will by-and-by show you. There are four verbs which are sometimes used as auxiliaries, and sometimes as principals. These are, *do*, *be*, *have*, and *will*.

Do is used as an auxiliary, in the imperative mood, and in the present and imperfect tenses of the indicative and subjunctive.

Be is used as an auxiliary, in *all* the moods and tenses to form the passive verbs, and neuter verbs in a passive form, by being connected with the passive participles of other verbs; and in forming active and neuter verbs, by being connected with the present participles of other verbs; and, in both instances, serves to mark the *mood* and the *tense* of the verb.

Have is used in forming the perfect, pluperfect, and second future tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods; the perfect and pluperfect of the potential mood; and the perfect of the infinitive mood.

Will is used in forming the first and second future tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods; and, *sometimes*, in forming the *present* tense of the potential mood.

Caroline. And, when these are used as *principal* verbs, their moods and tenses are formed just as those of other verbs are, are they not?

Tutor. They are. And you perceive, that *have* may be an auxiliary to its own participle: as, in the indicative and subjunctive perfect and pluperfect, "I have had; I had had," and, "If I have had; if I had had," &c. And in the infinitive perfect: as, "To have had." And *do* may be used as an auxiliary to itself: as, "I do

do it," in the present; and, "I did do it," in the imperfect; and *will*, as, "He will will it; he will have willed it," &c.

George. I believe we understand the use of the auxiliary verbs now very well, and know which are used as auxiliaries always, and which are used *sometimes* as *such*, and *sometimes* as *principals*.

REMARKS ON THE TENSES.

TENSE, being the distinction of time, might seem to admit only of the present, past, and future: but to mark it more accurately, it is made to consist of six variations, viz.

THE PRESENT, THE PERFECT,
THE IMPERFECT, THE PLUPERFECT, and
THE FIRST AND SECOND FUTURE TENSES.

The PRESENT TENSE 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."

The IMPERFECT TENSE 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 post, when he met them."

The PERFECT TENSE 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."

When the particular time of any occurrence is specified, as prior to the present time, this tense is not used; for it would be improper to say, "I *have seen* him yesterday;" or, "I *have finished* my work last week." In these cases the imperfect is necessary: as, "I *saw* him yesterday;" "I *finished* my work last week." But when we speak indefinitely of any thing past, as happening or not happening in the day, year, or age, in which we mention it, the perfect must be employed: as, "I *have been* there this morning;" "I *have travelled* much this year;" "We *have escaped* many dangers through life." In referring, however, to such a division of the day as is past before the time of our speaking, we use the imperfect: as, "They *came* home early this morning;" "He *was* with them at three o'clock this afternoon."

The PLUPERFECT TENSE represents a thing, not only as past, but also prior to some other point of time, specified in the sentence: as, "I had finished my letter before he arrived."

The first FUTURE TENSE represents the action as yet to come, either with or without re-

spect to the precise time: as, "The sun will rise to-morrow;" "I shall see them again."

The SECOND FUTURE 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 the king comes to prorogue them."

QUESTIONS.

When is a verb in the subjunctive mood?

How does a verb differ in this mood from one in the indicative? Which tenses have two forms?

What is the difference between the first form, and the second, of the subjunctive mood, present tense?

When must the second form be used?

When is a verb called regular?

When must the first form of the subjunctive present be used?

How are the four tenses of the potential mood formed?

How does the infinitive mood differ from other moods?

Why is it called infinitive?

Why does not the second form of the subjunctive present, vary the verb in the second and third persons singular, as the indicative does?

How do you know the imperfect tense of verbs, from the perfect or passive participle, when they are both spelled alike?

When must *to* be omitted before the infinitive mood?

How are all the passive verbs formed?

Why are passive verbs so called?

What is the meaning of a neuter?

When is a verb neuter?

How many classes of nominatives are there?

Can you explain them?

What verbs are sometimes auxiliaries, and sometimes principals?

What auxiliaries are never used as principals?

In what moods and tenses is *do* used as an auxiliary?

In what tenses is *have* used as an auxiliary? and how?

What is it *always* prefixed to, when an auxiliary?

Can you give a definition of *tense*, and of the six tenses?

CONVERSATION XX.

Tutor. You are now quite familiar with nearly all the regular constructions of the language; but there are a few, which I have not yet presented to you. These I will endeavour to explain in this Conversation. A few more rules, properly explained, will enable you to parse any word, in a regularly constructed sentence, in the English

language. The first, which I shall give you this morning, is this,

RULE XXI.

Any INTRANSITIVE, PASSIVE, or NEUTER verb, must have the same case after it as before it, when both words refer to, and signify the same thing.

George. I think that I already understand this rule, for no verbs except *transitive*, govern the *objective* case. When nouns or pronouns, then, follow, *intransitive, passive, or neuter* verbs, they cannot be governed by them. And, when *both words refer to, and signify the same thing*, the latter is in apposition to the former, and must be in the same case, according to the sixteenth rule in Conversation XIII.

Tutor. That is true.

Caroline. Then what is the use of this twenty-first rule, if the sixteenth would enable us to parse all the words to which this applies?

Tutor. This rule will serve as a further illustration of that, and bring under your consideration many erroneous constructions, with which you have not yet been made sufficiently familiar, and which might escape your notice, if they were not more particularly considered.

I will first direct your attention to the neuter verb *to be*, and give you many examples and illustrations, which you must *parse*, and then you will remember them. The nouns and pronouns *before* and *after* the verbs, and which you will perceive to be in *apposition*, I will mark in *Italics*.

"I am *he* whom they invited;" "It may be (or might have been) *he*, but *it* cannot be (or could not have been) *I*;" "It is impossible to be *they*;" "It seems to have been *he*, who conducted himself so wisely;" "It appears to be *she* that transacted the business;" "I understood it to be *him*;" "I believe it to have been *them*;" "We at first took it to be *her*; but were afterwards convinced that it was not *she*." "He is not the person *who* it seemed *he* was." "He is really the person *who* *he* appeared to be." "She is not now the woman *whom* they represented *her* to have been." "Whom do you fancy *him* to be?" "He desired to be their *king*;" "They desired *him* to be their *king*."

The following sentences contain deviations from the rule, and exhibit the pronoun in a wrong case: "It might have been *him*, but there is no proof of it;" "Though I was blamed, it could not have been *me*;" "I saw one whom I took to be *she*;" "She is the person *who* I understood it to have been;" "Who do you think me to be?" "Whom do men say that I am?" "And *whom* think ye that I am?"

When the verb *to be* is understood, it has the same case before and after it, as when it is expressed: as, "He seems the leader of the party;" "He shall continue *steward*;" "They appointed *me* *executor*;" "I supposed *him* a man of learning;" that is, "He seems *to be* the leader of the party," &c.

Passive verbs which signify *naming*, and others of a similar nature, have the same case before and after them: as, "He was called *Cæ-*

sar ;" " *She* was named *Penelope* ;" Certain other neuter verbs, besides the verb *to be*, require the same case, whether it be the nominative or the objective, before and after them. The verbs *to become*, *to wander*, *to go*, *to return*, *to expire*, *to appear*, *to die*, *to live*, *to look*, *to grow*, *to seem*, *to roam*, and several others, are of this nature. "After this event, *he* became *physician* to the king ;" " *She* wanders an *outcast* ;" " *He* forced *her* to wander an *outcast* ;" " *He* went out *mate*, but *he* returned *captain*."

Caroline. I think that we shall find these remarks and examples of service to us, and that we shall not, after this, say, "It was *him* ; it was *her* ; it was *them* ; *who* do you think *him* to be ? nor, *whom* does he think that I am ?" &c.

Tutor. I will now give you

RULE XXII.

The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, is sometimes the subject of a verb, and is, therefore, its nominative.

Every nominative to a verb which you have hitherto parsed, has been either a noun, or a pronoun. But you will now find, that a *verb in the infinitive mood*, may be used *substantively*, and form the nominative to a verb. A few examples, which you must parse, will be sufficient to illustrate this rule. I will give you the following :

To err, is human. *To be*, contents his natural desire. *To play*, is pleasant. *Promising*

without due consideration, often produces a breach of promise. *To mourn without measure*, is folly ; *not to mourn at all*, insensibility. *Reading books*, improved his mind. *Letting him escape*, was a fault.

When a nominative is composed of a verb in the infinitive mood only ; as, *to err*, *to be*, &c. in parsing it, you will say, "It is a verb in the infinitive mood, used substantively, of the third person singular, and forms the nominative to the verb," whatever it may be. Then repeat Rule XXII.

When a part of the sentence is the nominative, you will call it a *substantive phrase*, third person singular, &c.

As a verb in the infinitive mood, or a substantive phrase, composed of part of a sentence, may be a *nominative* to a verb, so each of them may be used substantively, as an *object* of a verb, or an antecedent to a relative : as, "They love *to play* ;" "They begin *to see* ;" "Learn of the mole *to plough*, the worm *to weave* ;" "I endeavoured to prevent *letting him escape* ;" "I love *to read good books*."

In these sentences, *him* is governed by the participle *letting*, and *books*, by *to read*. But the two phrases, "*letting him escape*," and "*to read good books*," are governed by the preceding verbs, *to prevent*, and *love*. So a substantive phrase is frequently governed by a preposition : as, "A breach of promise is often produced by *promising without due consideration*." "The atrocious crime of *being a young man*, I shall neither attempt to palliate nor deny."

When you analyze such phrases as these last two, you will find that you cannot parse the participle, as referring to any subject or actor, according to the sixth rule, because there is no subject or actor known in the sentence; but you will merely say it is a present participle from such a verb, and composes a part of the substantive phrase. Take, for instance, the phrase, "Promising without due consideration," &c. and you will find, that the participle has no reference to any actor in the sentence, but expresses the action generally.

The next and last rule that I shall give you for parsing, is,

RULE XXIII.

When a noun or pronoun has no verb to agree with it, but is placed before a participle, independently on the rest of the sentence; it must be in the NOMINATIVE CASE absolute.

This rule presents to you another instance, in which a noun or pronoun must be in the *nominative case*, without having a verb to agree with it.

If you now observe the *nominative case independent*, according to the seventeenth rule, and the *nominative case absolute*, which we have now under consideration, you will see, that the two constructions are very different. The *nominative case independent*, always denotes the person spoken to, and is of the *second person*; the *nominative case absolute*, may be of any of the three persons, and is always connected with a *participle*, expressed or understood:

as, "*I being* badly wounded, they sent for a surgeon;" "*He being* badly wounded, they sent," &c. In these sentences, you perceive that the pronouns *I* and *he*, have no verbs to agree with them; that they are placed before the *participle, being wounded*; and stand independently on the rest of the sentence: they are, therefore, in the *nominative absolute*, according to the rule.

But "*I being* badly wounded, was carried home;" "*He being* badly wounded, soon died," are constructions very different from the others. In these sentences, you see that the pronoun *I* has the verb *was carried*, to agree with it; and, that *he* has the verb *died* to agree with it. But the rule *begins* by saying, "When a noun or pronoun has *no verb* to agree with it," &c.

Sometimes the noun, or pronoun, and the participle, are both understood: as, "Conscious of his own weight and importance, the aid of others was not solicited." Here the words, *he being*, are understood; that is, "*He being* conscious of his own weight," &c.

I will here say a word respecting a particular construction of the infinitive mood. You know, that it is *generally* governed by a *verb*, noun, adjective, or participle: and, that it is *sometimes* used *substantively*; and forms the *nominative* to a verb. I will now show you, that it is sometimes used in neither of these constructions: as, "*To confess* the truth, I was in fault;" "*To enjoy* present pleasure, he sacrificed his future reputation." These are called the *infinitive mood absolute*; because in such constructions,

the verb in the infinitive mood has no regular dependence on any governing word.

The nominative case *independent*, the nominative *absolute*, and the *infinitive mood absolute*, must always be separated from the body of the sentence by a comma.

I have now given you all the rules necessary for the parsing of any regularly constructed sentence in the English language.

You may now practise on the following

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

That it is our duty to promote the purity of our minds and bodies, admits not of any doubt in a rational and well informed mind.—To mourn without measure, is folly.—To err is human; to forgive divine.—Continue, my dear children, to make virtue your principal study.—To you, my worthy benefactors, I am greatly indebted, under Providence, for all that I enjoy.—Come then, companions of my toils, let us take fresh courage, persevere, and hope to the end.—The rain having ceased, the men pursued their journey.—The goods being considerably damaged, the merchant sold them very low.—The sun being risen, the day became fine.—Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.—That having been discussed long ago, there is no occasion to resume it.—I wish that he would lend me that book, that you sold him.—I think that, that man that you saw, is the wisest one, that ever lived.—If he do but go, I shall be satisfied.—If he did go, I care not.—Let him take heed, that he violate not the laws.—Admonish thy friend that he

speak not rashly.—The ship rolls.—I see the ship roll.—She sings.—I hear her sing.—He comes.—I bade him come.—They study.—The master makes them study.—I like him both on his own account, and on that of his parents.—Young men are subtle arguers; the cloak of honour covers all their faults, as that of passion all their follies.—What is the reason that our language is less refined, than that of France?—What you do, do well.—What you like, I dislike.—He praises that which you praise.—He praises what you praise.—He extols that which he sees.—He extols what he sees.—That, which reason weaves, is undone by passion.—What reason weaves by passion is undone.—What they cannot but purpose, they postpone.—I went myself.—I hurt myself.—They did it themselves.—They went themselves.—He esteems himself too highly.—He understood the matter in the same manner himself.—The man, being dismissed from office, had no means of support.—The man being dismissed from office, his family suffered.—The man's being dismissed from office, was a misfortune to his family.—You sit next to your sister.—My house is opposite to yours.—Pursuant to orders, the company met this morning.—Agreeably to my request, he came this evening.—He will be remunerated according to his disbursement.—Notwithstanding his disappointments, he finally succeeded.

Before you commence the correcting of false syntax, it is proper, that you should be exercised more in parsing. I will give you a few les-

sons in which you will find some constructions more difficult than any which you have yet had; but comprehend the sense of the author, supply what is understood, and you will not find much difficulty.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

A few instances of the same word's constituting several of the parts of speech.

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.

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

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

A little attention will rectify some errors.

Though he is out of danger he is still afraid.

He laboured to still the tumult.

Fair and softly go far.

The fair was numerously attended.

His character is fair and honourable.

Damp air is unwholesome.

Guilt often casts a damp over our sprightliest hours.

Soft bodies damp the sound much more than hard ones.

Though she is rich and fair, yet she is not amiable.

They are yet young, and must suspend their judgment yet awhile.

Many persons are better than we suppose them to be.

The few and the many have their prepossessions.

Few days pass without some clouds.

The hail was very destructive.

Hail virtue! source of every good.

We hail you as friends.

Much money is corrupting.

Think much and speak little.

He has seen much of the world, and been much caressed.

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.

He has an equal knowledge, but inferior judgment.

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

Every being loves its like.

We must make a like space between the lines.

Behave yourselves like men.

We are too apt to like pernicious company.

He may go or stay as he likes.

They strive to learn.

He goes to and fro.

To his wisdom we owe our privilege.

The proportion is ten to one.

He has served them with his utmost ability.

When we do our utmost, no more is required.

I will submit, for I know submission brings peace.

It is for our health to be temperate.

Oh! for better times.

I have a regard for him.
 He is esteemed both on his own account, and
 on that of his parents.
 Both of them deserve praise.
 Yesterday was a fine day.
 I rode out yesterday.
 I shall write to-morrow.
 To-morrow may be brighter than to-day.

RECAPITULATION

OF THE

RULES OF SYNTAX.

Exercises in false Syntax annexed.

SECTION I.

The third part of Grammar is called 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."

Syntax principally consists of two parts, *Concord* and *Government*.

Concord is the agreement which one word has with another, in gender, number, case, or person.

Government is that power which one part of

speech has over another in directing its mood, tense, or case.

I shall now proceed to recapitulate all the rules, and give some illustrations, and notes under each, and then add exercises in false syntax, for you to correct and parse.

RULE I.

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

1. Every verb, except in the infinitive mood, ought to have a nominative case, either expressed or implied.

2. 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.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

DISAPPOINTMENTS sinks 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.

* A noun of multitude, or signifying many, may have a verb or pronoun agreeing with it, either of the singular or plural number; yet not without regard to the import of the word, as conveying unity or plurality of idea: as, "The meeting *was* large;" "The parliament *is* dissolved;" "The nation *is* powerful;" "My people *do* not consider: *they* have not known me;" "The multitude eagerly *pursue* pleasure, as *their* chief good;" "The council *were* divided in *their* sentiments."

The following examples are adapted to the notes under RULE I.

1. 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.

2. Virtue, however it may be neglected for a time, men are so constituted as ultimately to acknowledge and respect genuine merit.

SECTION II.

RULE II.

When two nouns come together, signifying different things, the former implying possession, must be in the possessive case, and governed by the latter.

1. If several nouns come together in the possessive case, the apostrophe with *s* is annexed to the last, and understood in the rest: as, "John and Eliza's books."

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

My ancestors virtue is not mine.

His brothers offence will not condemn him.

I will not destroy the city for ten sake.

Nevertheless, Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord.

The following examples are adapted to the note under RULE II.

1. It was the men's, women's, and children's lot, to suffer great calamities.

Peter's, John's, and Andrew's occupation was that of fishermen.

RULE II.

Transitive verbs govern the objective case.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of nature.

You have reason to dread his wrath, which one day will destroy ye both.

Who have I reason to love so much as this friend of my youth.

Ye who were dead, hath he quickened.

Who did they entertain so freely.

The man who he raised from obscurity, is dead.

Ye only have I known of all the families of the earth.

He and they we know, but who are you?

She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.

SECTION III.

RULE IV.

The article refers to a noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, to limit its signification.

It is the nature of both the articles to deter-

mine or limit the thing spoken of. *A* determines it to be one single thing of the kind, leaving it still uncertain which: *the* determines which it is, or of many, which they are.

The following passage will serve as an example of the different uses of *a* and *the*, and of the force of the substantive without any article. "*Man* was made for society, and ought to extend his good will to all men: but *a man* will naturally entertain a more particular kindness for *the men*, with whom he has the most frequent intercourse; and enters into a still closer union with *the man* whose temper and disposition suit best with his own."

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

The fire, the air, the earth, and the water, are four elements of the philosophers.

Reason was given to a man to control his passions.

We have within us an intelligent principle, distinct from body and from matter.

A man is the noblest work of creation.

Wisest and best men sometimes commit errors.

RULE V.

Every adjective belongs to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood.

1. Adjectives are sometimes improperly applied as adverbs: as, "Indifferent honest; excellent well; miserable poor," instead of "Indifferently honest; excellently well; miserably poor."

2. Adverbs are likewise improperly used as adjectives: as, "The tutor addressed him in terms rather warm, but suitably to his offence;" "*suitably*." "They were seen wandering about solitarily and distressed;" "*solitarily*."

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

1. She reads proper, writes very neat, and composes accurate.

He was extreme prodigal, and his property is now near exhausted.

They generally succeeded; for they lived conformable to the rules of prudence.

He was so deeply impressed with the subject that few could speak nobler upon it.

We may credit his testimony, for he says express, that he saw the transaction.

2. Use a little wine for thy stomach's sake, and thine often infirmities.

SECTION IV.

RULE VII.

Participles of TRANSITIVE verbs govern the objective case.

1. The present participle, with the definite article *the* before it, becomes a substantive, and must have the preposition *of* after it; both must be used or both omitted.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Esteeming themselves wise, they became fools.

Suspecting not only ye, but they also, I was studious to avoid all intercourse.

I could not avoid considering, in some degree, they as enemies to me; and he as a suspicious friend.

The examples which follow are suited to the note under RULE VII.

1. By observing of truth, you will command esteem, as well as secure peace.

He prepared them for this 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.

RULE VIII.

Adverbs qualify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

Adverbs, though they have no government of case, tense, &c. require an appropriate situation in the sentence, viz. for the most part, before adjectives, after verbs active or neuter, and frequently between the auxiliary and the verb: as, "He made a *very sensible* discourse; he *spoke unaffectedly* and *forcibly*; and *was attentively heard* by the whole assembly."

1. Two negatives, in English, destroy one

another, or are equivalent to an affirmative : as, "Nor did they *not* perceive him;" that is, "they did perceive him." "His language, though inclegant, is *not ungrammatical*," that is, "It is grammatical."

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

He was pleasing not often, because he was vain.

William nobly acted, though he was unsuccessful.

We may happily live, though our possessions are small.

From whence we may date likewise the period of this event.

1. Neither riches, nor honours, nor no such perishing goods, can satisfy the desires of an immortal spirit.

There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity.

Nothing never affected her so much as this misconduct of her child.

SECTION V.

RULE IX.

Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand in number and gender.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

The male amongst birds seems to discover no beauty, but in the colour of its species.

Take handfuls of ashes of the furnace, and let Moses sprinkle it towards heaven in the sight of Pharaoh; and it shall become small dust.

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

The fair sex, whose task is not to mingle in the labours of public life, has its own part assigned it to act.

RULE X.

Every adjective pronoun belongs to some noun or pronoun expressed or understood.

The adjective pronouns *this* and *that*, and their plurals *these* and *those*, and the numeral adjectives, must agree in number with the nouns to which they belong.

1. The word *means* in the singular number, and the phrases, "*By this means*," "*By that means*," are used by our best and most correct writers.

2. The distributive adjective pronouns, *each*, *every*, *either*, agree with nouns, pronouns, and verbs, of the singular number only.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

These kind of indulgences soften and injure the mind.

Instead of improving yourselves, you have been playing this two hours.

Those sort of favours did real injury, under the appearance of kindness.

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

The examples which follow, are suited to the notes under RULE X.

1. Charles was extravagant, and by this mean became poor and despicable.

It was by that ungenerous mean that he obtained his end.

Industry is the mean of obtaining competency.

Though a promising measure, it is a mean which I cannot adopt.

This person embraced every opportunity to display his talents; and by these means rendered himself ridiculous.

Joseph was industrious, frugal, and discreet; and by this means obtained property and reputation.

2. Each of them, in their turn, receive the benefits to which they are entitled.

My counsel to each of you is, that you should make it your endeavour to come to a friendly agreement.

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.

SECTION VI.

RULE XI.

*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 lovest* wisdom, walkest uprightly;" "He *who loves* wisdom, walks uprightly;" "I *who love*," &c.

Every relative must have an antecedent to which it refers, either expressed or implied: as, "Who is fatal to others, is so to himself; that is, " *the man who* is fatal to others."

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

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 which have lost their lives, by this means.

* See Conversation X.

Thou who has been a witness to the fact,
can give an account of it.

Thou great First Cause, least understood!

Who all my sense confin'd, &c.

RULE XII.

When no nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is the nominative to the verb; but when a nominative does come 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 by some participle or preposition, in its own member of the sentence: as, He who preserves me, to whom I owe my being, whose I am, and whom I serve, is eternal.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

We are dependent upon each other's assistance; whom is there that can subsist by himself?

If he will not hear his best friend, whom shall be sent to admonish him?

They who much is given to, will have much to answer for.

From the character of those who you associate with, your own will be estimated.

That is the student who I gave the book to, and whom, I am persuaded, deserves it.

SECTION VII.

RULE XIII.

Prepositions govern the objective case.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

We are all accountable creatures, each for hisself.

They willingly, and of theirselves, endeavour-
ed to make up the difference.

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

I hope it is not I who he is displeased with.

To poor we there is not much hope remain-
ing.

Does that boy know who he speaks to? Who
does he offer such language to?

It was not he that they were so angry with.

What concord can subsist between those who
commit crimes and those who abhor them?

The person who I travelled with, has sold
the horse which he rode on during our journey.

RULE XIV.

*Nouns and pronouns, connected by conjunc-
tions, must be in the same case.*

RULE XIX.

*Verbs, connected by conjunctions, must be in
the same mood and tense, and when in the sub-
junctive, they must be in the SAME FORM.**

* As the neuter verb *be*, and passive verbs, have two
forms of the subjunctive imperfect as well as of the pre-
sent, this rule applies to the imperfect tense of such
verbs, as well as to the present.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Professing regard, and to act differently, discover a base mind.

Did he not tell me his fault, and entreated me to forgive him?

My brother and him are tolerable grammarians.

If he understand the subject, and attends to it industriously, he can scarcely fail of success.

You and us enjoy many privileges.

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?

She and him are very unhappily connected.

SECTION VIII.

RULE XV.

When two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns of the singular number, are connected by a COPULATIVE conjunction, expressed or understood, they must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns, in the PLURAL number to agree with them; but when they are connected by a DISJUNCTIVE conjunction, they must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns, of the SINGULAR number to agree with them.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Idleness and ignorance is the parent of many vices.

Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.

In unity consists the welfare and security of every society.

Time and tide waits for no man.

His politeness and good disposition was, on failure of their effect, entirely changed.

Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains.

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.

RULE XVI.

Nouns and pronouns in apposition, must be in the same case.

I saw John and his sister, they who came to your house.

We must respect the good and the wise, they who endeavour to enlighten us, and make us better.

RULE XX.*

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

The verbs which require those that follow

* There are no corrections to be made under the 17th and 18th rules; and the 19th was considered with the 14th.

them in the infinitive mood, to be used without the sign *to*, are, make, need, see, bid, dare, feel, hear, let; and sometimes a few others.

This irregularity, however, extends only to active or neuter verbs; for all the verbs above mentioned, when made passive, require *to* to be used before the following verb in the infinitive mood: as, "He was seen *to go*;" "He was heard *to speak*."

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

I need not to solicit him to do a kind action.

I dare not to proceed so hastily, lest I should give offence.

I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly.

It is a great support to virtue, when we see a good mind to maintain its patience and tranquillity, under injuries and affliction, and to cordially forgive its oppressors.

RULE XXI.

Any intransitive, passive, or neuter verb, must have the same case after it as before it, when both words refer to, and signify, the same thing.

If you recollect what I said under this rule in Conversation XX, you can correct and parse the following

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Well may you be afraid; it is him indeed.

I would act the same part if I were him, or in his situation.

Search the Scriptures; for in them ye think ye have eternal life: and they are them which testify of me.

Be composed: it is me: you have no cause for fear.

I cannot tell who has befriended me, unless it is him from whom I have received many benefits.

If it were not him, who do you imagine it to have been?

Who do you think him to be?

Whom do the people say that we are?

RULE XXII.

The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, is sometimes the subject of a verb, and is, therefore, its nominative.

When several phrases, connected by a copulative conjunction, expressed or understood, are made nominatives to a verb, the verb must be plural: as, "To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind free from tumultuous emotions, are the best preservations of health."

But when the whole sentence forms but one nominative, conveying a unity of idea, the verb must be singular: as, "That warm climates should accelerate the growth of the human body, and shorten its duration, *is* very reasonable to believe."

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

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 heart approves and embraces, mark a feeble and imperfect character.

To be of a pure and humble mind, to exercise benevolence towards others; to cultivate piety towards God, is the sure means of becoming peaceful and happy.

RULE XXIII.

When a noun or pronoun has no verb to agree with it, but is placed before a participle, independently on the rest of the sentence, it must be in the nominative case absolute.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Solomon was of this mind; and I have no doubt he made as wise and true proverbs, as any body has done since: him only excepted, who was a much greater and wiser man than Solomon.

——— Him destroy'd,
Or won to what may work his utter loss,
All this will soon follow.

——— Whose gray top
Shall tremble, him descending.

¶ For the rules of Orthography, exercises in false Orthography, critical notes on Syntax, more copious selections of false Syntax, and several other rules for correcting it, and for Punctuation; learners are referred to "Conversations on English Grammar, abridged," from which this abstract is taken, price, half bound, seventy-five cents; and for Prosody and the figures of speech, to the entire work.

THE END.