Improved Edition—the Old Nomenclature with the New

THE

GRAMMAR

OF

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

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

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PREFACE.

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 every where 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 auxiliar* 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 seem 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 shell-fish 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 Votaries of Truth, as they ascend the Hill of Science.

For these antiquated stationaries, blink-eyed from the effects of the glare of science outshining 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 the pupil can meet on the common ground of one nomenclature, and that a *philosphical* 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!

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

☞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.

☞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 presented to the erudition, the judgment and candor of mankind.*

☞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.

*By "*the old theorists*," as referred to, I mean Johnson, Lowth, Lennie, Murray, Kirkham, 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.

CONTRAST OF CORRECT, WITH INCORRECT LANGUAGE.

GOOD ENGLISH SENTENCES, *Grammatical according to Peirce's Grammar.*	OUTLANDISH JARGON, *Grammatical according to the old theories.*
1 John; go home.	1 John, go *thou to* home, or John, *do thou* go *unto* home.
2 They took Moses' rod. I read of Xerxes' overthrow. I heard of the witness' return. I approved Dr. Evans' advice.	2 They took Moses'*s* rod. I read of Xerxes'*s* overthrow. I heard of the witness'*s* return. I approved Dr. Evans'*s* advice.
3 James called and took his ticket, but left Henry's, Jacob's, Seth's, William's, Julia's and Mary's.	3 James called and took his ticket, but left Henry's *ticket, and* Jacob's *ticket, and* Seth's *ticket, and* William's *ticket, and* Julia's *ticket,* and Mary's *ticket.*
4 John lent me his book, and borrowed mine.	4 John lent *to* or *unto* me his book, and borrowed mine *book.*
5 Jane took, by accident, Julia's umbrella, and left hers.	5 Jane took, by accident, Julia's umbrella, and left hers *umbrella.*
6 George and Henry took William's carriage for their journey, and left theirs; because his was better than theirs.	6 George and Henry took William's carriage for their journey, and left theirs *carriage;* because his *carriage* was better than theirs *carriage was.*
7 James and Richard brought home from the East, ten Canary birds. They gave two of them to Mary, two of them to Helen, and two of them to me, and kept the remaining four as theirs, or for themselves.	7 James and Richard brought *to* home or *unto* home, from the East, ten Canary birds. They gave two *Canary birds* of them to Mary, and two *Canary birds* of them to Helen, and two *Canary birds* of them to me, and kept the remaining four *Canary birds* as theirs *Canary birds,* or for themselves.
8 Julia and Hannah respect and esteem each other. They use one another's books.	8 Julia and Hannah respect and esteem *somebody*—each *person of them respects and esteems the* other *person.* They use books—one *person of them uses* another *person's books—meaning the other person's books.*
9 Seth Allen can not go to New-York, finish my business, and return in ten days; but James Ellis can.	9 Seth Allen cannot go to New York, finish my business and return in ten days; but James Ellis can *go to New York, and can finish my business, and can return in ten days.*
10 Helen is taller than Maria. Maria is as studious as Helen.	10 Helen is taller than Maria—*is tall.* Maria is as studious as Helen—*is studious.*

11 William bought more paper than was needed; and purchased as much fruit as can be used.	11 William bought more paper than *that* or *the paper was which* was needed; and purchased as much fruit as *that* or *the fruit is which* can be used.
12 George has more books than he can read.	12 George has more books than he can read *them*—or than *those* or *the books are which* he can read.
13 Harriet is ten years older than Jane.	13 Harriet is older than Jane *is old, to* more *years* than *to* ten years—or than ten years *are*.
14 The wall is ten feet high.	14 The wall is high to ten feet, [that is—the wall being "high to ten feet," or to the tenth foot, is just *nine* feet high.]
15 The canal is more than fifty miles long.	15 The canal is long *to the distance or extent of* more *miles* than *the distance or extent of* fifty miles—*is*.
16 Seth journeyed west five days, and travelled more than four hundred miles.	16 Seth journeyed *to* or *towards* west *during* five days, and travelled *over* or *through the distance or space of* more *miles*, than *the distance or space of* four hundred miles—*is*.
17 The enemy returned to the charge four times.	17 The enemy returned to the charge *to the number of* four times.
18 George sold his apples for a penny each.	18 George sold his apples for a penny *for one apple*, or *for* each *apple*.
19 I have a farm with which I know not what to do.	19 I have a farm with which I know not *the thing with which to do something or any thing*.
20 I have more money by half than I know what to do with.	20 I have more money by *a* half, or by *one* half than *that* or *the thing* is I know—*something* to do—*something with which*.
21 James resides more than ten miles beyond New York.	21 James resides *at a greater distance* than *the distance of* ten miles beyond New York—*is*.
22 The eagle soared more than ten thousand feet above the level of the sea.	22 The eagle soared *to a greater distance or height* than *the distance or height of* ten thousand feet above the level of the sea—*is*.

☞The next two examples are transformed exactly according to the rules of Kirkham's Grammar, and his particular directions to the pupil concerning these very examples, to bring them into "grammatical" forms.

23 Who noble ends, by noble means, obtains, Or, failing, smiles in exile or in chains,	23 That man is great indeed *do thou or ye* let him *to* reign like *unto* good Aurelius, or *do thou or ye* let him *to* bleed like *unto* Socrates, who obtains noble ends by noble means—or *that man is great indeed, who*, failing *to obtain noble ends by noble means*, smiles in exile or in chains.
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!	24 Oh Happiness! our being's end and aim, *whether thou art* good, *or whether thou art* pleasure, or *whether thou art* ease, *or whether thou art* content, *thou art that, thou art which—or be thy* name *that thing, it may be whichever thing, thou art still* that something, &c. &c. !!

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 *fanatical* 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 father'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 commending 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!"

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 innoxious 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

equal expense; if I shall, in effect, add something to man's brief existence, by shortening the time necessarily spent in preparing him to act his part in life with credit to himself, in usefulness to the world; then, although amid the coming revolutions of successive improvement, the name of the author and his work may perish from the memory of man; yet, from consciousness that my efforts for the advancement of the general good have not been wholly vain, I shall have had, while living, the satisfaction of seeing my highest designs consummated.

OLIVER B. PEIRCE.

ROME, N. Y. 1843.

MAXIM.

SCIENCE, in every department, Physical, Intellectual, Moral and Religious, should be so taught, that, when imparted, the principles, by recommending themselves to the understanding, can remain *living* and *fixed*, without the support of authors' or teachers' names.

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 discarded.

Explain the parts which, to the learners' various capacities, shall need to be explained ; and impress on their minds, that their proficiency 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 materials 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.

☞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.

ALL desire improvement ; yet many are averse to change. We forget, that though there may be change without improvement, there can not be improvement without change. We should consider that change is necessarily 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-l-a-s*, for *Alas!*—*F-i-e*, for *Fie!*—*M-a-n*, for *Man*—*w-o-m-a-n*, for *woman*—*b-oo-k*, for *book*—*h-a-t*, for *hat*. (Give the letters 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, respectively, the names of the countries in which they were first embodied, 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 instrument is conveyed from the writer of the word to the reader of it ; if the latter has before seen the combination of letters used 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 ad-

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 can not 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.

Violation.

I must have my tooth *pulled*—[meaning, probably, *extracted:* as a person may have all his teeth *pulled*, without having one of them *extracted* or *taken out*.] James *lives* in New York; though lodging, at present, in Boston—[meaning, probably, that James *resides* in New York; though lodging at present in Boston.] A man *lives* wherever he *is alive:* he *resides* where his *permanent home is.* George; harness *up the horse and put him into the carriage*—[meaning probably, *harness the horse to the carriage.* The rider would find himself in an awkward plight, *seated beside such company as the words imply*.] The prisoner broke jail and *cleared*—[meaning, doubtless, that the prisoner broke jail and *escaped.*] "*Cleared,*" as applied to ships leaving a port, would be proper; but not to the escape of a prisoner from confinement. This turtle soup is *elegant* or *most beautiful*—[meaning that it is *excellent* or *delicious.*]

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 *g'ography*—[meaning ge-ography.] George; will you take some *pudden?*—[meaning *pudding.*] Seth wouldn't go home—*wootunt* go, &c.—[meaning *would not* go home.] Julius bought *a napple an 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?—[*whom* did you see?] John took my hat and left *his'n*—[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.

Violation.

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 *afoot*. [Omit the word "*afoot.*"] The child slipped *up* and fell *down*.—[Omit "*up*" and "*down.*"]

Harriet; *come*, go to the basin and wash *out* your eyes; and comb your hair *out*, and prepare for school. [Omit "*come*," as entirely useless, and the two words "*out*," "*out*," as expressing too much.] John; wash *off* your hands and commence your writing. [Omit "*off*," as expressing more than is intended.] Julia; clear *out* the breakfast room, and resume your studies. [Omit "*out.*"]

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.

Violation.

"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 ideas intended. Thus, the Agricultural car, drawn by twenty pairs of oxen, was filled with three hundred men.] "The city contains sixty thousand inhabitants, built entirely of stone"—(representing *not the city, but the inhabitants, to be built of stone.*) By a different arrangement the ideas intended are properly expressed. Thus, the city, built entirely of stone, contains sixty thousand inhabitants. "There were in all, two white men and three Indians killed by general T's party, who had been committing depredations in that settlement"—(making the party of general T. the depredators.) [Reverse the arrangement of some of the words,—thus, There were, in all, killed by general T's party, two white men and three Indians, who had been committing depredations in that settlement.]

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.

Violation.

"W. J. having gone to see (sea) 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 see, (sea,) 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 "*thee*," 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, gig, hap-pi-ness, sat-is-fac-tion, good-ness.

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.*

Roman Letters.		Italic Letters.		Names of the Letters.
A	a	*A*	*a*	a
B	b	*B*	*b*	be
C	c	*C*	*c*	se
D	d	*D*	*d*	de
E	e	*E*	*e*	e
F	f	*F*	*f*	ef
G	g	*G*	*g*	ge
H	h	*H*	*h*	aich
I	i	*I*	*i*	i
J	j	*J*	*j*	ja
K	k	*K*	*k*	ka
L	l	*L*	*l*	el
M	m	*M*	*m*	em
N	n	*N*	*n*	en
O	o	*O*	*o*	o
P	p	*P*	*p*	pe
Q	q	*Q*	*q*	ku
R	r	*R*	*r*	ar
S	s	*S*	*s*	es
T	t	*T*	*t*	te
U	u	*U*	*u*	u, or ew
V	v	*V*	*v*	ve
W	w	*W*	*w*	double-u
X	x	*X*	*x*	ex
Y	y	*Y*	*y*	wy
Z	z	*Z*	*z*	ze*
&†		&†		*and*

LETTERS

35 Are divided into three classes ; Vowels, Consonants, and Mutes.

A VOWEL

36 Is a letter which has a simple, distinct, articulate sound, and which may, of itself, constitute an entire syllable, or may be joined to other letters, to constitute, with them, single syllables ; as,

A, e, i, o, u, y—*A-e-ri-al, Sol-o-mon, E-gypt, un-der-stand-ing.*

*It is much to be regretted that the *names* of the letters have so little resemblance to the sounds which they are forced to represent.

†This character stands for the word *and*. It should be used where *brevity, not elegance,* is intended ; as, " J. Maxwell & Sons, Merchants."

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, k, t, f, w, n, g—Man, hat, but-ton, fan, wo-man, ring.

A MUTE

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

P, h, h, in Phthis-ic; *e*, in com*e*; *u*, liq*u*or; *i* and the last *e* pierc*e*.*

A

39 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in l*a*te, h*a*t, h*a*ll, f*a*ther, wh*a*t, *a*ir.

E

40 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in sl*ee*p, m*e*t, h*e*r, th*e*re.

I

41 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in p*i*n, f*i*nd, b*i*rd, fat*i*gue:

EXCEPT

42 When *i* is immediately followed by a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant; as in min-*i*on, al-*i*en, civil-*i*an.

O

43 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as told, n*o*t, p*oo*l, b*oo*k, c*o*me.†

U

44 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in d*u*e, ann*ui*ty, r*u*n, f*u*ll:

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, *u*nion, *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 S*u*abia, pers*u*ade; or the parts of a consonant and vowel; as in s*ure*, s*ugar*.‡

*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 *women* it has the sound of *i;* [women being pronounced wim-men.]

‡ It has the sound of *i* in business.

W

47 Is a consonant when sounded before a vowel in the same syllable; *w*ing, *w*eep.

48 It is often joined to another consonant to represent a two-fold consonant sound; as s*w*ing, s*w*eep, t*w*inge, t*w*ist.

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

50 It is used after *e*, in the same syllable, to give the vowel sound of *u;* as in f*ew*, n*ew*.

51 It is a mute after the *long, open* sound of *o* in the same syllable; as in sh*ow*-ed, best*ow*-ed, m*ow*-ed.

Y

52 Is a vowel wherever sounded; as in E-g*y*pt, ph*y*-sician, m*y*s-tic;

EXCEPT,

53 When *y* begins a syllable and is followed by a vowel in the same syllable, it is a consonant; as *y*outh, *y*early, *y*am, *y*elp, *Y*armouth.

SPELLING

54 Is combining letters, or their sounds, to form syllables and words; as, *ap-ple*, apple—*b-i-r-d*, 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-*li-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-law, safe-guard.*

*The sound of *w* is that of *o* represented by *oo*, 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 *hw;* as in *when, hwen*—hoo-*en*, hoo*en*—the last combination giving the ordinary sound of the word *when*—hoo-*en*, hoo*en*—*hwen, when.*

ETYMOLOGY

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

WORDS,

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

NOMENCLATURES.

New Nomenclature.	*Old Nomenclature.*
1 NAMES,	1 NOUNS,
2 SUBSTITUTES,	2 PRONOUNS,
3 ASSERTERS,	3 VERBS and PARTICIPLES,
4 ADNAMES,	4 ADJECTIVES and ARTICLES,
5 MODIFIERS,	5 ADVERBS,
6 RELATIVES,	6 PREPOSITIONS,
7 CONNECTIVES,	7 CONJUNCTIONS,
8 INTERROGATIVES,	8 ADVERBS,
9 REPLIERS,	9 ADVERBS,
10 EXCLAMATIONS.	10 INTERJECTIONS.*

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. ☞Let the teacher remember that it is the business of an *author to define principles* in the *simplest, clearest manner* possible, with *one set of words*, and that ☞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,

Jane *walks*. John *sleeps*. Henry *fell*. Grass *grows*. Flowers *bloom*.

[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 *f-a-r-m* 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, including both.]

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 XLI, to XLIX of the Lecture, including both.]

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 L, 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 LII to LXI of the Lecture, including both.]

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, including both.]

EXCLAMATIONS—INTERJECTIONS.

73 An exclamation is a word or phrase used merely to express emotion; as,

Oh virtue! how lovely thou art. *Alas!* I can fear nothing worse than I feel.

[Read LXVIII, LXIX, and LXX of the Lecture—then read the "RECAPITULATION" and the "General Correlative Arrangement;" and then read the whole Lecture till you understand every part of it. Then you may proceed.]

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 any thing 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.*]

SUBSTITUTES—PRONOUNS.

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." Here 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 asserter *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'—[*two dollars*, or mere *dollars* would not have been too much;] five and a half dollars was too much.—Here the substitute *which* sustains, to the asserter *was*, the same relation that a name sustains, having the asserter *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.

ASSERTERS—VERBS.

X. The asserter 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,

HAS JOHN WRITTEN?

I use the same words that I used before. The asserter *has written*, as now used, does, it is seen, by the *mode* of arranging its parts with respect to the name *John*, constitute, with that name, an interrogative sentence: yet the asserter *has written*, taken without the name *John*, would assert the fact of writing, though not attributing it to any particular one as the writer. The words themselves, (*has written*,) would *assert*; but the *mode* of arranging the parts with respect to the name *John*—this interrogates.

XV. When I use the name *John* alone; as, *John*—there is no assertion; but when I say "John *runs*," it is seen that the term *runs asserts* what the *man* John does. *Runs* is therefore named an *asserter*.

XVI. The name *asserter* indicates the office of the part of speech in its *primary* form and place, and its general business in other forms and places—and what the name fails to accomplish, the definition makes complete. [*Turn back and read the definition.*]

Contrast of Names, Substitutes, and Asserters.

XVII. "John left the carriage where he had broken it."—*John* and *carriage* are names—are independent words used to distinguish objects that may be considered separately or alone. They are not substitutes. They are not words substituted for other words, but are used, of themselves, to distinguish objects. They are not asserters. They are not used to assert any thing, or to express facts. They are *mere names*.

XVIII. *He* and *it* are not names. They are not independent words used to distinguish objects or ideas. They are not asserters. They are not used *to assert*, or to express existence or facts in relation to persons or things. *He* and *it* are mere substitutes; standing as representatives of the names, *John* and *carriage*.

XIX. *Left* and *had broken* are asserters; both being used *to assert facts*. They are not names. They are not independent words, or words used in describing events without having reference to other words on which to depend. The name *John* is used to distinguish the person, without reference to whom, these asserters would not be used in describing the events as mentioned.—*Left* and *had broken* are used to distinguish ideas; but they are not independent words—(as just mentioned above)—nor do these words, *left* and *had broken*, as used in the sentence, distinguish ideas to be considered separately or distinctly from the *person* as the *actor*—the one who *broke* the carriage and *left* it; but they

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 *fruit*, the apple. The asserter *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 asserter'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.*

*With some asserters, having, respectively, different meanings, it is necessary to use the word denoting the object affected, if we would indicate that the asserter 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 *in*transitive sense. It represents the act 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 asserter *sunk*, used in the *transitive*

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 asserter *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. &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 denotes—or it represents the *action* (of eating) denoted by the asserter, as received by the apple, the fruit, as the subject of remark. The apple, the subject, *received* the action—the apple *was eaten*. The act of eating was *extended to* the subject, and was *received by* the subject. The asserter is therefore called a *receptive* asserter, because *asserting* the *reception*, by the subject, of the action denoted by the asserter.

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 asserter *sprung* is used in the *in*transitive 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 *in*transitive sense of the asserter *spring*—(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.

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.

XXVIII. "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.

XXIX. "The house *was guarded—was kept* from harm."—The asserters *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* men, *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.*] In 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 of 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 assserter.—*Canary* ☞ birds—*Canary*, an adname—

Canary ☞ *birds* ☜ sing.

Here it is seen that the name *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 *birds* 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.

MODIFIERS—ADVERBS.

XLI. 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.

XLII. 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*. Thus, "John is a *careless* boy." "John walked *carelessly* around the lion's cage." Here the word *careless*, 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 *carelessly*, 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 *ad-sentence*, or modifier, refers to the *sentence* describing the event, and shows the character of the *event* which the sentence describes.

XLIII. 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 asserter, the time, place, circumstances, &c.

XLIV. ☞While the modifier does this, it exerts its modifying influence particularly and chiefly on that which it 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*.]

XLV. "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 no one whom I address has any doubt of that.

XLVI. "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 *I*, (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.

XLVII. 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.

XLVIII. "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 *man* 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 par- 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. ☞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 *asserting* 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'—'John died *in* Utica.' 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. Illustration. { John, *with* Henry, went to Church. / John *and* Henry went to Church. }

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 co-incidence.]

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. ☞ *Why?* Interrogative.

LXVII. Should we love virtue and hate vice? ☞ *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:

LXXII.

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

LXXIII.

2 SUBSTITUTES—*Dependent* words, used, not to distinguish persons or things, but *to represent* what other words distinguish; as, *he*, *it*. [*Pronouns.*]

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.
[*Verbs.*]

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 adnames *distinguish* ideas, yet not as distinct or separate; but as connected with, or pertaining to, the objects denoted by the words on which the adnames *depend*.
[*Adjectives.*]

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.
[*Adverbs.*]

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.
[*Prepositions.*]

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 mere 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.
[*Conjunctions.*]

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.
[*Adverbs.*]

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.
[*Adverbs.*]

LXXXI.

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

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, - - -	*Adnames* 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.*

*☞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.

LXXXIII. ☞To these ten parts of speech, philosophically classed, philosophically named and defined—philosophically distinguished—belong all the words of the English Language. By many, it has been thought a matter of mere taste, fancy, or caprice, in authors, to determine how many parts of speech they will have: but 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 construction with other words; yet sometimes relating, and sometimes *not* relating, to what is expressed by other words; as in the examples, XCI, XCII, XCIV, XCV.

4 1 2 3 5 7 5 6 1 7
LXXXV. Happy man! he labored long and faithfully for mankind; but
2 3 6 2 1 7 3 2 4 1 6 1.
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–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 adnames, 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 hearer's or 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. ☞ "*Why?*"

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 inculcated by the foregoing lecture.

*Properly, *Dea!*

†Spelled *w-h-y,* but when used as an exclamation, pronounced *wy,* the letter *h* being, then, a *mute.*

The common saying of "the *more haste* the *less speed*," is never more justly applicable than 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 be allowed to proceed to examine, in detail, the peculiarities of each of the parts of speech, the rules, &c. &c.

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? 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 asserter? see 63. In what place and form is it named asserter? see X. What are "terms of distinction" used to do? What is said of definitions? see XII. What do asserters always do? Give examples: see XIII. What does the *name asserter* indicate? What does the definition do? see XVI. Why are names not substitutes? why are they not asserters? see XVII. Why are substitutes not names? why are they not asserters? see XVIII. Why are asserters not names? XIX.

INTRANSITIVE, TRANSITIVE, AND RECEPTIVE ASSERTERS.

Define an intransitive asserter. What is the first leading trait of an intransitive asserter? see 64 I, and XX. What is the second? see 64 II, and XXI. What is a transitive asserter? 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 XXIV, and XXV. Define a receptive asserter: see 66.—What are the two traits of this asserter? see the first three lines of XXVI.—Give examples of the first trait: see XXVI. Give examples of the second trait: see XXVIII, XXIX. 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 XXXIII 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? see XLI. In what respects are adnames and modifiers similar? in what dissimilar? see XLII, and XLIII. What is taught by XLIV? What does the modifier *certainly*, 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?

RELATIVES AND CONNECTIVES.

What is a relative? see 69. Why is it so called? see L. What is taught by LI? What is a connective? see 70. Why is it so named? see LII. Explain what is taught by LIII. What is said of *but*, as used in the diagram LII. What does the word *but do*? what does it *not* do, as used in the diagram? see LIV. What is the difference between a relative and a connective? see LV. How far does the *asserter* resemble the connective, and in what is it unlike the connective? see LV. In what respect does the relative resemble the connective? see LVI. In what respect are they unlike each other? see LVII. From what are the parts of speech named? see LVII: see the diagram LVIII. What is said of *with*? see LIX. What is said of *and*? see LX. What is the difference between *with* and *and*? see LXI.

INTERROGATIVES, REPLIERS, AND EXCLAMATIONS.

What is an interrogative? see 71. Give examples and explain them: see LXII. What is said of the interrogative? see LXIII. What suggested the *name* to the writer? What is a replier? see 72. What is said of it? see LIV. What is the difference between an interrogative and a replier? see LIV. In what respect are they similar? see LV, LVI, and LVII. What is an exclamation? see 73. What is said of this? see LVIII. In what respect are exclamations unlike interrogatives and repliers, in their reference to sentences? see LVI, LVII, and LXX.

RECAPITULATION.

1. What is said in LXXI? What are the characteristics of names? see LXXII: of substitutes? see LXXIII: of asserters? see LXXIV: of adnames? see LXXV: of modifiers? see LXXVI: of relatives? see LXXVII: of connectives? see LXXVIII: of interrogatives? see LXXIX: of repliers? see LXXX: of exclamations? see LXXXI.

2. How many parts of speech are there? see LXXII. 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 relation? 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 LXXXVII? what in LXXXVIII? what in LXXXIX? what in XC? What is said in XCIII concerning the diagrams of XCI and XCII? What is said in XCIV 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 and influence on, each other.

EXERCISES ON THE DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

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 cataract.—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 forenoon 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 beds 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 delightsome. I love to walk among the fresh, green plants, and flowers. Hannah studies botany. She has a little botanic 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.

75 REMARK.—In Etymology, are found only the *distinctions* of the *different parts of speech*, as such, and of their *traits*, as seen in their *subdivisions*. All directions for the *use* of the parts of speech in sentences, are reserved to be presented under their appropriate heads in Syntax.

NAMES—NOUNS.

76 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.

77 DISTINCTIONS OF NAMES.

I. Primary Distinctions,	General, Particular, Collective, Assertive.
II. Distinctions with respect to Sex,	Masculine, Feminine, Common, Neuter.
III. Distinctions of Person,	First, Second Person, Third Person.
IV. Distinctions with respect to Number,	Singular form, Plural form. *Regular*, *Irregular*, *Defective*.
V. Distinctions of Case,	Subjective, Possessive, Objective, Independent, Two-fold.

I. Primary Distinctions.

GENERAL NAMES—*Common Nouns.*

78 I. A general name is one which is GENERAL in its application to persons or things.

II. It is one which represents a class or kind of objects, not a collection of objects; as,

Man, woman, country, city, river, mountain, town, village.