THE

GRAMMAR

OF

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

OLIVER B. PEIRCE.

Shall we embrace Truth, when found? or, shall we reject, because not found before?

WATERTOWN, N. Y.

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Shall we examine New Theories, hoping for Improvement? Or, shall we condemn and reject, without examination, whatever lacks the stamp of Age?

Theories, now old, were once new. True theories, now new, will become old.

The general dissatisfaction in relation to English Grammar, is my apology for presenting to the world a new theory—a system which can not make matters worse—which may improve them.

It is everywhere admitted, that no other science is studied at so great a sacrifice of time and labor, with so little countervailing advantage; while all must perceive, that no science presents, to the student, greater inducements to action, than this, the first of sciences—the grand auxiliary of every other science—for,

Whether a person would make the wisdom of other men, his own; or would impart, for others' benefit, the knowledge he has gained; it is by, and through, the language, as a system of channels, that he is, chiefly, to receive or impart what he would attain or bestow. Thus it is seen, that the language is inseparably connected with the intelligence and welfare of individuals, with the pleasures of social intercourse, with the advancement of science and the varied interests of the world.

Of the comparative importance of the English, and other languages, there must be different opinions. Some men, we find, who were early bred to an acquaintance with the ancient languages, to the almost utter neglect of their own, the English. This they scarcely to have examined, save through the distorting medium of the old systems of Grammar. These persons, it must be expected, will adhere to their early notions and established prejudices, however wrong; like shellfish remaining fixed to the rocks on which they grew. They are like Lot's wife in the midst of the plain—like mile-posts, not designed as companions in the way; but intended only as evidence of others' advancement, as means to mark the progress of the Volaries of Truth, as they ascend the Hill of Science.
For these antiquated stationaries, blink-eyed from the effects of the glare of science outlining the lurid twilight of the morn which gave them birth—for these literary abstractionists who fondly turn, for light, towards the Dark Ages, and who can see nothing of excellence in plans, measures, or systems which have not the marks of antiquity—for these, I do not write. "They are joined to their idols—Let them alone."

I write for the guidance of those who are able to see, and having seen, to appreciate; for the benefit of both teacher and pupil, the middle-aged and young; that the principles of science may be transmitted, unobstructed, through successive stages of improvement to generations yet unborn.

I duly appreciate the classic languages, as such, but I regard the English as a broader, higher field of science. Egypt and Israel, Greece and Rome, have had, in turn, their glory, and the grave. Their Literature arose, and shone, and fell in the very wreck of empires which gave it brightness. The soul that animated it has gone; and the stream of time which swept over it, has borne to us, not "the thing of life," but the relics of what was. Yet, of the dimensions of the living, we may judge, from the anatomy of the dead.

If a language is to be valued either according to the extent of its use, or the amount and importance of light effulging from it; or from both combined, there is not, (there never has been,) a language that can compare with the English, which, whatever may have been its resources, and however it may have been regarded, is, already, the sun in the firmament of literature; and is destined by the physical, intellectual, and moral energy of the Anglo-Saxon race, to become, in the varied commerce of life—in civilization and refinement, in mind and morals, by Science prompting Art, the Regenerator of the world.

If the foregoing remark is true, (and who can doubt its truth?) it sufficiently vindicates the importance of the English, as compared with the other languages of the globe.

We have but one English Language, and consequently can need but one grammar of the language. That one, designed for the instruction of millions yet unacquainted with other languages, should be, essentially, and in fact, an English Grammar—English in its Classification—English in its Nomenclature—English in its Definitions—and last, and most of all, English in its Rules, both analytical and synthetical, which should describe, fully, the idiom and structure of the language.*

An English Geography of England, should be fully and truly English; describing, by English words, the English country, just as the country is—however much or little those words or that country may agree or disagree with the language or country of the French, the Germans, the Greeks or Chinese.

English Grammar, (unlike Medicine, Anatomy, or Physiology,) is a particular, not a general science—being but the geography and directory of the English Language. It should therefore be such as to lend its sanction to every correct sentence, just as the sentence stands; and such as to condemn and correct, with reasons, whatever is wrong in the use of words for the expression of ideas. From these premises, fixed in the nature of things, it follows, inevitably, and is self-evident, that,

A sentence, to be parsed, must be described as it is—that,

If a sentence is right, and the rules of grammar are right, they must agree as they are—that,

If a sentence is right, and we have to change it, in the least, to make it agree with the rules of grammar, this shows, on the face of the fact, that the rules are defective or wrong; and that the grammar, (so called,) is not a grammar of the language—that,

If a sentence is to be deemed correct, as it is, because, when put into some other form, it can, in the new form, be parsed; then it follows, as a matter of course, that all sentences, (however incorrect,) are perfect, as they stand—for any sentence can be transformed by putting in words "understood" or by taking out words expressed, (either or both,) and by this transformation, can be adapted to the rules of grammar.

What would be thought of a topographer, who, averse to labor, should sit in his study, and copy from maps of countries and cities in Asia and Africa, and in presenting his new map, thus made, should pretend to represent London or New York, as it is, by describing lakes, where there are parks; forests, where are stately temples; and sandy deserts, where are blooming gardens;

*Perhaps it is well to retain for a time, in Grammar, as in Chemistry, the old nomenclature with the new, as a kind of connecting link between two eras in science; till one generation shall have passed, and till, of course, the teacher and pupil can meet on the common ground of one nomenclature, and that a philosophical one.
and, when told of the discrepancy should begin to talk of his lakes, and forests, and deserts "understood!" which the teacher and pupil must put in—("supplying the ellipses!") to make the city agree with the map, which professes, but fails, to represent the city!

**OG** — Topography, or geography, based on such an absurdity, would be but a burlesque on science—an insult to the understanding.

**OG** — Grammar, based on such an absurdity, would be but an outrage on common sense—not even the mimic of Philosophy—but the mockery of Science—a very libel on the name it bears—yet, on this self-same absurdity have all of the old theories of grammar been formed—and on this same absurdity, English Grammar, written, learned, and taught, has been sustained, like the old system of Astronomy, by the concurrence of the great, (?) and the credence of mankind, during the lapse of ages.

**OG** — The old theorists scarcely pretend to describe the English language, as correctly spoken and written. No! they warp facts to suit their theories, instead of studying the facts and writing definitions and rules to represent them—[like stretching an infant out of joint to make him fit his father's clothes!] They distort and deform the language and grossly misrepresent its principles and structure, to make the language, thus distorted, conform to their false, dead systems, instead of learning the language and writing grammars to describe it. To prove this, let well known facts be put to the erudition, the judgment and candor of mankind. *

**OG** — In the following "contrast," the left hand column contains what is regarded as good English, and what is correct according to the new system herewith presented to the public. The right hand column contains the same sentences (corresponding in number,) as they are re-modelled to make them "grammatical" according to the old theories. I give but a few instances of the thousands that might be given.

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**By "the old theorists," as referred to, I mean Johnson, Lowth, Lennie, Murray, Kircham, G. Brown, Smith, Bullions, Alger, Hazen, Joseph W. Wright, Parker and Fox, and all others of the same general character; their works differing not much in principles, but chiefly in dates, title-pages and binding.**

The earlier of these writers, transcribed their theories from Latin and Greek grammars; like making a geography of modern England by copying geographies of ancient Greece and Rome: and the later writers have only echoed from time to time, and from place to place, the absurdities of their predecessors—or, the figure being changed, Murray's Grammar is the place in which the principles of the earlier writers centered, and from which, unchanged, but in new dresses, they have all diverged.
Like good Aurelius let him reign,
or bleed
Like Socrates; the man is great
indeed.

24 Oh Happiness! our being's end
and aim?
Good, Pleasure, Ease, Content,
whate'er thy name—
The something, still, which
prompts th' eternal sigh,
For which we bear to live, or dare
to die!

The foregoing "contrast" of correct language, with language,
"grammatical" according to the old systems, must convince any
one but a bigot, that "Grammar," with the old theorists is a mere
arbitrary, ideal thing—an imaginary something, to which the
language, by being utterly spoiled, is to be made to conform—like
the operations of a fanatic glover who makes all his gloves
to an ideal standard or measure, and when a lady calls to purchase,
agrees to ensure a perfect fit (whatever the length of her
fingers); by cutting off the ends of her fingers, if the fingers are too
long to fit the gloves; or by stretching her fingers out of joint,
(if they are too short,) and putting in, between the joints, wooden,
blocks, (something "understood") to make the hand fit the
glove; and, by so doing, renders utterly useless a before perfect
hand—all this rather than examine the hand and make the glove
so as to fit the hand.

It is thus that the principles of science, fixed and enduring, of
themselves, and as clear as meridian light, must be distorted,
displaced, hidden, and lost to the world, by our adherence to the
crude, disjointed maxims of misguided "grammar" writers—and
men, in other respects really wise, lend the full sanction of their
influence to perpetuate the evils of these systems of grammar,
chiefly because the systems were written by some friend, or fa­
ther's friend; and because, really, they know too little of the
works to have discovered one tenth of the thousand errors which
they inculcate. From friendly regard for the man, these "high
priests" in science abuse the influence of their stations by com­
mending the trash of the author—and thus make actually true,
what should have existed only in the imagination of the poet of
fiction—that

"Wisdom nurses Folly's children as her own,
Fond of the foulest!"
PREFACE.

Law, in a free country, is, professedly, the representation of the people's intelligence and will; and is designed to correct, by established rule, the occasional aberrations of individuals. Grammar consists of the representation of the principles of communication as adopted by the learned of a community or country, yet digested according to reason, and applied by rule; that, by restraining the irregularities of genius, by directing the style of the well-informed, and by refining, to expulsion, the awkwardness of the vulgar, it may produce, as nearly as possible, uniformity in the meaning of words, and perspicuity in the expression of ideas, or the transmission of thought.

I have come, as an author, before the public, hoping to correct the errors, to remove the absurdities, and supply the defects in this department of science. I offer this, my mite, as a contribution to the public fund; asking, only, that those for whose benefit it is intended, will examine, discriminate, judge and act.

I have classed the words of the language according to their real traits of similarity, and have distinguished the classes according to their real differences.

Regardless of the course of other writers, I have used, as TERMS OF DISTINCTION, such words as the principles to be distinguished, have, of themselves, suggested to me—words which must, in turn, suggest the characters of the different principles to the learner.

Of the different parts of speech, and their respective subdivisions, I have given such definitions as really define and include the principles intended, and such as exclude every other principle.

I have so adapted my rules to the idiom and proper structure of the language, that I parse philosophically, and sanction, as it stands, every correct sentence in the language; and condemn and correct, with reasons, whatever is wrong in the use of words for the expressing of ideas. I believe I have made English Grammar a plain, practical and pleasant science. If I have failed may my work sink innocuous to the depths of oblivion, rather than remain, like too many others, to burden, not to sustain, the rising greatness of the intellectual and moral constitution of man.

If I have succeeded in accomplishing the end proposed, in making the crooked paths of Science straight, and her rough places smooth; if I shall enable the student to become equally learned and useful, with less expense; or more learned and useful, with

OLIVER B. PEIRCE.

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ADDRESS TO THE TEACHER.

Consider the persons under your charge, as rational creatures, endowed, by their Creator, with intellectual faculties which are capable of being raised, by proper exercise, to indefinite expansion and power; but which, if forced to admit, as truth, the unexamined dogmas of schools, will dwindle to the insignificance of mere brutal instinct—the imitative propensity of the parrot or the ape.

Remember that a child is a man in miniature—that the fact of your associating with your pupils, must, in degree, stamp upon them, in mind and morals, in deportment, in every thing that can constitute the character of man, the impress of yourself.

Remember that active belief, founded in conviction, from personal investigation, alone can benefit and improve mankind—that the principles of any theory, on any subject, blindly assented to, can not be lasting in their effect; but, like the mist of morning, may be noticed at the time, yet pass and are forgotten—therefore,

Never allow your pupils to commit to memory what they do not understand.

Never teach, as truth, any thing, however trifling it may seem, which Reason's utmost force and brilliance can ever afterwards unteach.

What you can not strengthen and improve, do not weaken and deform.

Teach them that Grammar is but a guide to the understanding in the use of correct language—that Parsing is only describing facts, or the nature and relations of words as they are used, not as they, or some others might have been used—guard them against blindly adopting the sentiments of any man however great in the estimation of the world—teach them that authors are but public men sharing the common infirmities of the race—that, though long
approved, theories which are not philosophical and practical, are
down-right insult to the human mind, and should be at once dis­
carded.

Explain the parts which, to the learners' various capacities, shall
need to be explained; and impress on their minds, that their pro­
ficiency and enjoyment in each succeeding part, will depend on
their having acquired a thorough knowledge of all that precedes it.

Lead them, step by step, from examining the different materi­
als of which the fabric of the language is composed, to learn the
proper mode of selecting, arranging and combining the parts, to
form a just-proportioned and harmonious structure of the whole.

63. Impress them with the truth, that fifteen minutes per day,
spent in exercising the understanding, is worth more than the
whole time wasted in the exercise of memory, without the aid of
the understanding and judgment.

AX. desire improvement; yet many are averse to change. We forget, that
though there may be change without improvement, there can not be im­
provement without change. We should consider that change is necessa­
rially co-extensive with improvement.

LANGUAGE

1. Is the means of communicating thoughts, or expressing ideas.
   It is of two kinds; Spoken and Written.

   SPOKEN LANGUAGE

   2. Consists of certain sounds expressing emotion, and of other
      sounds rendered significant by usage; as,
      Oh! Alas! Fie!—Man, woman, book, hat. [Give the sounds, only.]

   WRITTEN LANGUAGE

   3. Consists of letters or figures used as signs of significant
      sounds; as,
      O-h, for Oh!—A-t-o-s, for Alas!—F-i-e, for Fie!—M-a-n, for Man—
      w-o-m-a-n, for woman—b-o-o-k, for book—h-a-t, for hat. [Give the let­
ters first, and then the sounds of the words.]

   4. The different incorporations of words used by the people of
      different nations, are called languages; and generally bear, respec­
tively, the names of the countries in which they were first em­
      bodied, or to which they are peculiar; as, the English, the French,
      the Greek, the Hebrew language.

   5. By speaking the word pen, as a combination of sounds, the
      idea of the instrument is communicated from the speaker of the
      word to the hearer of it, if the latter has before heard the word
      used in reference to a pen. This is spoken language.

   6. By writing, as a word, the letters, p-e-n, the idea of the in­
      strument is conveyed from the writer of the word to the reader
      of it; if the latter has before seen the combination of letters us­
      ed to represent the instrument. This is written language.

   7. Spoken language affects the mind through the medium of
      the ear, and written language through the medium of the eye.

*In merely intellectual matters, impressions of ideas made through the
latter, are generally stronger and more lasting than those made only through
the former. The cause of this difference is found in the fact that by al­
The Seven Principles.

Grammar.

8 Is the science of language. It treats of spoken and written words as signs of ideas.

Grammar is of two kinds; General and Particular.

General Grammar

9 Consists of an exposition of the general principles of communication which are common to all languages. Thus,

10 All languages have names by which to designate objects; words, to represent the actions of objects; words to denote the qualities of objects; and words to qualify events or facts, &c. &c.

PARTicular Grammar

11 Consists of an explanation of those general principles as adapted to the expression of ideas, and so applied as to constitute a particular language.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

12 Consists of explanations of the different parts of the English Language, and of directions for speaking and writing the language correctly.

13 It embraces seven general principles in relation to which, and which only, we can err in the use of words. These principles cannot be too carefully regarded.

The First Principle

14 Consists in the choice or selection of right words for expressing ideas.

15 RULE—Regard the established meaning and proper application of words, and choose such words, to express your ideas, as will express those, and can express no others—such words as are consistent with good taste.*

*See Taste treated of at the beginning of Part I of Rhetoric, the 5th part of Grammar.

dressing the eye as well as the ear, we give to ideas a kind of individual forms or shapes, and relative locations with respect to each other; and consequently, a greater array of the mental faculties is brought into exercise, in grasping and retaining the ideas. It is on this account, that teachers, who give on black-boards and otherwise, ocular illustrations of what they explain orally, are more successful than others who neglect such aids.

The Second Principle

16 Consists in using perfect words in speaking and writing.

17 RULE—Speak with perfect propriety and distinctness every word you would speak; and so write, whatever you would write, as to represent the perfect spoken word.

Violation.

John; hand me that geography—[meaning ge-ography.] George; will you take some pudding?—[meaning pudding.] Seth wouldn't go home—wouldn't go, &c.—[meaning wouldn't go home.] Julius bought a apple on date it—[meaning bought an apple and ate it.]

The Third Principle

18 Consists in the selection of the right forms of the words to be used.

19 RULE—Select such forms of the words as are consistent with the sense intended, and with good usage.

Violation.

Harriet: who did you see at the concert?—[how did you see?] John took my hat and left his;—[and left his.] “Hast thou an arm like God? and canst thou thunder with a voice like him?”—[hast thou an arm like God’s? and canst thou thunder with a voice like his?]"?

The Fourth Principle

20 Consists in the use of the proper number of words.

21 RULE—Avoid using unnecessary words—those which add neither to the sense nor the beauty of the expression, and those words which would express more than is intended.
**Violations.**

I borrowed ten dollars of Henry, yesterday morning; but I have refunded the money back to him again this afternoon. [Omit "back to him again," which adds neither sense nor beauty to the expression.] I went, from my dwelling house in New York, to Philadelphia, and returned back home again the same day. [Omit "back home again."] William has regained his eye-sight. [Omit the word "eye." ] George walked home a foot. [Omit the word "a foot." ] The child slipped up and fell down.— [Omit "up" and "down." ]

**The Fifth Principle**

22 Consists in the proper arrangement of words with respect to each other.

23 RULE—So arrange your words and sentences with respect to each other, that, while the intended meaning shall be obvious, at once, no other meaning can be attached to the expression.

"The 'Agricultural car' was drawn by twenty pairs of oxen, filled with three hundred men"—(representing in strictness that the oxen, not the car, were filled with the men! ) [The editor's words need to be differently arranged to express the idea intended. Thus, the Agricultural car, drawn by twenty pairs of oxen, was filled with three hundred men.]

**The Sixth Principle**

24 Consists in the proper pauses or rests in speaking the words of sentences, and, in writing, the punctuation, to represent those pauses or rests.

25 RULE—Let your pauses in speaking sentences, and your punctuation, in writing them, be such as to represent the intended relation of the ideas to each other.

**Violations.**

"W. J. having gone to sea (see his wife), desires the prayers of the congregation for his safe return"—(as though the individual dared not visit his wife without some special interference for his safety or protection.) [Make the pauses differently, or punctuate the sentence to correspond with the different pauses of the speaker. Thus, "W. J. having gone to sea, (see, ) his wife desires the prayers of the congregation for his safe return." Here we have, expressed, a different, a very interesting, sentiment—the tenderness of the wife, her solicitude for her husband's welfare, and her confidence in the willingness and power of Heaven to protect him.]

The following text may be varied, in meaning, by varying the pauses, or punctuation. "Verily I say to thee; to-day shalt thou be with me in Paradise." This would indicate that thou shalt be with me in Paradise to-day. Change the pause, in speaking, or the location of the semicolon, in writing, from after the word "thou," to after the word "to-day." Thus, Verily I say to thee to-day; thou shalt be with me in Paradise. This would indicate that I would have thee remember when I told thee this—"to-day"—as though I had not said so before, and might not again, but having no reference to the particular time when thou shalt be with me in Paradise. I tell thee to-day, only, at some subsequent time, perhaps two thousand years after this, thou shalt be with me in Paradise."

**The Seventh Principle**

26 Consists in giving due emphasis to the words in a sentence, in view of their relative importance, and the sense to be expressed.

27 RULE—Let your emphasizing of different words be such as to correspond with the relative importance of the ideas which the words represent, and with the intended meaning of the whole sentence.

**Illustration.**

Do you ride to the city to-day? [Old example.] This would indicate that the speaker was altogether uncertain as to the whole affair.

Do you ride to the city to-day?—as though the speaker expected that I should either go, myself, or send some one.

Do you ride to the city to-day?—as though the speaker knew that I was intending to go to the city, and he would learn how I am to go—whether in a carriage, or on foot.

Do you ride to the city to-day?—as though the speaker knew that I intended to start towards the city, but was uncertain how far I intended to go.

Do you ride to the city to-day?—as though the speaker knew that I was intending to ride somewhere, and he wished to learn as to the particular spot or place.

Do you ride to the city to-day?—as though the speaker knew that I was intending to ride to the city soon, and he wished to learn as to the particular time.

[Six different trains of thought, are, it is perceived, suggested, by the six different modes of emphasizing the words of the same sentence.]

*Punctuation has been so blindly taught, and so little understood, it is safer to arrange words so that mere punctuation can not give a different meaning to the sentence.*
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

28 Is divided into five parts, which comprise the whole subject of the science of language, viz:

- Orthography,
- Etymology and Syntax,
- Prosody and Rhetoric.

ORTHOGRAPHY

29 Treats of letters and syllables, and the method of combining them to form words.*

LETTERS

30 Are marks or signs of significant sounds. They are the first principles and least component parts of written language; as B-i-r-d, bird-h-a-t, hat-m-a-n, man-l·i·g·h·t, light.

A SYLLABLE

31 Is a sound spoken by one effort of the voice, or a letter or combination of letters representing the sound; as, A, the, this, g-i-g, h-a-p-p-i-ness, s-a-t-i-s-f-a-c-t-i-o-n, g-o-o-d-n-e-s-s.

A WORD

32 Is a sound, or combination of sounds standing for, or referring to, an object or idea; as, A book, the apple, this house, some man, John.

THE ENGLISH ALPHABET

33 Is composed of twenty-six letters. Some of these, for want of others, have several sounds, and some of them are frequently united to represent single sounds.

*As the learner is supposed to have acquitted himself well in Orthography, (including Orthoepy,) by studying such books as contain the rudiments of the language, I notice, in this work, only the leading principles, or the parts which are connected with the rules of Etymology and Syntax.

†In these examples, it is seen that the words in SMALL CAPITAL letters, (book, apple, &c.) stand for, and represent, distinct objects; while those in italics, (a, the, this, &c.) do not stand for, or represent distinct objects; but are used to refer to the objects represented by the words book, apple, &c.

34 The Alphabet.

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GRAMMAR.

A CONSONANT

37 Is a letter that, in a word, is always used with a vowel with which it is sounded; a letter which never, of itself, constitutes a syllable, as a part of a word; as,

M, n, h, t, f, w, n, g—Man, hat, bat-ton, fan, two-man, ring.

A MUTE

38 Is a letter which is not sounded in the place where it is used; as,

P, h, s, in Phthis-ic; e, in come; u, liquor; i and the last e pierce.*

A VOWEL

39 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in late, hat, hall, father, what, air.

E

40 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in sleep, met, her, there.

I

41 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in pin, find, bird, fatigue:

EXCEPT

42 When i is immediately followed by a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant; as in min-ion, al-ien, civil-ian.

O

43 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as told, not, pool, book, come.†

U

44 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in due, annuity, run, full:

EXCEPT

45 When u is pronounced like yu standing as an entire syllable, or beginning a syllable, it acts the part of a consonant and vowel; as in u-sury, pen-u-ry, union, u-niverse: and,

EXCEPT

46 When u is joined, like w, to a preceding consonant to give a two-fold consonant sound, it acts the part of a consonant; as in Swabia, persuade; or the parts of a consonant and vowel; as in sure, sugar.‡

*The definition of a mute, as here given and applied to letters, is unlike the ordinary definitions given to a mute; but it is the only one that can be given consistently with the fact and with reason.

† In the words one and once, o has the short sound of the vowel u, and, at the same time the force and sound of the consonant w. In the word twen-ten it has the sound of t; [women being pronounced wim-men.]‡ It has the sound of i in business.

GRAMMAR.

W

47 Is a consonant when sounded before a vowel in the same syllable; wing, sweep.

48 It is often joined to another consonant to represent a two-fold consonant sound; as swing, sweep, twinge, twist.

49 It is used after a vowel to give, with that, a two-fold vowel sound; as crowd.*

50 It is used after e, in the same syllable, to give the vowel sound of u; as in few, new.

51 It is a mute after the long, open sound of o in the same syllable; as in show-ed, bestow-ed, mow-ed.

Y

52 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in E-gypt, phy-sician, mys-tic;

EXCEPT

53 When y begins a syllable and is followed by a vowel in the same syllable, it is a consonant; as youth, yearly, yam, yelp, Yarmouth.

SPELLING

54 Is combining letters, or their sounds, to form syllables and words; as, ap-ple, apple-b-i-rd, bird.

WORDS,

55 With respect to their formation, are of three kinds; Primitive or Simple, Derivative, and Compound.

A PRIMITIVE WORD

56 Is one which can not be reduced in the number of its syllables without being destroyed; as, man, father, safe.

A DERIVATIVE WORD

57 Is one which is made by adding one syllable or more, not an entire word, to the primitive form; as, man-fi-ness, father-ly, safe-ty.

A COMPOUND WORD

58 Is one which is formed by uniting two or more simple or primitive words; as, man-kind, father-in-low, safe-guard.

*The sound of w is that of a represented by wo, a vowel sound; yet, as w is never used alone to constitute a syllable as the part of a word, but is always, when sounded in its own place, spoken with its following vowel, it is reckoned among the consonants, as above described. Wh is sounded like how; as in where, hwen—hoo-en, bowen—the last combination giving the ordinary sound of the word when—hoo-en, bowen—hown, taken.
ETymology.

59 Treats of the classification of words, their changes and derivation.

Words,

With respect to their meaning, and their relation to other words, are divided into Ten Classes, called Parts of Speech—thus,

NOMENCLATURES.

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Names—Nouns.

61 A name is an independent word used to distinguish an object or idea which may be considered separately or alone; as,

Man, woman, John, Harriet, city, truth, mountain, river.

[Read numbers I, II, III, and IV, of the Lecture.]

*Let the teacher read, with the utmost care, the Lecture immediately following the definitions of the different parts of speech—let him be careful to give the pupil clear views of the distinctions of the parts of speech—let him not allow the pupil to commit to memory a word of any definition till the meaning of the different parts, and of the whole of each definition shall have been made plain to his mind. (p. 73) Let the teacher remember that it is the business of an anchor to define principles in the simplest, clearest manner possible, with one set of words, and that (p. 73-74) it is the teacher’s business to adapt these definitions word by word, if necessary, to the pupil’s mind, and thereby to enlarge, quicken and elevate the mind itself. Let him mark this well.

Substitutes—Pronouns.

62 A substitute is a word substituted for a name, phrase, or sentence, and sustaining, to other words, the same relations that are sustained by a name; as, John was my enemy, but he is my friend. I relieved him in his distress; which excited his gratitude and affection. Maria loves her book.

[Read V, VI, VII, and IX of the Lecture.]

Asserters—Verbs.

63 An Asserter is a part of speech used to assert, or to express existence, or a fact in relation to a person or thing; as, I am. Julia walks. John ate an apple. The apple was eaten by John.

[Read X, XI, XV, XVII, XVIII, and XIX, of the Lecture.]

An Intransitive Asserter.

64 I. Denotes the mere existence of the subject of remark; † as, I am—or

II. It denotes an action or fact of the subject, without representing it either as affecting an object, or as extending to an object; as,


[Read XX, XXI, and XXII, of the Lecture.]

The word fact, is used here, and throughout the book, to represent something as done, or something mentioned, that may be done, or that which occurs or happens. The distinctions of the asserter, as Intransitive, Transitive, and Receptive, are given here to assist the learner in distinguishing the relations of case, (see Case,) which are closely connected with these distinctions of the asserter.

To determine what is meant by the subject of remark, or the subject, as mentioned in this book, find, first, the asserter; as, am—I am at home. Then take, with the asserter, just words enough to make the briefest remark that can be made of any person or thing; as, I am. Here is the brief remark; and I, the person speaking, am the subject of the remark.

George caught a dove. Find the asserter. It is the word caught. Take, with the asserter, just words enough to make the briefest remark that can be made of the person or thing. George caught. Here it is seen that the man, George, is the subject of this brief remark—is the subject of remark—is the subject.

Helen died of Consumption, in England. Here the asserter is the word died. Take, with the asserter died, just words enough to make the brief remark. Helen died. Who is the subject of this story, narration, or remark? The person, Helen. She, then, is regarded in Grammar, as in fact, the subject of remark, "the subject."

The farm was purchased of Henry, by John. Was purchased is the asserter. The farm was purchased, is the brief remark; and the farm itself, not the word farm is the subject of remark—is "the subject."
A TRANSITIVE ASSERTER
65 Represents an action or fact of the subject as affecting an object, or as extending to an object; as,
James ate an apple. George caught a dove. Julia loves her brother.
[Read XXIII, XXIV, and XXV of the Lecture.]

A RECEPTIVE ASSERTER—PASSIVE VERB,
66 Represents the fact, denoted by the asserter, as received by the subject, or as extended to the subject; as,
The apple was eaten. The dove was caught. Henry is loved.
[Read XXVI, XXVII, XXVIII, XXIX, and XXX of the Lecture.]

ADNAMES—ADJECTIVES AND ARTICLES.
67 An ad-name is a part of speech added to a name or a substitute, to limit its meaning; or to show the quality, class, kind, or condition of the object denoted by the name or substitute; or, to show how the object, as an object merely, is to be regarded; as,
This book. The apple is sour. Brass clocks. John is virtuous. He is happy. Which book is mine?
No book is faultless. What a book John has bought!
[Read XXXI to XL of the Lecture.]

MODIFIERS—ADVERBS.
68 A modifier is a part of speech used to modify the meaning of the sentence or the clause of a sentence in which it occurs; as,
Harriet is not at home. George is certainly my friend. Seth studies attentively.
[Read XL to XLI of the Lecture.]

RELATIVES—PREPOSITIONS.
69 A relative is a word used to show the relation of an event to an object, or the relation of one object to another; as,
I went to Utica in Oneida county. Helen walked across the street. George resides in the city of New York on Manhattan island.
[Read LI, and LI of the Lecture.]

CONNECTIVES—CONJUNCTIONS.
70 A connective is a part of speech used to connect mere words, and sentences; as,
John and Julia are happy because they are wise and good. Seth went to church, but Henry remained at home.
[Read LI to LXI of the Lecture.]

INTERROGATIVES—ADVERBS.
71 An interrogative is a word used only to interrogate concerning something before expressed; as,

We should detest vice, but pity its victims and seek to relieve them.—Why? James will go home to assist his father. When?
[Read LXII and LXIII of the Lecture.]

REPLIERS—ADVERBS.
72 A replier is a word or phrase used only to reply to a foregoing question or remark; as,
Should we improve our time? Yes. Can man escape from the presence of his Maker? No.
[Read LXIV to LXVII of the Lecture.]

EXCLAMATIONS—INTERJECTIONS.
73 An exclamation is a word or phrase used merely to express emotion; as,
Oh virtue! How lovely thou art. Ailas! I can fear nothing worse than I feel.
[Read LXVIII, LXIX, and LXX of the Lecture.]

Lecture on the Distinctions of the Different Parts of Speech.

NAMES—NOUNS.
I. A name is an independent word; a word which makes full sense of itself, or without reference to another word; as, man, John, city, New-York, truth, love, modesty, goodness. These words are independent. They make full sense, taken separately, or unconnected with other words. They may be connected with other words, but the other words are not necessary to the sense of these; as these make full sense of themselves.

II. A name is used to distinguish an object or idea; as, man—this word distinguishing such a being from all other kinds of beings: John—this word distinguishing one man from other men, from other beings of the same kind: truth—this word distinguishing the idea of this principle, (opposed to falsehood,) from any other idea: something—this word distinguishing the idea expressed by it, from the idea of nothing or the absence of every thing; nothing—this word distinguishing the idea expressed by it, from the idea of any thing generally or particularly regarded.
III. A name is a word which distinguishes an object or idea of which we can think without thinking of any thing else—an object or idea which we can consider or contemplate alone or unconnected with anything else; as, man, John, truth, modesty, &c. It is perceived that each of the ideas, thus expressed, may be regarded or considered separately or alone, or by itself, or without our considering other objects or ideas with them.

IV. "John runs," "John is beaten." Here, first, the word John is an independent word. Next, it is used to distinguish an object, a person, this man, from other men. Next, although the word John distinguishes an object that is connected with something which he does, the fact of his running, or that of his being beaten, and though it represents a person who is not regarded separately; yet it represents one who may be considered or regarded separately or unconnected with the fact of his running, or of his being beaten—separately from what he does or what is done to him. The word John is therefore a name according to the definition of a name. [Teacher—pupil; turn back and read the definition of a name.]

S U B S T I T U T E S—P R O N O U N S.

V. A substitute is a word substituted for, or taking the place of, a name, a phrase, or sentence. Thus, "John was sick, but he is well." [John was sick, but John is well.] It is seen that the word he stands in the place of the name John—is substituted for the name John. "James gave, for a load of wood, five dollars and a half, (or five and a half dollars,) which was too much." Here it is seen that the word which is substituted for the phrase five and a half dollars, as it was this whole sum, (not dollars merely, as two dollars,) which was too much. "James went from New York to Boston for fruit; but it was unnecessary." In it is perceived that the word it is substituted for the whole sentence before it, to which it refers. What was unnecessary? Why, the fact, that "James went from New York to Boston for fruit." The word it embodies and expresses the sense of all this. It was this fact which was unnecessary.

VI. A substitute is a word which sustains, to the other words of a sentence, the same relations that are sustained by a name. Thus, John was sick, but he is well—but John is well—the word he standing in the same relation that the word John, repeated, would sustain, having the assayer is and the adname well referring to, and depending on it; just as the name John would have had; as it does have, in the sentence following the one in which the word he is used.

VII. 'James paid, for his load of wood, five and a half dollars, which was too much;' [too dollars, or more dollars would not have been too much] five and a half dollars was too much. Here the substitute which sustains, to the assayer was, the same relation that a name sustains, having the assayer was depending on it; as the money, or amount of money was too much.

VIII. When a substitute is used to represent the sense of a whole sentence, the sentence itself could not, in its own shape, or form, sustain the same relation that the substitute sustains; but the substitute sustains the same relation that would be sustained by a name expressing the same idea. Thus, 'James went from New York to Boston for fruit; but it, [the fact,] was unnecessary.' This fact was unnecessary. Here we perceive that the substitute it, (which embodies the sense of the whole sentence,) sustains to the other words of the sentence, the same relation that is sustained by the name fact, in brackets, following the substitute it. Hence we find, that the principle of the substitute is that, and that only, described by the definition. [Read the definition of a substitute.]

Contrast of Names and Substitutes.

IX. A name is an independent word distinguishing some thing. A substitute does not distinguish any thing. "He left it where he had broken it." The words he and it are not names—they are not independent words, or words which make sense of themselves—for no one can tell who or what is meant by the word he, (whether a man, a dog, or some other animal)—no one can tell what is meant by the word it, (whether a carriage, or looking-glass, or a pitcher)—yet when I say "John left the carriage where he had broken it," all perceive that the words John and carriage, are names, being independent words used to distinguish objects; but he and it are not names; for they do not, can not, distinguish any thing. Yet, the words he and it, being substitutes for the names John and carriage, and referring to these names, derive their particular meaning from that reference. These substitutes do not distinguish objects; but, as substitutes, they do represent the objects already distinguished by the names, (John and carriage,) for which the substitutes stand, and to which they refer.

A S S E R T E R S—V E R B S.

X. The assayer is contemplated and named according to its office, nature, and use, where it first appears—in its primary form; that is, in the form in which it is used as one word, in connection with the substitute I to affirm a present fact; as, I am, I love, I
read, I run. In this place, in this connection, these words are first contemplated, and are named. In this place, form and connection, any word which asserts any thing, either existence, or any fact, or any thing as done, is an asserter, and is called an asserter in all the various forms, and relations, and connections, in which it brings to mind the idea of the fact asserted by it in this, the primary form.

XI. Thus, I write; the word write asserting the fact done by me. Now I say, I had written, I am writing, I shall write, or will write. In each of these examples, the same idea, the idea of the writing, is expressed. These different examples are only different forms and relations in which the assertive principle of the word write is made to appear. These remarks account for the choice of the name asserter. The man who asserts is an asserter; and the word which asserts, is, on the same principle, termed an asserter—as, a heater, that which induces heat; a runner, that which runs.

XII. "Terms of distinction," in science, are intended to indicate more or less particularly the principles which they are designed to represent; and definitions are intended to supply any deficiency in these terms in describing principles definitely, or with exactness.

XIII. However the words called asserters may be used, they always express existence or facts in relation to persons or things; as, Have I written? can I write? John; write, I have told John to write. In each of these examples it is seen that the fact of writing is expressed, whether interrogatively, imperatively, or otherwise. It is therefore true that what the term asserter may seem to fail of describing, the definition completely describes. Besides, even in interrogative remarks, the asserter, of itself, or alone considered, asserts the fact expressed; though the mode of arranging the asserter, or parts of the asserter, with another word, may make the expression interrogative—thus, has written.

This mere asserter asserts the fact of the writing as having been done by somebody not mentioned; and when I say

John has written,

I assert the fact of writing no more than by the other expression; but now the fact of writing is asserted of a particular person distinguished by the word John, connected with the asserter: and when I say,
distinguish ideas which must be considered in connection with the actor, and not separately from him. They assert facts done by him—are asserters.

Contrast of Intransitive, Transitive, and Receptive Asserters.

XX. First, an Intransitive Asserter represents the mere existence of the subject; as, I am at home; John was at school; the Creator exists in an independent state.

XXI. Next, an intransitive asserter expresses an action or a fact of the "subject of remark," without representing the action or fact as either affecting an object, or as extending from the subject to an object; as, I sleep, I walk, the grass grows, flowers bloom in spring, water flows, the river swells, the bird flies, truth triumphs.

XXII. From this, it is seen that an asserter is intransitive if it expresses either the mere existence of the subject, or an action or a fact of the subject, which is not, by the asserter, represented as extending to an object.

XXIII. A Transitive Asserter is one which expresses an action, or a fact of the subject, and represents the action or fact as affecting an object, or as extending to an object. Thus, John ate my apple. Here the asserter ate represents an action of the subject, the man John, as affecting the object, the apple. The assertor ate is therefore transitive: John could not have eaten without eating something; from which it is seen that the asserter ate is transitive, whether the object is, or is not mentioned. George caught a bird. Here the word caught asserts that the act of catching was performed, and is, therefore, an asserter. By the assertor's relation to the name George, it attributes the act to the man denoted by that name. The asserter caught clearly represents the action as extended to, and as affecting, some object, (the bird, as here expressed,) for no one can catch without catching something. Caught is hereby, of itself, seen to be transitive with, or without an object expressed or mentioned.*

XXIV. "James loves his brother." The word loves asserts a fact as done. It is therefore an asserter. It represents the fact denoted by the asserter, as extending to an object; for no one can love without loving something—for, to love, is to extend, to the object loved, the tenderness of emotion called love. The assertor love is therefore necessarily transitive: for though this fact of the subject may not affect an object, (in the usual sense of the term affect,) yet it clearly represents the fact of the subject as extending to the object, as something loved.

XXV. "James owns a farm." Here the word owns asserts a fact, (in the true English sense of the word fact,) and represents the fact of owning as extending from the subject to something, (the farm,) as the object owned; for no one can own without owning something; and whether that something is, or is not, mentioned, does not at all affect the sense of the asserter owns. So is it with such asserters as keep, possess, purchase, &c.

XXVI. A Receptive Asserter may represent the fact denoted by the asserter, as either received by the subject of remark, or as being extended to the subject of remark. "The apple was eaten." Here the fruit is the subject of remark, and the asserter was eaten represents the subject of remark as receiving, (at the time referred to,) the very action which the asserter denoted—or it represents the action (of eating) denoted by the assertor, as received by the apple, the fruit, as the subject of remark. The action of eating was extended to the subject, and was received by the subject. The assertor is therefore called a receptive assertor, because asserting the reception, by the subject, of the action denoted by the assertor.

XXVII. "The dove was caught by George." Was caught, as here used, asserts that the subject, the dove, received the act (of sense, is shown by the objective word boat, to be so used; as here it represents an action of the man, the subject, as both extending to, and affecting, the object, the boat. "The fox sprung forward." Here the assertor sprung is used in the intransitive sense. It represents the subject of remark as acting, but not that the action extends to or affects an object. "The fox sprung the trap." Here it is used in the transitive sense, for it denotes a fact of the subject, which is represented as extending to, and as affecting an object. It embraces the meaning of two asserters, adding the transitive sense of caused, to the before intransitive sense of the assertor sprung—(sprung,) He caused the trap to spring. "The bell rings." John rings the bell. Asserters of this character were formerly used only in the intransitive sense; but by the commendable tendency of mankind to shorten the paths of the mind, they have been made to assume the transitive meaning.

*With some asserters, having, respectively, different meanings, it is necessary to use the word denoting the object affected, if we would indicate that the assertor is used in the transitive sense: as, "John sunk ten feet below the surface of the water." John, himself, is here represented as having sunk in the water. Sunk is here used in the intransitive sense. It represents the action of the man John, as the subject, without representing the action as extending to, or as affecting any object. "John sunk the boat," (caused the boat to sink.) Here the assertor sunk, used in the transitive sense, is contrasted.)
catching) denoted by the asserter. *Was caught* is therefore called a receptive asserter—the fact of catching denoted by the asserter, being represented as having been extended to, and received by, the bird, as the subject of remark.

XXXVIII. "The farm is owned by John." Here the asserter *is owned* represents the fact denoted by it as being extended to the farm, as the subject of remark; as the thing owned—for if the fact of owning had not extended to the subject, as here mentioned, the subject or farm could not have been owned. *Was owned* is therefore receptive according to the definition of the receptive asserter.

XXXIX. "The house was guarded—was kept from harm."—The asserter *was guarded* and *was kept*, as here used, are receptive according to the definition—for they represent the facts denoted by them, as being extended to the house, as the subject of remark—for unless the facts of guarding and keeping had been extended to the house, the subject, the house could not have been guarded and kept.

XXX. @-N. B. REMEMBER, that in all these distinctions of the asserters, and in those of Case, the "subject of remark" is to be considered and limited as in the Note† on page 25.

**ADNAMES—ADJECTIVES.**

XXXI. An adname is so called from its relation to, and dependence on, the name to which it is added; as, good man, *sweet apples*, *this book*, *that apple*. When I say "good man," it is seen that the word *good* is added to the name man, to show the quality or character of the person, the man. When I say, "the man is good," it is seen that the word *good* is added, in sense, to the name man, just as much as when I say, "good man." The word *added*, as used in the definition, means, *joined in sense*; so that the adname *is a word joined in sense* with the name; and it makes no difference whether the adname stands before the name, as in "good man," or comes after the name, as in "the man is good." In both examples, the adname *good* has the same meaning, and the same relation to the name man. In both examples the adname *good* is joined in sense with the name to show the quality of the person. "Good Lord deliver us from evil."—Here the adname *good* is added or joined to the name Lord, to show the quality or character of the being. "The Lord is good." Here the word *good* is joined in sense with the name Lord just as much as it was when standing before the name. In both examples, the adname *good* is joined in sense with the name—is added to the name, to show the quality of the being denoted by the name.

XXXII. In the example, *good man*, the pupil may ask, *good what?* [Good man.] To the example, *good Lord!* he may ask, *good what?* [Good Lord.] *The man is good—good what?*—what is good? *the man is the good object mentioned.* A straight stick—the stick is straight—good man—or the man is good. The adname is often joined to the substitute for the name: just as I, owing Henry ten dollars, do, in effect, pay him, when I pay his attorney or substitute, who hands the money to him. I may say, "John is happy." or, having mentioned John, I may say, *He is happy.* In both examples, the word, the adname happy, refers to the man, and shows the condition of the man. From all these remarks and examples, we learn why this part of speech is called adname—*added to a name—relating to a name—depending on a name, or substitute for a name.*

XXXIII. The purposes for which adnames are joined to, and made to depend on, names, are various. Thus—*This man, that man, two men, ten men, the man whom I met, a man, any man.*—The words in *Italics* are added to the names to limit, in certain ways, the meaning of the names, as applied to certain objects.

XXXIV. A *good man, a sweet apple, a large house, green fields.* The words in *italics*, are added to the names to show the qualities of the respective objects.

XXXV. *Which man is my friend? What a student that is! No man is utterly wretched.* The words in *Italics* show how the objects, as objects merely, are to be regarded.

XXXVI. *Richard is wealthy, a wretched man, a happy man, George is sick, James is miserable.* The words in *italics* are added to the names to show the condition of the objects.

XXXVII. A *country merchant, city laws, church ordinances.* The words in *Italics* are added to the names to show the class of the objects.

XXXVIII. *Brass clocks, wooden wheels, woollen garments.* The words in *Italics* show the *kind* ; including, of course, the quality.

XXXIX. An asserter may be used merely to show what a thing does, without the least reference to the quality or kind of the thing. An adname may be used merely to show the quality or kind of the thing, without the least reference to what it does, or what is done to it. Thus,
XL. Birds—a name. Birds sing. Sing, an assenter.

Canary birds—Canary, an adname.

Here it is seen that the same birds distinguishes the creatures, the fowls referred to, without any reference to their kind, or to what they do. The word Canary is used only to show the kind of birds, without any reference to what they do. The word sing is used only to assert or show what the birds do, without any reference to their kind. The word bird points neither way. The word Canary points forward to the name birds, and no farther; while the word sing points back to the name birds, and no farther.

ADNAMES—ADVERBS.

XL. An adname is used in reference to the name of an object. A modifier is used in reference to a phrase or a sentence describing a fact, or an event.

A qualifying adname, (one showing quality, class, kind, or condition,) qualifies the object to which it refers. The modifier often qualifies the sense expressed by a whole sentence. "John is a good man." Here the adname good shows the quality of the object, the man, merely. "John writes elegantly." Here the word elegantly qualifies the event, or fact, (of the man's writing,) just as the adname good qualifies the man, merely.

The modifier is, to the sentence, just what the adname is to the name. The adname qualifies the object, and refers to, and depends on, the name of the object. The modifier qualifies the event or fact as described, and refers to, and depends on, the sentence describing the event, describing what happens or what is. It modifies the meaning of the sentence, and thereby often qualifies the fact. "John is a careless boy." "John walked carefully around the lion's cage." Here the word carefully, an adname, shows the quality or character of the boy, as an object, without any reference to what he does, or what is done to him; and the word carefully, in the next sentence, shows the quality or character of the particular event—that of the boy's walking around the lion's cage, without reference to the general character of the boy. Careless, the adname, refers to the name of the object, and shows the character of the object denoted by the name. Carelessly, the adverb, or modifier, refers to the sentence describing the event, and shows the character of the event which the sentence describes.

XLII. The mere adname refers only to the object. The mere modifier refers to the whole of the fact or event, or chain of ideas described in the connection. It refers to the subject, the existence of the fact denoted by the assenter, the time, place, circumstances, &c.

XLIII. While the modifier does this, it asserts its modifying influence particularly and chiefly on that which is the chief aim of the speaker or writer to express. [It follows what in Logic is called the predicate—that which is chiefly affirmed or expressed of the subject of remark.] Thus, "James is certainly at home." "James is at home." Here the man James is the subject; and that which I wish chiefly to affirm of him, is his being at, (not near,) home,—(not another place,) and the word certainly, while it refers to the words, James and is, (expressing the subject and his existence,) throws its influence of emphasis and assurance upon the sense of the two words, at home: for, to represent John as being at that place, is my only aim or purpose in mentioning him at all. [I do not mean that he certainly is; as no one doubts that: but I mean that he is certainly at home.]

XLIV. "Jane and Helen are assuredly my friends." Here the modifier assuredly, though referring to the sense of all the words before it, throws its chief influence upon that which is my chief and only aim in mentioning the ladies at all—the fact of their being my friends; not the fact of their existing, as to one whom I address has any doubt of that.

XLV. "I could not see George when I called at his father's house yesterday morning." Here the modifier not is used, not to deny that I could see; (I could see perfectly well,) but to deny what would otherwise be affirmed—that I, (not another person,) could see, (not hear of,) George, (not another man,) when J, (not James,) called at, (not sent to,) his, (not my,) father's, (not uncle's,) house, (not barn,) yesterday, (not day before yesterday,) morning, (not afternoon.) It throws its modifying, negative influence over the sentiment expressed by the whole of the rest of the sentence.

XLVI. A modifier refers to the whole sentence or particular clause of a sentence in which it occurs; but it always has a more special reference to one part of the sentence or clause than to the rest of it. [Turn back and read the definition of a modifier.]

Contrast of Adnames and Modifiers.

XLVII. "An honest man deals justly with his neighbors." Here it is seen that the adname honest is used only to show the
character of the person denoted by the name John to which the adname honest is joined or added in sense. The adname honest is used to show the quality of an object without reference to a particular event, to what the man does, or to what is done to him; while the modifier justly, is applied in its influence to the whole of the rest of the sentence to show the character of the event; to qualify the fact expressed by the sentence. The adname refers to the name on which it depends, and qualifies the object denoted by the name. It has no reference to a particular event or fact. The mere modifier refers to the whole sentence or particular clause in which it occurs, and shows the character, not of an object, as an object merely; but of the event which the sentence, or clause of a sentence describes.

XLIX. Remember that the modifier is to the sentence, what the adname is to the name or substitute—that the modifier qualifies the event, or modifies the meaning of the sentence, just as the adname qualifies the object, or limits the meaning of the name.

RELATIVES—PREPOSITIONS.

L. A relative, as the name indicates, is a word used to show relation—to show the relation between one object and another; as, John Williams, in Utica, is my friend—the word in, showing the relation which the man bears to the city: the former being in, or within the limits of, the other; or, in other circumstances.

LI. The relative is used to show the relation which an entire event, (action and actor,) bears to an object; as, James walked around the house. Here the relative around shows the relation between the entire event of James' walking, and the house as the object around which he walked. The word around does not, as here used, show the relation between the name James, and the name house: for one name is not around the other. It does not show the relation of the man James, to the building, the house: for the man was not around, (extended around,) the house. He was not long enough to reach around the house. The word around is used only to show the relation between the fact or event of the man's walking, and the house as the object around which he walked.

[Turn back and read the definition of a relative.]

CONNECTIVES—CONJUNCTIONS.

LII. A connective, as the name indicates, is used to connect words, or to join words or combinations of words to each other; as, "John and Helen are my friends." Here the word "and" connects, and is used only to connect, the two names, John and Helen. It is therefore called a connective. "John is sick?"—one sentence describing an event. "James is well?"—another sentence describing another event. Here we have two classes or combinations, of three words each—and each combination describes one event.

John is sick, but James is well.

LIII. Here it is seen that the word but is not a part of either combination; and that it does not assist in describing either event. "John is sick," tells one story, and "James is well," tells the other—while the word but, not being a part of either combination, does not aid in describing either event; but stands merely as a connective word—a connective, joining the two classes or combinations of words which describe the respective events.

LIV. "and"—The word but, as used above, does not express an additional idea—does not add anything to the sense of the expression; but merely connects the words which do express distinct ideas. But is herein seen to be a mere connective.

[Turn back and read the definition of a connective.]

Contrast of Relatives and Connectives.

LV. A relative is not used for the purpose of connecting; though it does connect, as does also the asserter. Thus, "John met Henry." Here the asserter met really connects, as much as the word "and" in the next example—"John saw George and Henry?" Yet the word met is not called a connective, because it is not used for the purpose of connecting; being used only for the purpose of ascertaining the fact done by one person to another; and therefore called an asserter.

LVI. A relative connects—thus, "John died in Utica." Here the word in connects the name Utica with the words describing John's death—"John died." Though the word "in" connects, yet it is not used for that purpose; but only to show the relation of the event of John's death, to the city as the object or place in which he died.

LVII. Words are named from the chief design of their use. Connectives are not used to show relation, but to connect. They are not called relatives, but connectives. Relatives are not used
to connect—for the purpose of connecting; but only to show relation. Therefore, they are not called connectives, but relatives.

LVIII. \{ John, with Henry, went to Church. \}
\{ John and Henry went to Church. \}

Illustration.

LIX. With, as here used, shows the relation of the man John to the man Henry, while performing the act of going to church—one being with, or in the company of, the other. With is used to show this relation of one person to the other, and for no other purpose. Both persons went, at the same time, in company, to the same place.

LX. And, as used in the diagram, in contrast with the relative with, is employed only to connect. It shows no relation: for when I say, “John and Henry went to church,” I do not thereby indicate any relation as existing between the persons mentioned—I do not indicate that they went at the same time. [One may have gone in the forenoon, and the other in the afternoon.] I do not indicate that they went in the same direction, or to the same place. [One may have gone to the eastern, and the other to the western church,] yet both of them, “John and Henry, went to church.”

LXI. And connects the two names, but shows no relation. With is used only to show relation—for the purpose of showing relation; though it has an incidental, (not intended,) connecting influence.

INTERROGATIVES—ADVERBS.

LXII. This part of speech, as its name indicates, is used to ask a question or to interrogate—thus, “John: I saw your father yesterday.” [John asks.] “Where?” “Harriet: Julia must go home.” [Harriet asks.] “Why?”

LXIII. These words are not added or joined to asserters. One person makes a remark, and the other, by the use of the interrogative word, asks the question. [The principle, itself, having suggested the name, to the writer of this work; the name, in turn, suggests the principle to the pupil. The name, the definition, and the fact being in three-fold harmony, concord, or coincidence.]

REPLIERS—ADVERBS.

LXIV. This part of speech, as its name represents, is used in reply to some foregoing question or remark—thus, “Jane: will you accompany me to church to-morrow?” [She answers by the word] “Yes”—which word yes, constitutes a full reply to the foregoing interrogation. “Helen: are you opposed to improvement?” “No.” The word no, as here used, constitutes a full reply to the foregoing question.

Contrast of Interrogatives and Repliers.

LXV. Both of these parts of speech refer or point back to something already expressed; but the former interrogates concerning what has been expressed; and the latter constitutes a full answer or reply to a foregoing interrogation or remark. They are the opposites of each other—thus,

LXVI. We should love virtue and hate vice. \( \text{Why? Interrogative.} \)
\( \text{Yes. Replier.} \)

EXCLAMATIONS—INTERJECTIONS.

LXVIII. The name of this part of speech seems a sufficient definition of it; for, Grammar or no-grammar, it is nothing more or less than the name indicates—a mere exclamation.

LXIX. Interrogatives and repliers point back to what has been expressed; and exclamations, when used in relation to sentences, point forward to what is to be expressed; to the sentence describing the fact which excites the emotion expressed by the exclamation; as,

LXX. “Oh! I have lived in vain.” “Alas! I fear for life.”

Recapitulation.

LXXI. From the foregoing, it is seen, that we have, in the language, ten sorts of words; each, different from all of the others:

1 NAMES—Independent words, used to distinguish persons or things that may be considered separately or distinct from other ideas: as, man, virtue.

2 SUBSTITUTES—Dependent words, used, not to distinguish persons or things, but to represent what other words distinguish; as, he, it.
LECTURE. (Recapitulation.)

LXXIV.

3 ASSERTERS—Dependent words, used to assert, or to express existence or facts in connection with persons or things; as, John lives, virtue rewards her followers with peace. Asserters distinguish ideas, yet not as distinct or separate, but as connected with others.

LXXV.

4 ADNAMES—Dependent words, used to limit the meaning of names or substitutes; or to show the quality or character of the objects denoted by names or substitutes; as, this book, two books, happy man. Some adnams distinguish ideas, yet not as distinct or separate; but as connected with, or pertaining to, the objects denoted by the words on which the adnams depend.

LXXVI.

5 MODIFIERS—Dependent words, used to modify the meaning of sentences, or to show the quality or character of events; as, "John is not at home." "Seth writes elegantly." These words are used to distinguish ideas, yet, not as distinct or separate; but as connected with facts or events.

LXXVII.

6 RELATIVES—Dependent words, used to show the relation existing between an event or fact and an object, or between one object and another; as, James spoke to Henry. George Jackson, at school, in Boston, is my cousin. These distinguish ideas, yet, not as distinct or separate; but as connected with other ideas, events, or objects.

LXXVIII.

7 CONNECTIVES—Dependent words used to connect other words or to join words or sentences to each other; as, James and John were scholars, but Henry excelled them both. These, the more connectives, distinguish no particular distinct ideas; they add nothing to the sense: but are used to connect words which do express ideas, or add something to the sense of the expression.

LXXIX.

8 INTERROGATIVES—Dependent words, standing distinct and separate from other words, and used only to ask questions concerning sentiments before expressed; and depending, for sense and use, on foregoing remarks.

LXXX.

9 REPLIERS—Dependent words, standing distinct and separate from other words, and used only to answer foregoing questions, or to reply to foregoing remarks; and depending, for sense and use, on foregoing remarks.

LXXXI.

10 EXCLAMATIONS—Independent words, used, not to distinguish objects or ideas which may be considered separately alone, but only to express emotions, [not facts,] in reference to facts or circumstances contemplated.

LXXXII.

Arrangement of the Ten Parts of Speech, exhibiting their traits of similarity and dissimilarity.

Of these, we use,

- For representing objects, { Names and Substitutes.
- For expressing facts, { Asserters.
- For qualifying, { Adnams and Modifiers.
- For showing relation, { Relatives.
- For connecting, { Connectives.
- For asking questions, merely, { Interrogatives.
- For replying to questions, &c. { REPLIERS.
- For expressing emotions, merely, { Exclamations.

*By From the above recapitulation, it is seen that we have but two parts of speech that are independent words—the name and the exclamation, which make full sense of themselves: and that the other eight parts of speech are dependent on other words for their meaning, or their place in the sentence. Let this be impressed, by the teacher, on the pupil's mind, to aid him in understanding the characteristics of the different words of the language.
necting the two modifiers and the distinguished, and to which they refer. and the state or condition to which he passed—and by reading this lecture, it will be seen that the number of the parts of speech is fixed in, and by, the genius of the English Language; just as much as the number of kinds of roses is fixed, by the economy of Nature, in the real, existing differences in plants and flowers.

LXXXIV. The first seven parts of speech, are all which are used as parts of sentences, regularly constructed, for expressing ideas in connection. The next two are used distinct and separate from, yet relating to, other words; and the last is used distinct and separate from constructions with other words; yet sometimes relating, and sometimes not relating, to what is expressed by other words; as in the examples, XC I, XC II, XCIV, XCV.

LXXXV. Happy man! he labored long and faithfully for mankind; but he has gone to his rest, and is enjoying his great reward in Heaven.

LXXXVI. Here the words man, mankind, rest, reward, and Heaven are names, used to distinguish what objects are meant. He—he, and his—are substitutes, used to represent the object distinguished by the name man, for which the substitutes are used, and to which they refer.

LXXXVII. Labored, has gone, and is enjoying, are asserters, used to assert certain facts concerning the person mentioned. Happy and great are adjectives, used to qualify the two objects, the man and the reward mentioned.

LXXXVIII. Long and faithfully are modifiers, used to qualify the event of the man’s laboring for his race—for mankind.

LXXXIX. For, to, and in, are relatives: the first, used to show the relation between the event of the man’s laboring, and the race, [mankind]—as the object for which the labor was performed—to, used to show the relation between the fact of the man’s going, and the state or condition to which he passed—and in, showing the relation between the fact of the man’s enjoying his reward, and the place, [Heaven], in which he enjoys it.

XC. And, but, and and, are connectives—the first and connecting the two modifiers long and faithfully, yet adding nothing to their meaning—but, merely connecting the two sentences which express the two events, yet not adding any distinct idea to the sentiments expressed—and the last and, merely connecting the two asserters and their attendant words, ("has gone to his rest—") is enjoying his reward in Heaven, both of which phrases refer to the man expressed by the word he—yet the sense of the sentence given would be precisely the same without the connectives as with them: though the connectives, being mere steps for the reader’s mind from one part of the sentiment to the other, tend to make the sentence more smooth and agreeable.

XCI. George: you must go home.

XCII. Seth: are you waiting for Henry’s return? No.

XCIII. From the foregoing it is seen that the interrogative why, and the replier no, stand, respectively, distinct from the sentences to which they individually refer—one person affirming a fact, and the other demanding, [by the word why,] the reason; and another person asking a question, and the one interrogated answering by the replier no. Each of these parts of speech refers to its own foregoing sentence; but both stand distinct from the sentences to which they refer.

XCIV. Alas! "The joys that fortune brings, are trifling, and decay."

Here the exclamation Alas, stands distinct from the sentence describing the fact to which it refers.

XCV. Oh dear! Why! These exclamations are often used distinct from sentences, and without reference to facts mentioned by sentences.

Conclusion.

XCVI. Let not the teacher or the pupil be in haste to go on. Let the teacher exercise the pupil extensively and variously, on the different parts of speech till the pupil can distinguish them at sight.

XCVII. Let the pupil remember that his proficiency in all the exercises which may follow, will depend greatly on his having acquired a knowledge of what is incalculable by the foregoing lecture.

*Properly, Dea.
†Spelled w-h-y, but when used as an exclamation, pronounced joy, the letter h being, then, a mute.
The common saying of "the more haste the less speed," is never more justly applicable to the earlier exertions of students in learning the grammar of any language.

XCVIII. Let the teacher require the pupil to distinguish the parts of speech as they occur in his reading lessons; and when he shall have shown himself accurate and ready in this, he may more justly applicable than to the earlier exertions of students in learning the grammar of any language.

Questions on the definitions of the different Parts of Speech, and the Lecture.

NAMES, SUBSTITUTES, AND ASSERTERS.

What is a name? see number 61. What are the leading traits of a name? see I, II, III. What is a substitute? see 62. Give examples. What are the two leading traits of a substitute? see V, VI. Explain the difference between a name and a substitute: see IX. What is an assertor? see 63. In what place and form is it named assertor? see X. What are "terms of distinction" used to do? What is said of definitions? see XXI. Why do asserters always do? Give examples: see XXII. What does the name assertor indicate? What does the definition do? see XVI. Why are names not substitutes? why are they not asserters? see XVIII. Why are substitutes not names? why are they not asserters? see XIX. Why are asserters not names? see XX.

INTRANSITIVE, TRANSITIVE, AND RECEPIENT ASSERTERS.

Define an intransitive assertor. What is the first leading trait of an intransitive assertor? see 64, i, and XX. What is the second? see 64, ii, and XXI. What is a transitive assertor? see 65. What are its two leading traits? First, it may represent an action of the subject, as affecting an object: Second, it may represent a fact, merely, as only extending to an object: see XXXIV, and XXXV. Define a receptive assertor: see 66. What are the two traits of this assertor? see the first three lines of XXXVI. Give examples of the first trait: see XXXVII. Give examples of the second trait: see XXXVIII, XXXIX. How is the subject of remark to be considered? XXX. What is taught by the note, page 25.

ADNAMES.

What is an adname? see 67. Why is it so called? see XXXI. What is the difference in the influence of an adname when standing before a name, and when coming after it? Give examples. For what six particular purposes are the adnames joined to names? see XXXII to XXXVIII, including both. What is the difference between an asserter and an adname? see XXXIX. Explain the diagram XL.

MODIFIERS.

What is a modifier? see 68. To what does an adname refer? to what does a modifier refer? see XII. In what respects are adnames and modifiers similar? in what dissimilar? see XII, and XII. What is taught by XLV? What does the modifier determine, particularly qualify? see XLVI. What is the modifying influence of not? What is taught by XLVII by XLVIII? What is said, at last, in XLIX, of adnames and modifiers?

RECAPITULATION.


2. How many parts of speech are there? see LXXXII. How many have we for representing objects? What are they? How many for expressing facts? What is it? How many for qualifying? What are they? How many for showing relations? What is it? How many for connecting? What is it? How many for asking questions or interrogating? What is it? How many for replying? What is it? How many for expressing emotions? What is it?

3. Is it a matter of mere taste or caprice in an author to tell how many parts of speech he will have? or is the number fixed by the genius of the language? see LXXXIII. How many of the parts of speech are used as parts of regularly constructed sentences? see LXXXIV. Read the sentence LXXXV. What is said in LXXXVI? what in LXXXVI? what in LXXXVII? what in LXXXVIII? what in LXXXIX? what in XCV? What is said in XCV concerning the diagrams of XCVI and XCVII? What is said in XCV and XCV concerning examples given in these numbers? What is said, in conclusion, in XCVI? what in XCVII? and what in XCVIII? (Remember these remarks.)

PARSING

74 Is describing the nature, distinctions, and powers of words, and, when united in a sentence, their relation to, and dependence on, each other.
LESSON I.

[Let the pupil distinguish the different parts of speech in the following lessons. Let the teacher require the pupil to distinguish the different parts of speech as they occur in different lines or sentences of his reading lessons; at least such as occur in simple relations; not such as have complex characteristics and relations.]

Cain killed his brother. Abel was killed by Cain. Maria loves her cousin. My friends left their carriage, and walked towards the catacatact. They met Seth and Henrietta, returning from the mountain. We should be just to all men. Man should love and obey his Creator.

LESSON II.

William will visit his aged mother. When? I saw Maria and her uncle. Where? James: Grammar is a useful science. You should be quiet in church. My aunt resides in Boston. I visited her and her nearest neighbor in the forest of yesterday. Did James go to school? No.

LESSON III.

Clarissa and Julius went early to Sunday School. They learn their daily lessons well. Washington died at Mount Vernon, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. Jesus wept with Mary and her sister. He raised their brother [Lazarus] from the grave. O glorious hope of endless rest.

LESSON IV.

Time flies rapidly. James studied attentively, and learned his lessons well. Julia writes elegantly. George is a good boy and kind brother. He helps his little sister make her bed for the flowers. Henry Briggs went to New York and bought some goods. Hannah: will you attend church? Yes. Abigail is my sister. Joseph teaches school. Seth loves his father and mother, and obeys them.

LESSON V.

Albert is a pleasant little boy. He goes cheerfully to school, and studies his books. Sophia is not at home. She went to New York early in the winter. Samuel bought a farm in Ohio. He intends to remove his family soon. Eveline is a good and beautiful young lady. She is attentive to the wants of her parents and her brothers and sisters. Helen is an accomplished girl. She is a first rate scholar.

LESSON VI.

The fields are green in spring. The grass grows. The flowers bloom. The air is fragrant and delightful. I love to walk among the fresh, green plants, and flowers. Hannah studies botany. She has a little herb garden in which she spends her mornings. She rises early and goes into the garden to dress the beds. The birds sing merrily among the trees.

LESSON VII.

Jesus wept with Mary and her sister. He raised their brother [Lazarus] from the grave. O glorious hope of endless rest.

LESSON VIII.

Time flies rapidly. James studied attentively, and learned his lessons well. Julia writes elegantly. George is a good boy and kind brother. He helps his little sister make her bed for the flowers. Henry Briggs went to New York and bought some goods. Hannah: will you attend church? Yes. Abigail is my sister. Joseph teaches school. Seth loves his father and mother, and obeys them.

LESSON IX.

Albert is a pleasant little boy. He goes cheerfully to school, and studies his books. Sophia is not at home. She went to New York early in the winter. Samuel bought a farm in Ohio. He intends to remove his family soon. Eveline is a good and beautiful young lady. She is attentive to the wants of her parents and her brothers and sisters. Helen is an accomplished girl. She is a first rate scholar.

LESSON X.

The fields are green in spring. The grass grows. The flowers bloom. The air is fragrant and delightful. I love to walk among the fresh, green plants, and flowers. Hannah studies botany. She has a little herb garden in which she spends her mornings. She rises early and goes into the garden to dress the beds. The birds sing merrily among the trees.