

HIGH SCHOOL
GRAMMAR,

OR,
AN EXPOSITION
OF THE
GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

BY
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"PRACTICAL EXERCISES IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION," ETC., ETC.,

"TRUTH AND SIMPLICITY ARE TWIN SISTERS."

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PREFACE.

THE favorable reception extended to the author's "Intermediate Grammar," and the many solicitations of distinguished teachers and professors have induced him to present it in a more enlarged and complete form. His object has been to furnish students in the higher institutions of learning, with a general view of the leading features of English Philology, and to place in their hands a work that may prove not only a useful auxiliary throughout their Academic and Collegiate course, but a hand-book of reference for after life.

Special attention has also been given to the wants of teachers. In the ordinary routine of instruction even in "common schools," questions arise in their own minds, or are proposed by their pupils in regard to idiomatic forms, or some peculiarity of structure, which have scarcely been noticed, or are entirely passed over in the text-book of the class. Deficiencies of this kind have been anticipated, and such assistance afforded as may the more thoroughly qualify them for the successful discharge of the important duty in which they are engaged.

In the preparation of this work, the author, in addition to his own practical investigations, has freely consulted the older grammarians, such as Wallis, Harris, Lowth, Greenwood, &c., &c., as well as the best of the modern, such as Murray, Crombie, Latham, Webster, Brown, &c., &c. He would also acknowledge his indebtedness to Bopp, Becker, Kühner, and the valuable grammar of Andrews and Stoddard, recently revised by E. A. Andrews, for many hints in regard to the philosophy and method of language. In a word, he has availed himself of all the materials within his reach, when they aided in the development of his plans.

GRAMMAR.

§ 1. GRAMMAR is the science of Language.

§ 2. It is divided into two parts, Theoretical and Practical.

§ 3. Theoretical Grammar treats of the principles common to all languages. Practical Grammar treats of the principles of a particular language.

§ 4. Language is a medium for the communication of thought. It is divided into Spoken and Written.

§ 5. Spoken language is the utterance of significant sounds to express thought. Written language is a system of characters or letters to represent spoken language.

REMARK.—In regard to the origin of language there has been much diversity of opinion. One class maintained that it was the pure gift of God, the second that it was the invention of man, and others again that it was neither the pure gift of God, nor the invention of man, but the result of his organization.

Cicero, in alluding to the human race in primeval ages, says: "There was a time when men wandered everywhere through the fields after the manner of beasts, and supported life by eating the food of beasts." Diodorus, Lucretius, Horace, Pliny, Juvenal, and other ancient writers, favored

the same opinion, and supposed that it was only after a long and gradual improvement, that men attained their present enlightened state.

Whether language was the pure gift of God, conveyed in vocal sounds to the listening ear, as from the teacher to the pupil, or the development of some pre-existing type in man, are questions that have never been satisfactorily settled. The opinion expressed by Baron Humboldt, is consistent and certainly not far from the truth: "Speech must be regarded as naturally inherent in man, for it is altogether inexplicable as a work of his understanding in its simple consciousness. We are none the better for allowing thousands and thousands of years for the invention of language, unless its type already existed in the human understanding. Man is only man by the means of speech; but in order to invent speech he must be already man."

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

§ 6. ENGLISH GRAMMAR teaches the principles of the English Language.

These relate:

1. To its Written Characters;
2. To its Pronunciation;
3. To the Classification and Derivation of its Words;
4. To the Construction of Sentences;
5. To Versification.

REMARK.—The grammar of a particular language, is a system of general principles derived from the natural distinction of words, and particular rules deduced from the customary forms of speech in the nation using that language. These usages are mostly arbitrary, or of accidental origin, but when they become common, they are to be considered as established, and received as rules of highest authority.

§ 7. The first part is called Orthography; the second, Orthoëpy; the third, Etymology; the fourth, Syntax; and the fifth, Prosody.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

§ 8. Orthography treats of the letters and other characters of a language, and the proper method of spelling words.

LETTERS.

§ 9. A Letter is a character used to represent an articulate sound.

§ 10. An articulate sound is the sound of the human voice formed by the organs of speech.

§ 11. The sound of a letter is commonly called its power. When any letter or word is not sounded, it is said to be silent or mute.

§ 12. There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet. A knowledge of the alphabet consists in an acquaintance with the forms, names, classes, and powers of the letters.

§ 13. The letters of the alphabet are of various shapes and sizes, but are always the same, because their essential properties do not change. Their names, classes, and powers are mostly permanent.

The following are some of the different styles of letters :

1. The Roman: A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

2. The Italic: *A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.*

3. The Script: *A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.*

4. The Old English: A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The inquiry concerning the origin of letters has given rise to a variety of opinions, and many of them vague and unsatisfactory; for on this point the learned are by no means agreed. Some writers have attributed their invention to different people. Thoth, or Mercury, is said to have invented and taught the Egyptians how to use them. Others again give the honor of the invention to the Assyrians, Phœnicians, &c., &c. Some think they were perfectly known before the confusion of tongues, and imagine them to have been in common use in the antediluvian world, and that Noah and his family brought them into the new world, in which they have been continued through a great variety of successive changes, until the present time. Some attribute the invention to Moses, others to Abraham, others to Abel, and some to Adam. The Jewish rabbis say, "The Almighty formed them on the evening of the first Sabbath," and Pliny seems to have thought them eternal. These different opinions seem to show the uncertainty of the subject; there can be no limit to conjecture, when all direct evidence is wanting. That there were various symbols and figures used in all ages of the world to represent the objects of sense, even before a regular written language was necessary, may be readily believed; but we have no certain account of the existence or use of alphabetical characters previous to the day of Moses, nor of any thing written in such characters prior to the giving of the law on Mount Sinai, 2512 years from the foundation of the world, and 856 after the universal deluge. After the dispersion of mankind in the time of Peleg, writing became necessary, not only because of this dispersion, but because the life of man was so much abridged; consequently traditions must become less certain, as the facts had to be related to a multitude of persons; hence alphabetical characters became necessary, because without them the records of the world must soon have been obliterated from the swiftly succeeding generations of men. There is no positive evidence that there was any writing before the declaration of the law on Mount Sinai; and then the Almighty is said to have written the Decalogue with his own finger.

The Greek alphabet had its origin from the Phœnician. The Romans derived the most of their capitals from the Greeks, but the small letters, if they had any, were made by themselves. The Italic letters were invented towards the close of the fifteenth century. The Saxon alphabet was mostly Roman, nearly all their letters belonging to that class. Under William the Conqueror this was superseded by the Old English, which in its turn gave place to the Roman.

REMARK 2.—A letter consists not only in figure or power, but in their union. The name is necessary to distinguish it, and the power to determine the class to which it belongs.

REMARK 3.—The marks used for punctuation are not letters—they indicate silence, not sound. Numerals do not come under the class of letters, as they do not represent sounds, but entire words.

POWERS OF LETTERS.

§ 14. In the analysis of words it is necessary to distinguish between the name and power of letters.

§ 15. The elementary powers or sounds of the English language are about forty. They are divided into Vocals, Subvocal, and Aspirates.

§ 16. A Vocal consists of pure voice only; e. g., *A, e, o*.

§ 17. A Subvocal consists of the voice and breath united; e. g., *B, d, g*.

§ 18. Aspirates consist of pure breath only; e. g., *F, h, k*.

§ 19. Vocals are subdivided into *long* and *short*.

§ 20. A long sound is one that can be protracted at pleasure; e. g., *May* — *ay*; *bee* — *ee*.

§ 21. A short sound is one formed by the same position of the organs, but uttered with an explosive effort; e. g., *Hat*, *pen*, *pin*.

A TABLE OF THE ELEMENTARY SOUNDS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

VOCALS.	SUBVOCALS.	ASPIRATES.
A. <i>ale, able.</i>	B. <i>but, orb.</i>	F. <i>fix.</i>
A. <i>art.</i>	D. <i>do, ded.</i>	H. <i>hat.</i>
A. <i>all.</i>	G. <i>gone, dog.</i>	K. <i>keep, book.</i>
A. <i>at.</i>	J. <i>judge.</i>	P. <i>pen, top.</i>
E. <i>me.</i>	L. <i>lee.</i>	S. <i>sun.</i>
E. <i>met.</i>	M. <i>man.</i>	T. <i>top, but.</i>
I. <i>ire.</i>	N. <i>no.</i>	Th. <i>faith.</i>
I. <i>in.</i>	Ng. <i>ring.</i>	Sh. <i>show.</i>
O. <i>old.</i>	R. <i>rope, far.</i>	Ch. <i>chide.</i>
O. <i>more, ooze.</i>	Th. <i>this.</i>	Wh. <i>when.</i>
O. <i>odd.</i>	V. <i>van.</i>	
U. <i>tune, use.</i>	W. <i>we.</i>	
U. <i>up.</i>	Y. <i>yes.</i>	
U. <i>full.</i>	Z. <i>zinc.</i>	
Ou. <i>thou.</i>	Z. <i>azure.</i>	

REMARK.—The name of a vowel is always one of its powers (except *w* and *y*), and if from the name of the consonant we take away the vowel sound, what remains is generally the power of that consonant (*w* and *y* excepted).

§ 22. Certain letters in the English alphabet have the same power as others; such are styled *Equivalents*. Of the subvocal and aspirates eight pairs are Correlatives.

TABLE OF EQUIVALENTS AND CORRELATIVES.

EQUIVALENTS.		CORRELATIVES.	
		Subvocals.	Aspirates.
W	= u cow, mew.	V	vow.
Y	= i tyrant.	F	fame.
C (hard)	= k cat.	G	gone.
Q	= k liquor.	B	bat.
C (soft)	= s cent.	Z	zinc.
G (soft)	= j gin.	D	do.
X	= ks fix.	Th	this.
		Th	thick.
		Z	azure.
		Sh	show.
		J	judge.
		Ch	child.

DIVISION OF LETTERS.

§ 23. Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants.

§ 24. A Vowel represents a sound perfect without the aid of any other sound.

§ 25. A Consonant represents a sound made in conjunction with a vowel sound.

§ 26. The Vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and *w* and *y* when not before a vowel sounded in the same syllable.

§ 27. The Consonants are *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*, and *w* and *y* before a vowel sounded in the same syllable.

CLASSES OF CONSONANTS.

§ 28. Consonants are divided into Mutes and Semivowels.

REMARK.—The Semivowels have an imperfect sound by themselves, but the Mutes cannot be sounded alone.

§ 29. The Mutes are *b, p, d, t, k, v*, and *c* and *g* hard.

REMARK.—*C* is hard when it has the sound of *k* in *cat*, and soft when it is sounded as *s* in *city*. *G* is hard when it is sounded as *g* in *gun*, and soft when as in *gentle*.

§ 30. The Semivowels are *f, h, l, m, n, r, s, v, z*, and *c* and *g* soft.

§ 31. *X* is a double consonant, and is equivalent to *ks*.

§ 32. Four of the semivowels, *l, m, n*, and *r*, are called liquids on account of their smooth flowing sound.

DIPHTHONGS.

§ 33. Two vowels in immediate succession in the same syllable form a Diphthong; e. g., *Ou* in *found*.

§ 34. A Proper Diphthong is one in which both the vowels are sounded; e. g., *Oi* in *oil*.

§ 35. An Improper Diphthong is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; e. g., *Ea* in *beat*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The Diphthongs in English are twenty-nine: *aa, ae, ai, ao, au, aw, ay, —ea, ee, ei, eo, eu, ew, ey, —ia, ie, (ii) io, (iu, iw, iy) —oa, oe, oi, oo, ou, ow, oy, —ua, ue, ui, wo, (wu, ww) uy*. Ten of these are proper or improper, being variously sounded: *—ay, —ie, oi, ou, ow, —ua, ue, ui, wo, uy*.

REMARK 2.—The Proper Diphthongs are thirteen: *ay, —ia, ie, io, —oi, ou, oy, ow, —ua, ue, ui, wo, uy*.

REMARK 3.—The Improper Diphthongs are twenty-six: *aa, ae, ai, ao, au, ay, aw, —ea, ee, ei, eo, eu, ew, ey, —ie, —oa, oe, oi, oo, ou, ow, —ua, ue, u, w, uy*.

TRIPHTHONGS.

§ 36. Three vowels in the same syllable in immediate succession form a Triphthong; e. g., *Eau* in *beauty*.

§ 37. A Proper Triphthong is one in which all the vowels are sounded; e. g., *Uoy* in *buoy*.

§ 38. An Improper Triphthong is one in which all the vowels are not sounded; e. g., *Eau* in *beauty*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The only Proper Triphthong in English is *uoy*, as in *buoy*, *buoyant*, *buoyancy*; unless *uoi* in *quoit* may be considered a parallel.

REMARK 2.—The Improper Triphthongs are sixteen: *awe*, *aye*,—*eau*, *eou*, *ewe*, *eye*,—*ieu*, *iou*,—*oau*, *owe*,—*uai*, *uau*, *uay*, *uea*, *uee*.

COMBINATIONS.

§ 39. A Combination is the union of a consonant and vowel in one sound; e. g., *Ci* in *social*.

§ 40. The Combinations are *ee*, *ei*, *si*, *ti*, and *zi*, when they sound like *ch*, *sh*, or *zh*.

DOUBLE CONSONANTS.

§ 41. A Double Consonant is the union of two consonants in one sound; e. g., *Ch* in *church*.

§ 42. The Double Consonants are *ch*, *gh*, *ph*, *sh*, *th*, *uh*, and *ng*. *Nk* is equivalent to *ngk*; e. g., *Think*, *thank*.

APHTHONGS.

§ 43. An Aphthong is a letter or union of letters not sounded; e. g., *Ugh* in *though*.

SYLLABLES.

§ 44. A Syllable is a letter or combination of letters uttered together; e. g., *A*, *a-far*, *con-nect-ed*.

REMARK.—Every word contains as many syllables as it has distinct sounds; e. g., *A-e-ri-al*, *gram-ma-ri-an*.

§ 45. A word of one syllable is called a Monosyllable; e. g., *Boy*, *man*, *house*.

§ 46. A word of two syllables is called a Dissyllable; e. g., *A-far*, *con-nect*.

§ 47. A word of three syllables is called a Trissyllable; e. g., *Con-nect-ed*, *con-so-nant*.

§ 48. A word of more than three syllables is called a Polysyllable; e. g., *Un-con-nect-ed-ly*.

WORDS.

§ 49. Words are articulate sounds used by common consent as the signs of our ideas. In respect to origin, they are either Primitive, Derivative, Simple, or Compound.

§ 50. A Primitive Word is one that is not derived from any other word; e. g., *Boston*, *man*, *good*.

§ 51. A Derivative Word is one derived from some other word; e. g., *Bostonian*, *manful*, *goodness*.

§ 52. A Simple Word is one not compounded with any other word; e. g., *Horse*, *man*.

§ 53. A Compound Word is one compounded of two or more words; e. g., *Horse-man*.

ACCENT.

§ 54. Accent is a stress of voice placed upon a particular syllable to distinguish it from others. Every word of more than one syllable, has one of its syllables accented.

§ 55. Accent is of two kinds: Primary and Secondary.

§ 56. The Primary accent is a full stress of the voice; e. g., *Al'-so*, *de-ny'*.

§ 57. The Secondary accent is a weaker stress of the voice; e. g., *O''-ver-see'*, *lu'mi-na''ry*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—If the full accent falls on a vowel, the sound is prolonged; e. g., *Vo'-cal*. When it falls on a consonant the preceding vowel is shortened; e. g., *Hab'-it*.

REMARK 2.—In separating a word into its syllables, care should be taken to divide it as it is pronounced.

REMARK 3.—In writing a syllable, never divide it at the end of a line.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

§ 58. Derivation is forming words from their roots. This is done by the aid of prefixes and suffixes.

REMARK.—The Anglo-Saxon is the basis of the English language. It contains, however, many words from other languages.

§ 59. The Root is the essential part of a word. A prefix is a part of the derivation before the root.

REMARK.—A prefix often loses a letter, or changes it for the sake of euphony.

§ 60. Prefixes are mostly of Saxon, Latin, and Greek origin.

REMARK.—The roots to which they are prefixed are not always used as distinct words in the English language; the meaning of such may be determined by applying different prefixes. Thus in *impel*, *propel*, *dispel*, *ezipel*, it is easily seen that the word *pel* means to drive.

PREFIXES OF SAXON ORIGIN.

All.	Most; wholly; in the highest degree.
After.	Later; latter; following.
Be.	Nearness; adding intensity.
By.	Near; aside.

Fore.	Before; in front.
Out.	Beyond; excess.
Over.	Excess; above.
Up.	Rising; sustaining.
Under.	Below; beneath.
With.	Opposing; retaining.

PREFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

A, ab, abs.	From; away from.
Ad, ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at.	To; towards; closeness or union.
Ambi.	Both.
Amb, amphi.	Around, or to.
Ante.	Before.
Ant, anti.	Opposite; against.
Bene.	Good, or well.
Bi, bis.	Two.
Cis.	On this side.
Center, centi, cent.	A hundred.
Contra, contro, counter.	Against, opposition to.
Con, co, cog, com, col, cor.	With; joined with, or together.
Circum.	Around, about.
De.	From; depriving of; down.
Di, dis, dif.	Separating; out of; from.
Duo, du.	Two, double.
E, ex, ef, ec.	Out, out of, from, beyond.
Eu, em.	In, or upon.
Equi.	Equal.
Extra.	Beyond; more than; excess.
In, im, ig, il, ar.	Not; with <i>adj.</i> and <i>adv.</i> In; into; on; with <i>verbs.</i>

Inter.	Between; among.
Intro.	Within; into; unto.
Infra.	Under; below.
Juris.	Legal; lawful; right.
Juxta.	Near by; nearness.
Mis.	Wrong; erroneous.
Male, mal.	Ill, evil, bad.
Multi.	Many.
Manu.	A hand.
Non, ne, un.	{ Not; with <i>adj.</i> and <i>adv.</i> { Undoing; with <i>verbs.</i>
Noct.	Night.
Ob, oc, of, op.	{ In front; against; toward; in, or { on.
Omni, panto, pan.	All.
Pleni.	Full.
Preter.	Beyond; past; more than.
Post.	After.
Pro.	Before; forward; to surpass.
Per.	Through; by; very; over.
Primo, prim.	First; original.
Quad, tetra.	Four.
Re.	Again, back, return.
Retro.	Backward, back.
Se.	Separation, withdrawal.
Super, supra, sur.	Over and above; beyond.
Sex.	Six.
Soli, moni.	One; alone.
Semi, demi, hemi.	Half.
Sub, subter, sul, suf, sug, sup, sus.	{ Under, below, after.
Sine.	Without.

Trans, ultra.	Across, beyond, change.
Tri.	Three.
Uni.	One.

PREFIXES OF GREEK ORIGIN.

A.	Privation, destitute of, without.
Ana.	Again, against, back.
Arch (arche).	Chief; beginning.
Astro (astron).	A star.
Auto (autos).	One's self.
Apo, aph.	From.
Aristo (aristos).	The best, <i>viz.</i> , noble, or nobles.
Bio (bios).	Life.
Biblio (biblion).	A book.
Cata.	Against; down.
Choro (choros).	A place, or country.
Chiro (cheir).	A hand.
Chrono (chronos).	Time.
Cosmo (cosmos).	The world.
Dia.	Through.
Dys.	Bad; difficult.
Deca, dec (deka).	Ten.
Eu.	Good; well; praise.
Epi.	In; on; upon.
Entomo (entoma).	An insect.
Geo (ge).	The earth.
Homo (homos).	Like; similar.
Hetero (heteros).	Unlike; dissimilar.
Hepta (Latin septem).	Seven.
Helio (helios).	The sun.
Hydro (hudor).	Water.
Hyper (huper).	Over, excess, beyond.

Hypo (hupo).	Under.
Ichthys (ichthus).	A fish.
Lexico (lexikon).	A dictionary.
Litho (lithos).	A stone.
Meta.	Change, beyond.
Mytho (muthos).	A fable.
Miso; mis (misos).	Hatred.
Osteo (osteon).	A bone.
Ortho (orthos).	Right; correct.
Ornitho (ornithos).	A bird; a fowl.
Octo, octa, oct (okto).	Eight.
Para.	Contrary, beyond.
Proto (protos).	First, chief.
Penta (pente).	Five.
Physico, physis (phusis).	Nature; natural.
Pyro (pur).	Fire.
Poly (polas).	Many.
Philo, phil (philos).	Friend; love, lover.
Peri.	Around; near.
Syn, syl, sym, sy (sun).	With; together with.
Steno (stenos).	Narrow; brief; short.
Stereo (stereos).	Solid; firm.
Topo (topos).	A place.
Theo (theos).	God.
Typo (tupos).	Type.
Zoō (zóon).	An animal; a beast.

SUFFIXES.

§ 61. A Suffix is the part of a derivative after the root. In adding suffixes, the final letter of the root is often *doubled*, *dropped*, or *changed*. Such changes are made according to the following rules:

RULE I. Verbs of one syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, and verbs of more than one syllable ending in the same manner, and accented on the last syllable, double the final consonant on receiving an additional syllable; e. g., Regret, *regretted*; dig, *digging*.

REMARK.—Most words ending in *l*, though not accented on the syllable, double the *l* on receiving an additional syllable; e. g., Travel, *travelled*; model, *modelled*.

RULE II. In words ending in *y*, preceded by a single consonant, the *y* is changed into *i* before an additional syllable; e. g., Merry, *merrier*; pity, *pitied*.

EXCEPTIONS.—Before *ing*, *y* is retained to prevent the doubling of *i*; e. g., Marty, *marrying*. Words in *ie* drop *e* and take *y*; e. g., Die, *dying*. To prevent ambiguity, the verb *to dye*, and some others, retain *e* before *ing*.

RULE III. Words ending in silent *e* before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel, generally omit the *e*; e. g., Force, *forcible*; rave, *raving*.

EXCEPTION 1.—Words ending in *a* or *ge* retain the *a* before *able*, *ous*; e. g., Peace, *peaceable*; outrage, *outrageous*.

EXCEPTION 2.—Words ending in *oe* retain the final *e*; e. g., Shoe, *shoeing*.

EXCEPTION 3.—Words ending in *ee* drop the final *e* on receiving an additional syllable beginning with *e*; e. g., See, *seest*; agree, *agreed*.

RULE IV. Double *l* generally becomes single before an additional consonant; e. g., Skill, *skilful*.

REMARK.—Words in any other double letter preserve it double before the terminations *ful*, *ly*, *ness*, *less*.

RULE V. Compound words formed by prefixing a word or syllable to a monosyllable ending in *all*, retain the *ll*; e. g., *Befall*, *bethrall*.

REMARK.—*Withal*, *therewithal*, and *wherewithal* are exceptions to this rule.

SYNOPSIS OF THE SUFFIXES.

Able, ible.	{ That may be; can be; capable of being.
Ability, ibility.	{ The property, or quality capable of being; the state, or susceptibility of being.
Ableness, ibleness.	
Ant, ent.	The person who, or thing which.
Ance, ancy, ion, ence, ency, ment.	{ The act of; the state; the state of being, or the thing.
Ac, ic, al, ary.	{ Pertaining to; belonging to; relating to; consisting of.
Dom, ric.	Jurisdiction; possession.
En.	Made of; consisting of.
Ful, ose.	Full of; abounding with.
Hood, ship.	State, office, quality.
Ize, fy, fit, fic, ferous.	To make or become.
Ity, cy.	The state of being; quality; power.
Ish, ly.	Like; similar to; somewhat.
Ive.	Tending to; relating to; power of.
Ics, ism.	The science; art of; doctrine; state.
Ile.	Pertaining to; easily.
Less.	Without; destitute of.
Ness.	The abstract quality or state.
Ous.	Containing; partaking of; full of.
Ory.	Containing; tending to; place.
Ast, er, ess, ee, err, ian, ist, ite, ix, or res, san, zen.	{ Commonly imply the person or thing.
Some.	
Ar, ard, ado, ster, oso, ati.	{ Sometimes denote a person.
Kin, et, ling, let, ulc.	

GRAMMATICAL SUFFIXES.

S, es.	More than one; e. g., <i>Boys, foxes.</i>
Er.	More; e. g., <i>Wiser.</i>
Est.	Most; e. g., <i>Wisest.</i>
S, es.	Does; e. g., <i>Kills.</i>
Est.	Dost; e. g., <i>Wishest.</i>
Ed.	Did; e. g., <i>Killed.</i>
Ing.	Continuing to; e. g., <i>Acting.</i>

REMARKS.—The prefixes and suffixes of our language are less than 200, and nearly uniform in their signification. These being thoroughly learned, our vocabulary, consisting of over 100,000 words, is compressed within the limits of about 10,000 roots or primitives. These include the *Saxon, Gothic, Celtic, Latin, Greek,* and other radicals of the language. More than 30,000 English words derived from Latin and Greek are formed or built up, by means of these prefixes and suffixes, from less than 2000 radical words; 13,000 of them from about 200; and 2,400 from only 12 roots. The root *facio* (to make or do) enters into more than 500 English words, upon which it impresses literally its own signification. These facts, and the ease with which the prefixes and suffixes can be mastered, are sufficient to induce the pupil to commit them thoroughly. This being done, and knowing that *tract*, from the Latin *traho*, means to draw, the pupil at once knows the meaning of 210, as they occur, formed from this root. Thus *abstract*, to draw from; *extract*, to draw out; *attract*, to draw to; *contract*, to draw together; *retract*, to draw back; *subtract*, to draw under or from; *distract*, to draw asunder, &c., &c.

CAPITALS.

§ 62. Formerly every noun began with a capital letter, both in writing and printing. At present only the following words begin with capitals.

1.—The first word of every distinct sentence; e. g., "*Falsehood is a most odious vice.*"

2.—Proper names and titles of honor or office should begin with a capital; e. g., *Miss J. W. Nixon*; *Gen. G. W. Gunn*; *Doct. F. M. Peterson*.

3.—Adjectives derived from proper names; e. g., *American*; *Washingtonian*.

4.—All names of Deity; e. g., *God*; *Jehovah*; the *Almighty*; the *Supreme*.

5.—The name of an object personified, when it conveys an idea strictly individual; e. g., "Come, gentle *Spring*."

6.—The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital; e. g.,

"A mother is a mother still,
The holiest thing alive."—*Coleridge*.

7.—The first word of a direct quotation, when it forms a complete sentence; e. g., Virgil says, "*Labor conquers all things*."

8.—The pronoun *I* and exclamation *O*; e. g., "*I wish to go*;" "*O, blissful days!*"

9.—Every noun and principal word in the title of books; e. g., "*Pope's Essay on Man*."

10.—Other principal words, when they are of particular importance, may begin with capitals.

ORTHOËPY.

§ 63. Orthoëpy treats of the right pronunciation of words.

REMARK.—Pronunciation is best taught by means of a good spelling-book where the words are arranged according to their analogies, and divided according to their proper sounds. Vocabularies, Dictionaries, and Glossaries are serviceable only to the more advanced. Walker's Rules for Pronunciation are probably the clearest and best guide before the

public. Mulky's System may be consulted in connection with Walker. Other writers might be named, but of all, Walker is the best.

QUESTIONS.

What is Grammar?
How is it divided?
What is Practical Grammar? Theoretical?
What is Language? How divided?
What is spoken language? Written?
What does English Grammar teach?
To what do they relate?
What is the First Part called?
The Second? The Third? Fourth? Fifth?
What does Orthography treat of?
What is a letter? ———an articulate sound?
What is the sound of a letter called?
When a letter is not sounded, what is it called?
How many letters in the Alphabet?
What is said of the shapes and sizes?
Mention some of the different styles.
What is necessary in the analysis of words?
How many elementary sounds or powers?
How are they divided?
What is a Vocal? Subvocal? Aspirate?
How are Vocals subdivided?
What is a long sound? Short?
How are letters divided?
What does a Vowel represent?
A Consonant?
How are the Consonants divided?
What is a Mute? Semicvowel?
What are the Liquids?

- What is a Diphthong?
 A Proper Diphthong? Improper?
 What is a Triphthong? Proper? Improper?
 What is a Combination?
 What are they?
 What is a Double-Consonant? Aphthong?
 What is a Syllable?
 What are words of one Syllable called?
 Two Syllables? Three? More than three?
 What are Words?
 How divided? What is a Primitive word?
 Derivative? Simple? Compound?
 What is Accent?
 How many kinds are there?
 Explain the Primary. Secondary.
 What is meant by Derivation of Words?
 What is the Root? Prefix?
 What is said of their origin?
 What is Rule I.? II.? &c.
 What is said of the use of Capitals?
 What does Orthoëpy treat of?

ETYMOLOGY.

§ 64. Etymology treats of the different classes of words, and their various modifications.

FORM OF WORDS.

§ 65. In respect to form, words are either Declinable or Indeclinable.

§ 66. A Declinable word is one that undergoes certain changes of form or termination to express its various relations; e. g., *Man, men; love, loves, loved.*

§ 67. An Indeclinable word undergoes no changes of form.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

§ 68. Words are divided according to their use, into eight different classes; viz.: Noun, Verb, Adjective, Pronoun, Adverb, Conjunction, and Exclamation.

REMARK.—Words are divided naturally into two classes; Primary and Secondary. Primary words consist of such as are essential to language, on which others depend as auxiliaries. This class includes the Noun and Verb. Secondary words are such as are dependent on others in construction. This class includes Adjectives, Pronouns, Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions. Exclamations have no grammatical relation to other words.

§ 69. From words are formed Propositions; e. g., "*Girls sing;*" "*boys play.*"

REMARK.—Any combination of words expressing an assertion, question, command, &c.,—or in general, any combination that expresses complete sense is called a proposition.

§ 70. In the construction of propositions, the Noun and Verb are indispensable. All other words, with the exception of the Exclamation, are either appendages or connectives.

§ 71. Every proposition, however simple, consists of two parts; the Subject, or thing spoken

of; and the Predicate, or that which is affirmed of the subject; e. g., "*John reads*;" "*William recited*."

§ 72. The analysis of a proposition consists in separating it into its elements.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Subject and Predicate in the following propositions;—tell how you know them.

MODEL.—"*John reads*," is a proposition, because it contains a subject and predicate. "*John*" is the subject, because it is that of which the proposition speaks. "*Studies*" is the predicate, because it expresses what is affirmed of the subject "*John*."

Horses run. Animals live. Thomas sleeps. Rain falls. Men work. Death comes. Cows low. Dogs bark. Horses neigh. William walks. Susan dances. Stars shine. Birds sing. Lambs skip. Edward has fallen. Lucy will play. William will write. Robert has come. The girls have recited. The ocean roars. Difficulties vanish. Marion conquered. Mother reproves. The bell has rung. Beauty fades. The ball bounds. Powder explodes. Birds fly. Fish swim. Memory decays. The day dawns. Cotton grows. The teacher calls. The slate is broken. Jane is an indolent girl. Martha is meddlesome. The fox is cunning. The lion is bold.

☞ These exercises should be continued until the learner clearly comprehends what constitutes a proposition, and is able to distinguish the terms that form its essential parts. Impress it on the pupil that nothing is more conducive to a correct knowledge of grammar than analysis. This understood, he will be able to pursue his course with pleasure and profit.

Of what must every proposition consist?
What is the analysis of a proposition?
What is a Noun? Verb? Adjective?
Pronoun? Preposition? Conjunction?
Exclamation?

NOUNS.

§ 81. A Noun is the name of an object; e. g., *Alfred*; *Charleston*, *pencil*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—A noun is the name of an object. This definition is equally true, whether the object has a real existence; e. g., *Alfred*, *Charleston*, *pencil*, or is the name of an object that has no real existence independent of it, as *whiteness*, *virtue*, *wisdom*.

REMARK 2.—All words and signs taken technically are nouns, for in such cases they assume the character of nouns, and must be regarded as such; e. g., *I* and *J* were formerly expressed by the same character, as were *U* and *V*. *Us* is a personal pronoun. There are eight *ands* in this sentence. *Good* is an adjective. *+* is the sign of addition.

REMARK 3.—The word object in the definition of a noun, must be carefully distinguished from the same term used in *Syntax* to denote the complement of a transitive verb.

REMARK 4.—When a phrase or clause of a sentence is used to denote an object, it becomes a noun; e. g., *To see the sun* is pleasant.

REMARK 5.—The noun is frequently called a substantive. All phrases or clauses used as nouns, are called substantive clauses.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

§ 82. Nouns are divided into two classes, Proper and Common.

§ 83. A Proper Noun is the name of an individual object; e. g., *George, Marion, Vesuvius*.

§ 84. A Common Noun is a name applied to all objects of the same class; e. g., *Boy, hand, mountain*.

§ 85. A Collective Noun, or Noun of Multitude, is the name of many individuals together; e. g., *Army, school, committee*.

§ 86. An Abstract Noun is the name of a particular quality considered apart from its substance; e. g., *Piety, virtue, goodness*.

§ 87. A Verbal Noun is the name of some action, or state of being; e. g., *Reading, writing, sleeping*.

§ 88. A Diminutive Noun is a name derived from another expressing some diminution of the original; e. g., *Stream, streamlet; leaf, leaflet*.

§ 89. A Proper Noun with the definition *a* or *the* before it, is used as a common noun; e. g., He was the *Washington* of his age.

§ 90. A Common Noun when personified becomes proper; e. g., *Hail, Liberty*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Whiteness, goodness, haste, confusion, action, existence, &c., are called abstract nouns, because they are the names of qualities abstracted, or considered apart from the objects to which they belong. Thus, honesty does not really exist without being connected with some individual, but the mind abstracts it from individuals and considers it as an object existing by itself; e. g., *Honesty* is the best policy.

REMARK 2.—The names of metals, grain, &c., as iron, gold, wheat, snow, fire, do not denote classes of objects, but the substance of which they are composed. Like abstract nouns they have no plural, and do not admit of *a, an, or one* before them.

§ 91. To Nouns belong Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Nouns in the following exercises; tell why they are nouns;—Proper, or Common, and why.

MODEL.—“The horse runs swiftly.” “*Horse*” is a noun because it is a name;—Common, because it is a name applied to all objects of the same class.

“Henry hurt his hand.” “*Henry*” is a noun, because it is a name;—Proper, because it is the name of an individual object.

Washington was the first president. Montgomery is the capital of Alabama. Wisdom is more precious than jewels. Alfred has a little dog called Fido. The battle of Waterloo occurred in June. Proper names should begin with capitals. Walnuts have hard shells, but sweet kernels. The fixed stars are supposed to be suns in other planetary systems. Abridgements of history in most respects are useless. To reason with the angry, is like whispering to the deep. Father went to Mobile in a steamboat. The words commonly called articles are classed with adjectives. Whiteness is the name of a quality. Etymology treats of the classification of words. Neglect no opportunity to do good. In the winter water freezes. Hardness is natural to rocks. The hurricane destroyed the building. Coffee is spelled with two fs and two es.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences, each containing an example of a Proper Noun. Five containing a Common Noun. Five containing a Collective Noun or Noun of Multitude. Five containing an Abstract Noun. Five containing a Verbal Noun. Five con-

taining a Diminutive Noun. Five containing a Proper Noun used as a Common Noun. Five containing an example of an object personified.

GENDER.

§ 92. Gender is the distinction of Nouns with regard to sex.

§ 93. There are three Genders; the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter.

§ 94. The Masculine Gender denotes the male sex; e. g., *Man, boy, son.*

§ 95. The Feminine Gender denotes the female sex; e. g., *Woman, girl, daughter.*

§ 96. The Neuter Gender denotes objects that are neither male nor female; e. g., *Chair, house, garden.*

§ 97. Animals whose sex is unknown, or unnecessary to be distinguished, are spoken of generally as Neuter; e. g., "James shot at the *deer*, and missed *it*."

§ 98. On the same principle we say of the child, *it* is sick.

§ 99. Some nouns, naturally Neuter, by figure of speech become Masculine or Feminine; e. g., The Sun, *he* is setting; the Moon, *she* is eclipsed.

§ 100. Things that are strong and controlling, are commonly spoken of as Masculine;—beautiful and dependent, Feminine.

§ 101. A collective noun implying unity, or having the plural form, is Neuter; but if it refers to the individuals named,

its gender corresponds; e. g., "The jury could not agree upon *their* verdict."

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Nouns in English, according to the universal rule, have three genders; but unlike most other languages, ancient or modern, the larger part of the words of this description belong to the neuter gender; for none are considered as masculine or feminine without an actual distinction of sex, unless in poetry, or in a very few instances of technical phrases. Even a ship, which is constantly spoken of by seamen as feminine, is neuter in common parlance. From this general rule, however, we must except the Deity, God, and other terms of the same signification, which are constantly masculine. Other nouns, as those of the planets, admit of being made masculine or feminine, because they are named after heathen divinities, as *Jupiter, Juno*; or after distinguished men, *Herschel*. In the case of the *sun* and *moon*, the English differs from its parent language; for the *sun* is feminine, and the *moon* masculine in the German dialects in general, whereas the English in this follows the Greek and Latin, and reverses the gender. In more ornate composition the virtues and the vices are also made masculine and feminine. In some cases nouns may be considered as of either gender; as *fox, goat, &c.*; but animals more commonly spoken of, have different terms for the sexes; as *lion, lioness; stag, hind.*

REMARK 2.—The term "Common Gender," applied to such words as *parent, cousin, friend, &c.*, is incorrect and unnecessary. When the gender of such words can not be determined by the context, in parsing, say gender unknown. This is better than an unphilosophical distinction.

There are three ways of distinguishing sex.

1. By the different words; e. g.,

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Bachelor,	Maid.	Brother,	Sister.
Beau,	Belle.	Husband,	Wife.
Boar,	Sow.	King,	Queen.
Boy,	Girl.	Lad,	Lass.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Buck,	Doe.	Lord,	Lady.
Bullock, } Steer, }	Heifer.	Man,	Woman.
Dog,	Bitch.	Milter,	Spawner.
Drake,	Duck.	Nephew,	Niece.
Earl,	Countess.	Ram,	Ewe.
Father,	Mother.	Master,	Mistress.
Friar,	Nun.	Singer,	{ Singer, <i>or</i> Songstress.
Gander,	Goose.	Sir,	Madam.
Hart,	Roe.	Son,	Daughter.
Horse,	Mare.	Sloven,	Slut.
Cock,	Hen.	Uncle,	Aunt.
Stag,	Hind.	Wizard,	Witch.

2. By the different termination ; e. g.,

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Abbot,	Abbess.	Elector,	Electress.
Actor,	Actress.	Emperor,	Empress.
Administrator,	Administratrix.	God,	Goddess.
Adulterer,	Adulteress.	Governor,	Governess.
Author,	Authoress.	Heir,	Heiress.
Baron,	Baroness.	Hero,	Heroine.
Canon,	Canoness.	Host,	Hostess.
Cater,	Cateress.	Hunter,	Huntress.
Chanter,	Chantress.	Inheritor,	{ Inheritrix, <i>or</i> Inheritress.
Conductor,	Conductress.	Jew,	Jewess.
Count,	Countess.	Landgrave,	Landgravine.
Czar,	Czarina.	Lion,	Lioness.
Deacon,	Deaconess.	Marquis,	Marchioness.
Detractor,	Detractress.	Mayor,	Mayoress.
Duke,	Duchess.		

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Patron,	Patroness.	Suitor,	Suitress.
Peer,	Peeress.	Tiger,	Tigress.
Poet,	Poetess.	Testator,	Testatrix.
Priest,	Priestess.	Traitor,	Traitress.
Prince,	Princess.	Tyrant,	Tyranness.
Prophet,	Prophetess.	Tutor,	Tutoress.
Shepherd,	Shepherdess.	Victor,	Victress.
Songster,	Songstress.	Viscount,	Viscountess.
Sorcerer,	Sorceress.	Votary,	Votress.
Sultan,	{ Sultana <i>or</i> Sultanness.	Widower,	Widow.

3. By a Noun, Pronoun, or Adjective, prefixed to the Noun ; e. g.,

Masculine.	Feminine.
A cock sparrow.	A hen sparrow.
A he bear.	A she bear.
A he goat.	A she goat.
A male child.	A female child.
A male servant.	A female servant.
Male descendants.	Female descendants.
Man-servant.	Maid-servant.

EXERCISES.

Tell the Masculine of the Feminine Nouns, and the Feminine of the Masculine.

MODEL.—Man, *Woman*; Belle, *Beau*.

Man, bachelor, host, man servant, beau, abbot, baron, drake, boy, deacon, doe, conductor, father, emperor, sister, duke, ambassador, countess, mother, friar, goose, girl, husband, queen, lass, lady, dam, master, spawner, ram, wizard, hind, nephew, songster, votary, traitress, madam, poetess, uncle, daughter, abbess, bride, earl, enchantress, Czarina, lion, em

press, executor, testator, goddess, governess, heroine, huntress, Jewess, traitor, hen sparrow, inheritrix, lioness, instructor, marchioness, songster, Sultana, landgravine, shepherdess, prophethess, prince, testatrix, tigress, traitor, tyranness, victor, votary, viscountess, gander, widower, she-bear, deaconess, male child, man servant.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a noun of the Masculine Gender. Five containing an example of a noun of the Feminine Gender. Five containing an example of a noun of the Neuter Gender. Five containing a neuter noun changed to the Masculine or Feminine by personification.

PERSON.

§ 102. Person is that property of the noun (or pronoun) which distinguishes the speaker, hearer, and person or thing spoken of.

§ 103. There are three Persons; the First, the Second, and the Third.

§ 104. The First Person denotes the speaker; e. g., "I, *George Washington*, &c."

§ 105. The Second Person denotes the individual addressed; e. g., "*Theodore*, give me my knife."

§ 106. The Third Person denotes the individual or thing spoken of; e. g., "*Mary* left her book at home."

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Nouns in the first or second person are never used as the subject, or object of a verb, but may be put in apposition with others for the purpose of explanation; e. g., "I, *Paul*, beseech you."

REMARK 2.—The names of inanimate objects are in the second person, when the objects to which they apply are spoken to. Objects thus addressed are personified, and treated as though they were actual hearers. e. g., "And I have loved *thee*, Ocean."

EXERCISES.

Tell the person of the nouns in the following exercises;—give the reason.

MODEL.—"I, *George Washington*," &c. "*George Washington*" is of the First Person, because the speaker and Washington are one.

"*Thomas*, bring me your book."—"Thomas" is of the Second Person, because it denotes the individual addressed.

"William is an attentive pupil." "*William*" is of the Third Person, because it denotes, &c.

Americans should love their country. I, Paul, an apostle of Jesus Christ. John, I want your attention. Susan can write better than her sister. That man is so illiterate, he cannot read. Father, I must have a new book. Henry had many opportunities to learn, but did not improve them. We, the citizens of Montgomery. Matilda, does Alfred study at home? Doctor Murray is an interesting speaker. Mason, the swindler, is at large. Miss M. Eddings was chosen queen of May. The prize essay was written by Thomas. I, Victoria, Queen of England. James, bring me your Virgil. The officer was wounded at Charleston. Men often differ in opinion, even about small things. Boys, you are dismissed. Sister is fond of drawing and painting. Thomas conducted himself very properly.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a noun of the First Person. Five of the Second. Five of the Third.

NUMBER.

§ 107. Number is the distinction of one from more than one.

REMARK.—The distinction of Numbers serves only to show whether we speak of one object or more than one. In some languages, as the Greek and Arabic, there is a dual number which denotes two or a pair; but in ours this property of words, or class of modifications, extends no farther than to distinguish unity from plurality, and plurality from unity. It belongs to nouns and pronouns and finite verbs, and is always applied to them, either by some peculiarity of form, or inference from the principles of concord.

§ 108. Nouns have two numbers; the Singular and the Plural.

§ 109. The Singular Number denotes but one object; e. g., *Man, boy, girl*.

§ 110. The Plural Number denotes more objects than one; e. g., *Men, boys, girls*.

EXERCISES.

Tell the Number of the following nouns.

MODEL.—“*Hut*” is of the Singular Number, because it denotes but one object.

“*Brutes*” is of the Plural Number, because it denotes more objects than one.

Books, horse, nose, hat, inkstand, boy, map, pencil, paper, mother, table, hand, geography, men, boys, cap, mouth, ship,

academy, institute, curls, day, lamp, window, blinds, brother, cousin, pitcher, carpet, rug, mat, books, watch, pencil, friends, infant, chairs, lady, song, mountain, goblet, floor, telescope, andirons, stand, keys.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

§ 111. The Plural Number of Nouns is regularly formed by adding *s* to the Singular; e. g., Boy, *boys*; girl, *girls*.

§ 112. Nouns in *s*, *sh*, *ch* soft, *z*, *x*, or *o*, form the Plural by adding *es*; e. g., Miss, *misses*; brush, *brushes*; match, *matches*; topaz, *topazes*; fox, *foxes*; hero, *heroes*.

EXCEPTIONS.—Nouns in *eo*, *io*, and *yo* have *s* only; e. g., Cameo, *cameos*; folio, *folios*; embryo, *embryos*. So also *canto*, *grotto*, *portico*, *solo*, *halo*, *quarto*, formerly had *s* only in the plural, but now more commonly *es*. Nouns in *ch* sounding *k*, add only *s*; e. g., Monarch, *monarchs*.

§ 113. Nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form the Plural by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves*; e. g., Loaf, *loaves*; wife, *wives*.

EXCEPTIONS.—Dwarf, scarf, reef, brief, chief, grief, handkerchief, mischief, gulf, turf, surf, safe, life, strife, proof, hoof, reproof, follow the general rule. Also nouns in *ff* have their plural in *s*; e. g., muff, *muffs*; except staff, plural *staves*; but its compounds are regular; e. g., flagstaff, *flagstaves*; wharf has either *wharfs* or *wharves*.

§ 114. Nouns ending in *y* after a consonant form the Plural by changing *y* into *ies*; e. g., Beauty, *beauties*. Nouns in *y* after a vowel, follow the general rule; e. g., Day, *days*; toy, *toys*.

NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.

§ 115. Some nouns are irregular in the formation of their plural; such as—

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Man,	men.	Tooth,	teeth.
Woman,	women.	Goose,	geese.
Child,	children.	Mouse,	mice.
Foot,	feet.	Louse,	lice.
Ox,	oxen.	Cow, formerly	kine,
		but now regular,	cows.

§ 116. Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular form of the plural, but with different significations; as—

Singular.		Plural.
Brother	(one of the same family)	brothers.
Brother	(one of the same society)	brethren.
Die	(a stamp for coining)	dies.
Die	(a small cube for gaming)	dice.
Genius	(men of genius)	geniuses.
Genius	(a kind of spirit)	genii.
Index	(a table of referer. <i>c</i>)	indexes.
Index	(a sign in algebra)	indices.
Pea	(as a distinct seed)	peas.
Pea	(as a species of grain)	pease.
Sow	(an individual animal)	sows.
Sow or swine	(the species)	swine.
Penny	(a coin——)	pennies.
Penny	(a sum or value)	pence.

REMARK.—Though pence is plural, yet such expressions as four-pence, six-pence, as the name of a sum, are regarded singular, and have a plural; e. g., "Two six-pences make a shilling."

§ 117. Compounds, consisting of two or more words connected by a hyphen, are composed, either of two Nouns, one in

the sense of an Adjective, or a Noun and an Adjective. In such words, the sign of the Plural is added to that part of the compound which constitutes the Noun, whether at the end of the word or not; e. g.,

Singular.	Plural.
Aid-de-camp,	aids-de-camp.
Father-in-law,	fathers-in-law.
Commander-in-chief,	commanders-in-chief.

NOTE.—Compounds ending in *ful* or *full* form the plural regularly; e. g., spoon-ful, *spoon-fuls*; cup-full, *cup-fulls*.

§ 118. Words adopted without change from foreign languages, generally retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in *um* or *on*, have *a* in the plural. Latin nouns in *is*, in the plural change *is* into *es*; Greek nouns in *is*, change *is* into *ides*; Latin nouns in *a*, change *a* into *æ*; but Greek nouns change *a* into *ata* in the plural. The following are the most common, some of which, however, from common use, have become so much a part of the language as to have also the regular *English* form of the plural. In the following table these are indicated by the letter R.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Alumnus,	alumni.	Bandit,	banditti.
Alumna,	alumnae.	Basis,	bases.
Amanuensis,	amanuenses.	Beau,	beaux, R.
Analysis,	analyses.	Calx,	calces, R.
Animalculum,	animalcula, R.	Cherub,	cherubim, R.
Antithesis,	antitheses.	Chrysalis,	chrysalides.
Apex,	apices, R.	Crisis,	crises.
Appendix,	appendices, R.	Criterion,	criteria.
Arcanum,	arcana.	Datum,	data.
Automaton,	automata, R.	Desideratum,	desiderata.
Axis,	axes.	Diæresis,	diæreses.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Effluvium,	effluvia.	Metamorphosis,	metamorphoses.
Ellipsis,	ellipses.	Miasma,	miasmata.
Emphasis,	emphases.	Momentum,	momenta, R.
Encomium,	encomia, R.	Monsieur,	messieurs.
Ephemeris,	ephemerides.	Mr. (master),	messrs.(masters)
Erratum,	errata.	Nebula,	nebulae.
Focus,	foci.	Oasis,	oases.
Formula,	formulae, R.	Parenthesis,	parentheses.
Fungus,	fungi, funguses.	Phenomenon,	phenomena.
Genius,	genii.	Radius,	radii.
Genus,	genera.	Scholium,	scholia, R.
Gymnasium,	gymnasia, R.	Seraph,	seraphim, R.
Hypothesis,	hypotheses.	Speculum,	specula.
Ignis fatuus,	ignes fatui.	Stamen,	stamina, R.
Index(a pointer)indexes.		Stimulus,	stimuli.
Index(in algeb.)indices.		Stratum,	strata.
Lamina,	laminæ.	Thesis,	theses.
Larva,	larvæ.	Vertebra,	vertebræ.
Magus,	magi.	Vertex,	vertices, R.
Medium,	media, R.	Virtuoso,	virtuosi.
Memorandum	memoranda, R.	Vortex,	vortices, R.

§ 119. The names of metals, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, abstract qualities, and things that are either weighed or measured, are used only in the Singular; e. g., *Gold, industry, sculpture.*

§ 120. The names of things weighed or measured, admit of a Plural, when several kinds of the same sort are referred to; e. g., *Wheats, teas.*

§ 121. Some nouns are used only in the Plural; e. g., *Antipodes, annals, ashes, archives, assets, clothes, measles, oats, wages, tidings, billows, tongs, &c.*

§ 122. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; e. g., *Deer, sheep, swine, trout, apparatus, salmon, cannon, series, means, species, &c.*

§ 123. Some nouns are Plural in form, but either Singular or Plural in meaning; e. g., *Amends, means, news, riches, ethics, conics, optics, mathematics, &c.*

REMARK.—*Means* and *amends* are Singular when they refer to one object, but Plural when more than one.

PLURAL OF PROPER NAMES.

§ 124. In addressing letters to several of the same name, the title is generally pluralized; e. g., *The Misses Bell*; the *Messrs. Kerr*; or before different names; e. g., *Messrs. Smith, Son, & Co.* But in colloquial style, the *name* is usually pluralized; e. g., *The Miss Bells*; the two *Mr. Kings*; unless before different names; e. g., *Misses Anna and Julia King*; *Messrs. Snow & Rice*; *Messrs. Pratt & Co.*

 The *name* and *title* both never take the plural form.

EXERCISES.

Write the Plural of the following Nouns:

Girl, pen, table, tax, fish, chain, king, man, ring, body, leaf, mill, fox, ox, garden, fly, knife, city, fork, play, day, calf, lamp, cherry, woe, army, coach, child, hero, berry, peach, wolf, volcano, lash, thief, branch, hill, sister, duty, penny, foot, inch, queen, dish, witch, buffalo, wish, copy, brush, glass, cargo, sheaf, sky, river, miss, witness, thrush, boy, monarch, toy, sheep, sex, beauty, potato, lass, echo, chimney, journey, book, valley, mouse, arcanum, court-martial, eclipse, automaton, axis, basis, crisis, criterion, effluvium, datum, diæresis, hypothesis, focus, erratum, genius, medium, lamina, parenthesis, radius,

phenomenon, stamen, sloth, stimulus, stratum, virtuoso, means, apparatus, species, series, gold, foot, tooth, pride, ambition, trout, mathematics, cannon.

Write the Singular of the following Plurals:

Brothers, children, wives, reproofs, tongs, criteria, crises, errata, sheep, ethics, courts-martial, cherubim, effluvia, riches, desiderata, species, scissors, lungs, ashes, optics, mathematics, teeth, thrushes, animalcula, apices, dice, boys, mice, vortices, theses, strata, stamina, seraphim, parentheses, memoranda, antipodes, arcana, alumni, foci, laminæ, encomia.

QUESTIONS.

What is a Noun?
 How are they divided?
 What is a Proper Noun? Common?
 Collective? Abstract? Verbal?
 Diminutive?
 What is Gender?
 How many Genders are there?
 What does the Masculine denote?
 The Feminine? Neuter?
 What is said of the gender of animals whose sex is unknown?
 What is the gender of Child frequently?
 What is said of Neuter Nouns?
 What of the gender of some Nouns?
 Of Common Gender?
 How many ways are there of distinguishing sex?
 What is the First? The Second? Third?
 What is Person?
 How many persons are there?
 What does the First Person denote?

The Second? The Third?
 What is meant by Number?
 How many numbers are there?
 What does the Singular denote?
 The Plural?
 What Nouns are Plural in form and Singular or Plural in construction?
 When do Proper Names take the Plural form?
 What is said of the title Miss?

C A S E .

§ 125. Case is the relation of the noun (or pronoun) to other words in a sentence.

EXPLANATION.—A Sentence is an assemblage of words so arranged as to constitute a distinct proposition; e. g., "*Horses run.*"

§ 126. There are three Cases; the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Case, in grammar, is founded on the different relations under which things are represented in discourse, and from which words acquire connexions and dependencies according to the sense. In Latin there are six cases, in Greek five; the nouns and pronouns of these languages, and also adjectives and participles, are varied by terminations unknown in our language. In English, cases belong to nouns and pronouns, and are never more than three.

REMARK 2.—It was a subject of long dispute among grammarians what number of cases belonged properly to our language. Some, taking the Latin for their model, contended for six cases, others again denied that there were more than two. Public opinion is now clear in the decision that nouns in English have three cases.

REMARK 3.—The Objective Case of Nouns is of the same form as the nominative, and is distinguished from it only by the sense and position. The one cannot be mistaken for the other, without a total misconception of the author's meaning.

NOMINATIVE CASE.

§ 127. The Nominative Case indicates the relation of the subject; e. g., "*Horses run.*"

EXPLANATION.—The subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed. In the sentence "*Horses run,*" "*horses*" is in the Nominative Case, because it indicates the relation of the subject.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The Nominative Case generally precedes the Verb.

REMARK 2.—This Case is sometimes used as the attribute of a proposition;—to identify the subject;—and in independent expressions.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Nouns that are in the Nominative Case;—tell how you know they are in that case.

MODEL.—"*Dogs bark.*" "*Dogs*" is in the Nominative Case, because it indicates the relation of the subject.

Mary sings. Girls play. Thomas pumps. Children cry. William reads. Soldiers fight. The cat scratches. The lamp smokes. The hero conquered. Serpents hiss. Owls hoot. Fish swim in the river. Girls play in the yard. Matilda paints. People vote. Mirrors reflect. Animals live. Trees fall. Parrots talk. Elizabeth can sing. The tyrant is base. George can write. Thomas has spoken. Mary embroiders. Francis and Robert are in the garden. The boys obey the teacher. Time flies swiftly. Henry submits patiently. Tho

mas believes John. The general commanded the army. Father received the information to-day. James is doing the work.

The woodman is cutting down the tree. The men are receiving their wages. John is going to Florida. Robert owns the boat. Mary has finished her task. Do you know all the particulars? We depend on your assistance. The ball went over the house. Mary has written to her sister. The lion is in the cage. Arnold was a traitor to his country. Lucy is an excellent instructress. Milton was a distinguished poet. Anna is an affectionate daughter. Mary Smith has an amiable disposition. William is older than John. Henry studies grammar and arithmetic. Alexander writes neatly. John is endeavoring to obtain the highest honor in his class. Minnie excels in composition. Has your uncle sold his farm?

POSSESSIVE CASE.

§ 128. The Possessive Case indicates the relation of ownership, source, or kind; e. g., "*Alfred's knife; Sun's rays; Webster's Dictionary.*"

EXPLANATION.—"*Alfred's knife; Sun's rays; Webster's Dictionary.*" "*Alfred's*" denotes ownership, "*Sun's*" source, and "*Webster's*" kind.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—"In respect to all matters of syntax considered exclusively, it is so thoroughly a matter of indifference whether a word be an adjective or a genitive case, that Wallis considers the words in 's, like father's, not as genitive cases, but adjectives. Looking to the logic of the question, he is right; and looking to the practical syntax of the question, he is right also. He is wrong only on the etymological side."—LATHAM.

REMARK 2.—The Possessive Case always precedes its limiting word; e. g., *Alfred's knife.*

EXERCISES.

Point out the Nouns that are in the Possessive Case;—tell how you know they are in that case.

MODEL.—“Henry’s cap.” “*Henry’s*” is in the Possessive Case, because it limits the ownership to “*Henry*.”

“Sun’s rays.” “*Sun’s*” is in the Possessive Case, because it limits source to “*sun*.”

“Mitchell’s Geography.” “*Mitchell’s*” is in the Possessive Case, because it limits kind to “*Mitchell*.”

William has lost Alfred’s knife. Merchants have boy’s hats. The dog has bitten John’s finger. Robert’s brother has purchased land in Texas. Willis rode Alfred’s pony. Mary’s diligence deserves praise. Henry uses Davies’ Arithmetic. Samuel’s father lives in town. Edward’s industry will gain friends. Washington’s army endured many hardships. Stephen’s courage failed. Wildredge sold Alfred’s ball. Have you examined Nordheimer’s Grammar? Sarah’s kitten is very playful. Robert has found his mother’s fan. Jane’s sister cultivates flowers in her yard. Robert’s teacher prefers Day’s Algebra. William’s dog caught the thief. Alger’s Arithmetic is highly recommended. Sarah’s pencil is on the table.

Archimedes’ screw was the topic of conversation. The servant has Ella’s coral. Gertrude’s Dream is a beautiful waltz. Father’s spectacles are on his nose. The king’s command must be obeyed. Have you seen William’s cap? What do you think of Comstock’s Philosophy? Robert’s tutor is sick. His theme was “The Soldier’s Prowess.” Napoleon’s army was defeated. Hand me brother’s slate. My knife is on Robert’s desk.

RULES FOR FORMING THE POSSESSIVE.

§ 129. A Noun in the Singular Number forms the Possessive regularly by adding the apostrophe and the letter *s* to the Nominative; e. g., Alfred, *Alfred’s*.

§ 130. The comma that precedes the *s* is called an apostrophe.

§ 131. When the Nominative Plural ends in *s*, the Possessive is formed by adding the apostrophe only; e. g., Boy, *boys’*.

§ 132. When the Plural does not end in *s*, the Possessive is formed by taking the apostrophe and the letter *s*; e. g., Men, *men’s*.

§ 133. When the Singular ends with the sound of *s*, or *z*, to avoid harshness of sound, the *s* after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted; e. g., *Goodness’* sake; *Archimedes’* screw.

§ 134. In regard to the omission of the *s*, no definite rule can be given; the ear alone must decide.

NOTE.—There is considerable diversity of opinion and usage on this point. Some few insist on retaining *s* after the apostrophe in every position; as, “Xanthus’s stock of patience.”—*L’Estrange*. Others drop the *s* only before a word beginning with an *s*, or an *s*-sound, as above; while others drop the *s* wherever the use of it would produce harshness, or difficulty of pronunciation. Though in this last, the usage which omits the *s* is less prevalent and less accurate than that which retains it, yet, from the sanction it has obtained—from the stiffness and harshness which retaining the *s* often occasions—and from the tendency in all spoken languages to abbreviation and euphony, it seems destined to prevail against all arguments to the contrary.

§ 135. In compound words the sign of the Possessive is placed at the end of the word; e. g., Robert rode his *father-in-law’s* horse.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—This sign ('s) used after characters merely denotes plurality; e. g., "The y's, the x's, and the z's."

REMARK 2.—This sign ('s) is a contraction of *is* or *es*; e. g., "John's and King's" anciently were written *Johnis, Kingis*; and sometimes *Johnes, Kinges*.

REMARK 3.—The meaning of the Possessive may, in general, be expressed by the word *of* with the Objective; thus for "*man's* wisdom," "*virtue's* reward," we may say the wisdom of man, the reward of virtue. This mode should be adopted, when the use of the Possessive would appear stiff or awkward; e. g., "The length of the day," in place of the day's length.

EXERCISES.

Write the Possessive of the following words.

MODEL.—Dog, *dog's*.

Girl, book, man, witness, Alice, Charles, master, prince, pupil, author, Creator, clock, Adam, Aristides, Knox, mischief, beauty, sister, goodness, righteousness, Murray, conscience, brother, mother-in-law, knight-errant, cobbler, carpenter, uncle, cousin, aunt, soldier, duty, Mary, Alfred, scholar, Socrates, Moses, teacher, doctor, James, philosopher, Kepler, Cass, grammarian, William, Fox, alderman, Melcher, Beech, countess, objector, husband, Fulton, Johnson, astronomer, Puritan.

OBJECTIVE CASE.

§ 136. The Objective Case expresses the relation of the object. It is used to limit the action of a Transitive Verb, or complete the relation of Preposition; e. g., "Fulton applied *steam* to *navigation*."

EXPLANATION.—In the sentence "Fulton applied steam to navigation," *steam* limits the action expressed by the verb *applied*; *navigation* completes the relation of the preposition *to*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—This case may be known by its answering to *whom*, or *what*, after the Verb or Preposition; e. g., "Fulton applied steam to navigation." "Applied what?" "Applied steam." "To what?" "To navigation."

REMARK 2.—The Objective Case with the preposition *of* is frequently used instead of the Possessive; e. g., "The power of the Almighty."

EXERCISES.

Point out the Nouns in the Objective;—tell how you know they are in that case.

MODEL.—"Merchants sell *goods* to customers." "*Goods*" is in the Objective Case, because it limits the action expressed by the transitive verb *sell*. "Sell what?" "Sell goods."

"*Customers*" is in the Objective Case, because it completes the relation expressed by the preposition *to*. "To what?" "To *customers*."

Idleness produces poverty. James loves play. Perseverance overcomes difficulties. Bees collect honey from flowers. Kittens love mischief. Soldiers fight for glory. The lawyer was engaged by the man. Birds build nests in tall trees. History relates facts of the ancients. Preparations were made for the party. Thomas writes exercises at school. Brother is studying astronomy with father. Alfred computed the interest on the note. Robert killed game for his aunt. Planets revolve in the firmament.

Planters own slaves. Father blamed Thomas for his unkindness to James. The president promoted the officer. Fire consumes wood. Teachers praise diligent pupils. Charles has

read the book. America has produced many distinguished men. The jury after much consideration returned the verdict. The frost has destroyed the prospect for fruit this year. Washington Irving has written a history of Columbus, the great navigator. All esteem Mary for her noble qualities. Uncle has just returned from Washington, the capital of the United States.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

§ 137. The Declension of a Noun is its variation to denote Number and Case.

REMARK.—There are a few irregular Nouns that vary from these examples.

EXAMPLE I.—FRIEND.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> Friend.	<i>Nom.</i> Friends.
<i>Poss.</i> Friend's.	<i>Poss.</i> Friends'.
<i>Obj.</i> Friend.	<i>Obj.</i> Friends.

EXAMPLE II.—FOX.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> Fox.	<i>Nom.</i> Foxes.
<i>Poss.</i> Fox's.	<i>Poss.</i> Foxes'.
<i>Obj.</i> Fox.	<i>Obj.</i> Foxes.

EXAMPLE III.—FLY.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> Fly.	<i>Nom.</i> Flies.
<i>Poss.</i> Fly's.	<i>Poss.</i> Flies'.
<i>Obj.</i> Fly.	<i>Obj.</i> Flies.

EXAMPLE IV.—MAN.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> Man.	<i>Nom.</i> Men.
<i>Poss.</i> Man's.	<i>Poss.</i> Men's.
<i>Obj.</i> Man.	<i>Obj.</i> Men.

EXERCISES.

Tell the Gender, Number, Person and Case, of the Nouns in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“Matilda excels Augusta in penmanship.” “*Matilda*” is a Noun, Proper, Feminine, of the Third Person; it is made in the Nominative Singular, and is the subject of the proposition “*Matilda excels Augusta in penmanship.*”

“*Augusta*” is a Noun, Proper, Feminine, of the Third Person; it is made in the Objective Singular, and limits the action expressed by the transitive verb *excels*.

“*Penmanship*” is a Noun, Common, Neuter, of the Third Person; it is made in the Objective Singular, and completes the relation expressed by the preposition *in*.

Henry has lost William's book. Thomas borrowed Alfred's gun for George. Matilda's slate is on Sarah's desk. Birds have wings. Seamen navigate ships. Uncle has a large income from his plantation. Robert's diligence deserves the highest commendation. The sun's rays have dispersed the clouds. Julia has soiled Mary's gloves. Charles is making a fortune by close application to his business. Did the dog bite John's finger yesterday? Susan walked with Mary by moonlight. The frost may injure the crop.

Our teacher shall decide the difficulty for us. Thomas saw Charles. William told a pleasing anecdote about George. Elizabeth fainted in church. The poor man died of hunger. William's horse ran with his brother. Matilda excels Sarah in penmanship. God's goodness is great. Industry promotes happiness. Albert's dog guards the house at night. Americans love to speak of Washington. Seamen navigate ships. Christ often spoke in parables. Robbers waylay travelers for plunder. William's sister destroyed her book. Napoleon Bonaparte took the city of Moscow. The king's heart is in

the hands of the Lord. We have finished the task. John wishes to be excused from recitation.

PARSING.

Parsing consists :—

1. In telling the *Part of Speech* ;
2. In naming its properties, or accidents ;
3. In pointing out its relation to other words, and giving the rule for its construction.

In parsing a Noun, say :—

1. It is a *Noun* ; (why ?)
2. It is *Common* or *Proper* ; (why ?)
3. It is of the *Masculine*, *Feminine*, or *Neuter Gender* ; (why ?)
4. It is of the *Frist*, *Second*, or *Third Person* ; (Why ?)
5. It is made in the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, or *Objective Case* ; (why ?)
6. *Singular* or *Plural Number* ; (why ?)
7. *Rule* for Construction.

REMARK.—The pupil who has been thoroughly drilled on the introductory course, may parse without giving the reasons.

EXERCISES.

Parse the Nouns in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“John drove the horse from father's barn.” “*John*” is a Noun, Proper, Masculine, of the Third Person. It is made in the Nominative Singular, and is the subject of the proposition, “John drove the horse from father's barn,” according to

RULE I.—The Subject of a proposition must be in the Nominative Case.

“*Horse*” is a Noun, Common, Masculine, of the Third Person. It is made in the Objective Singular, and limits the action expressed by the verb *drove*, according to

RULE III.—A Noun or Pronoun used to limit the action of a transitive verb must be in the Objective Case.

“*Father's*” is a Noun, Common, Masculine, of the Third Person. It is made in the Possessive Singular, and limits *barn*, according to

RULE V.—A Noun or Pronoun used to limit the relation of ownership source or kind, is put in the Possessive.

“*Barn*” is a Noun, Common, Neuter, of the Third Person. It is made in the Objective Singular, and completes the relation expressed by the preposition *from*, according to

RULE X.—A Noun or Pronoun used to complete the relation of a preposition must be in the Objective Case.

Thomas hurt James. Webster visited Europe. Robert purchased toys for his brother. Quarrels make trouble. William owns the book. Mary gathered flowers for Julia. Men worship God. Piety promotes happiness. Anger causes hatred. Jane's uncle Stephen gave her bad advice. The architect draws plans for buildings. Antony beheaded Cicero. Diligence deserves praise. Willis called Alfred. The girls have gone to gather strawberries. Uncle's orchard produces fine fruit. Lucy may study music. Labor disgraces no man. George has read the required course in Latin. We ascended the mountain by a crooked path.

Dale, the carpenter, has gone to New York. Edward has lost the point of his pencil. Samuel's brother lives near the city. Washington endured many hardships in achieving the independence of his country. Davies' Course of Mathematics is very generally used in this section. Nero has got mother's fan in his mouth and is carrying it to her. Have you heard our eloquent senator? Charles may yet find it to his advantage to listen to his father's advice. Edward's obliging dispo-

sition will gain him many friends. What kind of a place do you live in? Give me a description of your ride home. Relate an anecdote about the dog. Is it cruel to kill animals? Composition is the putting together of thoughts under a subject.

QUESTIONS.

What is Case?
 How many Cases are there?
 Upon what is the distinction of Case founded?
 What does the Nominative Case express?
 What does it usually precede?
 How is it distinguished?
 How is the Possessive Singular formed?
 What is the rule when the Plural ends in *s*?
 When it does not end in *s*?
 When the Singular ends in *ss* or letters of a similar sound?
 What is said of Compound Words?
 What does the Objective Case express?
 How used?
 How distinguished?
 What is Declension?
 Decline Man. Friend. Fox. Fly.

V E R B .

§ 138. A Verb is a word by which something is affirmed of a person or thing; e. g., "Matilda reads;" "Virtue is praised;" "Thomas sleeps."

EXPLANATION.—That of which anything is affirmed is called the subject of the verb; that which is affirmed of the subject

is called the predicate. In the example, "Matilda reads," *reads* is a verb because it expresses what is affirmed of Matilda.

NOTE.—So various have been the opinions of grammarians respecting this part of speech, that no definition yet given is considered unobjectionable. The greatest and most acute philologists confess that a faultless definition is difficult, if not impossible to be formed. Horne Took, the distinguished author of the *Diversions of Purley*, after citing with contempt various efforts at a definition, some in Latin, some in English, and some in French, turns from them with disgust, leaving his readers to imagine if they can, what he conceived a verb to be.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—A Verb expresses an action or state; e. g., "Matilda reads;" "Thomas sleeps;"—or it connects an attribute with the subject; e. g., "The earth *is* round."

REMARK 2.—All verbs belong to the former of these classes, except the verb *to be*, the most common use of which is to connect an attribute with a subject. When so used it is called the *copula*.

REMARK 3.—The word *affirm*, as used in the definition given of the verb, includes an *absolute* declaration, a *conditional* statement, an *interrogation*, a *petition*, and a *command*; e. g., "Emma learns;" "If Emma learns;" "Does Emma learn?" "May Emma learn;" "Emma, learn."

EXERCISES.

Point out the Verbs in the following exercises;—tell how you know them.

MODEL.—"John spoke." "*Spoke*" is a Verb, because it expresses what is affirmed of John.

THE DRUM.

I hate that drum's discordant sound
 Parading round and round and round ;
 To thoughtless youth it pleasure yields,
 Allures from cities and from fields,
 To sell their liberty for charms
 Of tawdry lace and glittering arms ;
 And when ambition's voice commands,
 To march, and fight, and fall in foreign lands.

I hate the drum's discordant sound,
 Parading round and round and round,
 To me it talks of ravag'd plains,
 And burning towns, and ruined swains,
 And mangled limbs and dying groans,
 And widows' tears, and orphans' moans,
 And all that misery's hand bestows,
 To fill the catalogue of human woes.

—From *Scott of Amwell*.

APPENDIX NO. I.

GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

- ACCENT, [Lat. *accentus* from *accino*, *accentum*, *ad* and *cano*, to sing to,] stress of voice laid on a particular syllable.
- ACCIDENT, [Lat. *accido*, to fall to, to happen, *ad* and *cado*,] something that falls to, i. e. belongs to a word, but not essential to it ; as person, gender, number, case, comparison, mood, tense, &c.
- ACTIVE, [Lat. *activus*, active from *ago*, to act,] denotes a form of the verb, the subject of which acts, or is active. In many grammars, a class of verbs which express action.
- ADJECTIVE [Lat. *adjectus*, added, joined to, from *adjicio*, i. e. *ad*, to, and *jacio*, to lay, put, &c.] the designation of a class of words. See definition, § 75.
- ADVERB, [Latin from *ad*, to, and *verbum*, a word, the verb, i. e. added or joined to a verb,] a class of words. § 77.
- ALLEGORY, [Gr. *ἀλληγορία*, from *ἀλληγορέω*, to interpret differently from what the words seem to imply, from *ἄλλος*, and *ἄγορέω*, to speak in public. Th. *ἀγορά*, a forum or public place,] a figure of speech. § 379.
- ANTITHESIS, [Gr. *ἀντίθεσις*, opposition, contrast, from *αντι*, opposite, and *τίθημι*, to place ; hence to place opposite or in contrast,] a figure of speech. § 386.
- APOSTROPHE, [Gr. *ἀποστροφή*, turning away, viz: from the subject of discourse to another object, *ἀπό*, from, and *στρέφω*, to turn,] a figure of speech. § 390.
- APPOSITION, [Lat. *appositus*, placed near or together,] a noun placed near, or by another, in the same construction, for the purpose of further defining it, is said to be in *apposition* ; as "Cicero, the Orator." § 318.
- AUXILIARY, [Lat. *auxiliaris*, helping, from *auxilium*, aid,] a designation of certain verbs. § 189.
- CASE, [Lat. *casus*, from *cado*,—*casum*, to fall ;] hence the particular circumstances into which a person or thing falls, or happens to be, is

- called his, or its case. So a noun in certain circumstances, is in one case, in different circumstances it is in another case. § 125.
- CLIMAX, [Gr. κλίμαξ, a scale or ladder,] a figure in rhetoric, by which the sense of the expression rises gradually in strength, from step to step. § 391.
- COLON, [Gr. κῶλον, a member or limb; hence in grammar, a member or part of a sentence,] a mark (:) by which a member of a sentence is indicated. § 335.
- COMMA, [Gr. κόμμα, a segment, from κόπτω, to cut off,] a mark (,) indicating the smallest segment or division of a sentence. § 333.
- COMPARATIVE, [Lat. from *comparo*, to compare,] a form of the adjective, expressing a greater or less degree than the positive. § 224.
- CONCORD, [Lat. *concoro*, agreeing; *concordia*, agreement,] a term in syntax denoting the agreement of words in certain accidents. § 310.
- CONJUGATION, [Lat. *conjugatio*, from *con*, together, and *juugo*, to yoke or join,] arranging and joining the different parts of a verb together in their proper order. § 178.
- CONJUNCTION, [Lat. *conjunctio*, from *con*, together, and *jungo*, to join,] a word whose use is to join together. § 257.
- CONSONANT, [Lat. *consonans*, sounding together, *con* and *sono*,] a letter-sounded not alone, but together with a vowel. § 25.
- COPULA, [Lat. *copula*, a band or tie,] that by which the subject and predicate of a proposition are coupled together; sometimes a separate word, as *am*, *is*, *are*, &c., and sometimes implied in the predicate itself, as I write, i. e. I *am* writing. § 285.
- DECLENSION, [Lat. *declinatio*, from *declino*, to decline,] declining or changing the termination of nouns, &c., so as to form the oblique cases. § 137.
- DECLINABLE, [Lat. from the same,] that may be declined or changed in termination.
- DIERESIS, [Gr. διαίρεσις, a division, *διά* and *αἰρέω*,] a mark (·) over the last of two vowels, showing that they are to be divided in pronunciation, as *aërial*, *aërial*. § 365.
- DIPHTHONG, [Gr. δίφθογγος, a double sound, from *δις*, twice, and *φθογγή*, a sound,] the union of two vowel sounds in one syllable. § 33.
- DISSYLLABLE, [Gr. δισσυλλαβή, *δίς*, twice, and *συλλαβή*,] a word of two syllables. § 46.

- ELLIPSIS [Gr. ἔλλειψις, omission, leaving out, *εν*, and *λείπω*, to leave,] a figure by which a word or words are omitted, which belong to the full grammatical construction of a sentence. See def. § 370.
- ETYMOLOGY, [Gr. ἔτυμολογία, from *ἐτυμολογέω*, to derive a word from its original, and thus to discover its true meaning—*ἔτυμον*, true, and *λέγω*, to tell,] the derivation of words. Also, that part or division in grammar, which treats of the different classes of words, and their various modifications. § 64.
- FEMININE, [Lat. *femīninus*, from *femina*, a woman,] the name of the gender of words denoting females. § 95.
- FUTURE, [Lat. *futurus*, about to be,] the name of a tense denoting time yet to come.
- GENDER, [Lat. *genus*, Fr. *genre*, kind, or class.] § 92.
- GRAMMAR, [Gr. γραμματική, from γράμμα, a letter, a writing, and that from γράφω, to write. Fr. *grammaire*,] the science of language. § 1.
- HYPERBOLE, [Gr. ὑπερβολή, throwing over or beyond, hence excess, exaggeration, *ὑπέρ*, over, and *βάλλω*, to throw,] a figure of speech, defined § 383.
- IMPERFECT, [Lat. *imperfectum*, not completed,] a tense properly denoting an act, &c., completed at a certain past time. § 165.
- INDICATIVE, [Lat. *indico*,—*are*, to declare,] a mood or form of the verb which simply declares. § 153.
- INFINITIVE, [Lat. *in*, negative, and *fnitus*, limited or bounded,] a mood of the verb not limited by person or number. § 157.
- INTERJECTION, [Lat. *interjectio*, from *inter*, between, or among, and *jacio*, to throw,] a word or phrase having no grammatical connection with a sentence, but as it were thrown into it to express some sudden emotion of the mind. § 80.
- INTRANSITIVE, [Lat. *in*, negative, and *transitivus*,] not passing over. § 141.
- IRONY, [Gr. εἰρωνεία, from *εἰρων*, a dissembler,] a figure of speech. § 384.
- MASCULINE, [Lat. from *mas*, a male,] the gender of nouns and pronouns which designate males. § 94.
- METAPHOR, [Gr. μεταφορά, from μεταφέρω, to transfer,] a word expressing similitude without the signs of comparison, by which the property of one object is, as it were, transferred to another; thus when we say, "that man is a fox," the meaning is, "that man is like a fox;" the figure transfers the leading property of the fox to the man. § 377.

- METONYMY**, [Gr. *μετωνυμία*, a change of name; from *μετά*, denoting change, and *ὄνομα*,] a name, a figure by which one word is put for another. See def. § 381.
- METRE**, [Gr. from *μέτρον*, a measure,] a composition, the lines of which contain a certain *measure* of long and short syllables, arranged according to rule.
- MONOSYLLABLE**, [Gr. from *μόνος*, only, or one, and *συλλαβή*, a syllable,] a word of one syllable. § 45.
- MOOD or MODE**, [Lat. *modus*, manner,] a form of the verb expressing its meaning in a certain *manner*. § 151.
- NEUTER**, [Lat. *neuter*, neither,] an epithet given to nouns which are neither masculine nor feminine. Also, in some grammars, to verbs denoting being, or a state of being.
- NOMINATIVE (case)**, [Lat. *nominativus*, from *nomino*, to name,] the first case of a noun or pronoun, or that used when a person or thing is simply *named*.
- NOUN**, [Lat. *nomen*, a name;] a word that is the name of an object, is in grammar called a *Noun*. § 73.
- OBJECTIVE (case)**, [Lat. *objectivus*, from *ob* and *jacio*, to throw to, against, or in the way of,] the case of a noun or pronoun which denotes the object of a transitive verb, or preposition. § 136.
- ORTHOGRAPHY**, [Gr. *ὀρθογραφία*, from *ὀρθός*, right, and *γραφή*, writing,] writing words correctly, i. e. with the proper letters. § 8.
- PARALEPSIS**, [Gr. *παράλειψις*, omission, from *παρά*, and *λείπω*, to leave,] figure of speech. § 389.
- PARENTHESIS**, [Gr. *παρένθεσις*, from *παρά* and *ἐντίθημι*, to insert,] a word, phrase, or sentence *inserted* in a sentence for explanation, but not connected with it in construction, and, therefore, usually distinguished by a mark at the beginning and end, thus ().
- PARSE**, [Derivation uncertain,] to resolve a sentence into its elements, or *parts* of speech.
- PARTICIPLE**, [Lat. *participium*, from *pars*, a part, and *capio*, to take,] a part of the verb which partakes of the verb and the adjective, having its signification and time from the former, and declension and construction from the latter. § 169.
- PASSIVE (voice)**, [Lat. *passivus*, from *pator*, to suffer, or to be affected in any way,] a form of the verb which indicates that its subject or nomi-

- native receives, or is affected by the action expressed by the verb. § 150.
- PERFECT**, [Lat. *perfectum*, from *perficio*, to perfect or complete,] a tense of the verb, denoting that the action or state expressed by it is now completed. § 164.
- PERIOD** [Gr. *περίοδος*, a circuit, from *περί*, round, and *ὁδός*, a way,] a complete sentence, one which has its construction completed, or *brought round*.
- PERSONIFICATION**, [Lat. from *persona*, a person, and *facio*, to make,] a figure, by which inanimate objects are regarded as persons, or, as it were, *made so*. § 380.
- PLUPERFECT**, [Lat. *plus quam perfectum*, more than perfected or completed, i. e. completed before a certain time now past,] the designation of a tense defined § 166.
- POLYSYLLABLE**, [Gr. from *πολύς* many, and *συλλαβή*, a syllable,] a word of many syllables. See Syllable.
- POTENTIAL**, [Lat. *potentialis*, belonging to power or ability, from *potens*, able,] the designation of a certain mood of the verb, defined § 155.
- PREDICATE**, [Lat. *prædicatus*, from *prædico*, to assert or declare,] that part of a proposition which contains what is affirmed or asserted of its subject. § 285.
- PREPOSITION**, [Lat. *præpositio*, from *præpositus*, placed before,] a class of words so called, because their *position* in a sentence is *before* the word governed by them. § 78.
- PRONOUN**, [Lat. *pronomēn*, from *pro*, for, i. e. instead of, and *nomen*, a name or noun,] a word used for, or instead of a noun. § 76.
- PROPOSITION**, [Lat. *propositio*, from *pro*, before, and *positus*, placed,] a simple sentence, in which a distinct idea is *proposed*, or set before the mind. § 269.
- PROSODY**, [Gr. *προσῳδία*, from *πρός*, with or belonging to, and *ὠδή*, an ode,] anciently the doctrine of accents and quantity, &c. § 392.
- PROSOPOPEIA**, [Gr. *προσωποποιία*, from *πρόσωπον*, a person, and *ποιέω*, to make,] the Greek term for Personification.
- SEMICOLON**, [Lat. *semi*, half, and Gr. *colon*,] a point (;), denoting a division of a sentence less than a colon.
- SIMILE**, [Lat. *simile*, like,] a figure of speech, by which one thing is compared or *likened* to another. § 378.

- SOLECISM**, [Gr. *σολοικισμός*, supposed to be derived from Solii, the name of a people in Cilicia, who spoke the Greek language very ungrammatically,] a gross violation of the idiom, or syntax of a language.
- SUBJECT**, [Lat. *subjectus*, from *subjicio*, to place before or under, (the view,)] in a proposition, the person or thing spoken of.
- SUBJUNCTIVE** (mood,) [Lat. *subjunctivus*, from *subjungo*, to subjoin or annex to,] a mood of the verb never used independently, and by itself, but *subjoined* or annexed to the main or leading verb in a sentence. § 154.
- SUBSTANTIVE**, [Lat. *substantivus*, from *substantia*, substance,] the same as noun, viz. a class of words denoting things that have *substance*, or existence, material or immaterial.
- SUPERLATIVE**, [Lat. *superlativus*, from *super*, above, and *latus*, carried, i. e. carried above, viz. other things,] a form of the adjective expressing a degree of the quality *carried above*, or superior to that in any of several objects compared.
- SYLLABLE**, [Gr. *συλλαβή*, from *σύν*, together, and *λαμβάνω*, to take,] a letter or number of letters *taken together*, and forming one vocal sound.
- SYNECDOCHE**, [Gr. *συνεκδοχή*, from *σύν*, and *ἐκδέχομαι*, to take,] a figure of speech, defined § 385.
- SYNTAX**, [Gr. *σύνταξις*, from *σύν*, together, and *τάσσω*, to put in order,] the proper arrangement or *putting together* of words in a sentence. § 268.
- TENSE**, [Lat. *tempus*, time, Fr. *temps*,] a form of the verb by which the time of an act, &c., is indicated. § 158.
- TRANSITIVE**, [Lat. *transitivus*, from *transeo*, to go or pass over,] the name of a class of verbs, which express an act that *passes over* from an agent to an object.
- TRIPHTHONG**, [Gr. from *τρεις*, three, and *φθόγγος*, a sound,] the union of three vowels in one sound.
- TRISSYLLABLE**, [Gr. *τρεις*, three, and *συλλαβή*, a syllable,] a word of three syllables.
- VERB**, [Lat. *verbum*, a word,] the name of a class of words which, being the chief or most important in a sentence, were called *verbum*, the word, viz. by way of eminence. § 138.
- VERSE**, [Lat. *versus*, from *verto*, to turn,] a species of composition in which every line is measured, so as to contain a certain number of feet, at the end of which the writer *turns* to a new line.
- VOWEL**, [Lat. *vocalis*, from *vox*, the voice,] a letter which marks a distinct and independent sound, without the aid of other letters.

APPENDIX NO. II.

ABBREVIATIONS.

The following are the most common :

A. C.	Before Christ.	Ante Christum.
A. B.	Bachelor of Arts.	Artium Baccalaureus.
A. D.	In the year of our Lord.	Anno Domini.
	{ Master of Arts.	Artium Magister.
A. M.	{ In the year of the world.	Anno Mundi,
	{ .n the forenoon.	Ante Meridiem.
B. D.	Bachelor of Divinity.	Bac. Divinitatis.
D. D.	Doctor of Divinity.	Doctor Divinitatis.
e. g.	For example.	Exempli gratia.
i. e.	That is.	Id est.
J.L.D.	Doctor of Laws.	Legum Doctor.
L. S.	Place of the seal.	Locus Sigilli.
Messrs.	Gentlemen.	Messieurs.
M. D.	Doctor of Medicine.	Medicinæ Doctor.
M.S.	Manuscript.	Scriptum Manus.
N. B.	Take notice.	Nota Bene.
P. M.	{ Afternoon.	Post Meridiem.
	{ Post Master.	
P. S.	Postscript.	Post Scriptum.
S. T. D.	Doctor of Theology.	Sanctæ Theologiæ Doctor.

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