BROWN'S GRAMMAR IMPROVED.

THE

INSTITUTES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

METHODICALLY ARRANGED;

WITH

COPIOUS LANGUAGE LESSONS;

ALSO

A KEY TO THE EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS, ACADEMIES, AND PRIVATE STUDENTS.

BY

GOOLD BROWN,

AUTHOR OF THE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH GRAMMARS.

"Ne quis igitur tanquam parva fastiditas Grammaticos elementa."—QUINTILIAN.

A NEW AND REVISED EDITION,

WITH EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS, PARSING, AND CONSTRUCTION.

By HENRY KIDDLE, A.M.,

LATE SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

THE excellence of Brown's Grammar, both as treatises and school manuals, has been very generally acknowledged; but the system of instruction embodied therein has been found to be at variance, in some important respects, with that most generally in use at the present time, and favored by the best educators. Experience has shown that mere parsing, however familiar it may render the pupil with definitions and rules, by mechanical repetition, does not fully attain the most important end of grammatical instruction, to make the learner expert and accurate in the use of language, as well as intelligent in respect to its principles and rules.

In the present edition of these grammars, the more modern system of instruction has been introduced; copious exercises in construction and composition have been inserted in connection with those of analysis and parsing, thus supplying a complete series of practical Language Lessons, and insuring to the student a thorough critical knowledge of his mother tongue. The carefully arranged exercises in correction, or False Syntax, inserted under each rule, covering as they do the whole field of syntactical criticism, will be found to contribute greatly to this result.

The arbitrary method of presenting elaborate and concise definitions without any previous exposition of the ideas on which they depend, has been modified by the insertion, where requisite, of carefully constructed development lessons, adapted to the grade of this work, so that nothing, either in the use of terms or the expression of thought, might anticipate the needed explanation.

Numerous corrections and alterations have been made, but not such as to interfere essentially with the original system of grammar contained in these works, but with the exclusive object of adapting them to a more approved system of practical instruction. The improvement in the typography of this new edition will not fail to commend the books to general favor.

With these alterations, the publishers hope that these works will be found more useful to the public, and will prove a more valuable aid to teachers in imparting instruction in this really important branch of education.

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PREFACE.

"Necqu enim aut aliena vituperare, aut nostra spectaculius praedicare, animus est."

1. LANGUAGE is the principal vehicle of thought; and so numerous and important are the ends to which it is subversive, that it is difficult to conceive in what manner the affairs of human society could be conducted without it. Its utility, therefore, will ever entitle it to a considerable share of attention in civilized communities, and to an important place in all systems of education. For, whatever we may think in relation to its origin—whether we consider it a special gift from Heaven, or an acquisition of industry—a natural endowment, or an artificial invention—certain it is, that in the present state of things, our knowledge of it depends, in a great measure, if not entirely, on the voluntary exercise of our faculties, and on the help and opportunities afforded us. One may indeed acquire, by mere imitation, such a knowledge of words, as to enjoy the ordinary advantages of speech; and he who is satisfied with the dialect he has so obtained, will find no occasion for treatises on grammar; but he who is desirous either of polishing the beauties of literary composition, or of expressing his sentiments with propriety and ease, must make the principles of language his study.

2. It is not the business of the grammarians to give law to language, but to teach it agreeably to the best usage. The ultimate principle by which he must be governed, and with which his instruction must always agree is, that custom which critics denominate GOOD USE; that is, the principle, which is equally opposed to faction, standing as a bulwark against the quails peculiarities of ancient usage, is the only proper standard of grammatical purity. Those rules and modes of speech, which are established by this authority, may be called the Institutes of Grammar.

3. To embody, in a convenient form, the true principles of the English Language; to express them in a simple and peregruous style, adapted to the capacity of youth; to illustrate them by appropriate examples and exercises; and to give to the whole an admirable advantage from method in the arrangement, are the objects of the following work. The author has not deviated much from the principles adopted in the most-approved grammars already in use; nor has he, so far as he has the power to do so, neglected the part of art, and been satisfied with the design to introduce novelties, but to form a practical digest of established rules. He has not labored to subvert the general system of grammar, received from time immemorial, but to improve upon it, in its present application to our tongue.

4. That which is excellent, may not be perfect; and amendment may be desirable, where subversion would be ruinous. Believing that no theory can better explain the principles of our language, and no contrivance afford greater facilities to the student, the present writer has in general adopted those doctrines which are already best known; and has contented himself with attempting little more than an improved method of inculcating them. The scope of his labors has been, to define, dispose, and exemplify these doctrines anew; and, with a scrupulous regard to the best usage, to offer, on that authority, some further contributions to the stock of grammatical knowledge. The errors of former grammarians he has been more studious to avoid than to expose; and of their deficiencies the reader may judge, when he sees in what manner they are here supplied.

5. This treatise being intended for general use, and adapted to all classes of learners, was designed to embrace in a small compass a complete course of English Grammar, disencumbered of every thing not calculated to convey direct information on the subject. Little regard has therefore been paid to grammarians. Grammarians have ever disputed, and often with more acrimony than discretion. Those who have dealt most in philological controversy, have well illustrated the complect of Denham:

""The tree of knowledge, blasted by disputes, Produces sapless leaves instead of fruits."

6. They who set aside the authority of custom, and judge everything to be ungrammatical which appears to them to be unphilosophical, render the whole ground forever disputable, and weary themselves in beating the air. So various have been the notions of this sort of critics, that it would be difficult to mention an opinion not found in some of their books. Amidst this rage for speculation on a subject purely practical, various attempts have been made to overthrow that system of instruction which long use has
rendered venerable, and long experience proved to be useful. But it is manifestly much easier to raise even plausible objections against this system, than to invent another less objectionable one.

7. While some have thus wasted their energies in eccentric flights, vainly supposing that their writings would give place to those of a superlative mett, the author would invite their confidence to success, not better deserved, have multiplied grammars almost innumerable, by abridging or modifying books that they have used in childhood. So that they are at all accounts, with the origin and character of the volume, the most essential parts of a mass of materials from which he could as easily have formed a folio. Whether the text be compensated or not, it is a matter of little consequence; he has neither written for bread, nor built castles in the air. He is too well versed in the history of the art, to give place to the false pretender met with in the books which he has generally acknowledged to be well aware of the value of his name. His language is not confident anticipations of success; yet he will not deny that his hopes are large, being conscious of having cherished them with a liberality of feeling which cannot fear disappointment, and which, like Aaron’s serpent, shall swallow up the suspicious.

8. The nature of the subject almost entirely precludes invention. The author has, however, aimed at such a kind and degree of originality, which does honor to himself, while it gives cause to regret their lack of an inducement which, like Aaron’s serpent, shall swallow up the suspicious.

9. All science is of speaking and writing well; so that correctness of language and neatness of style are the most essential part of any grammar. And he persuade himself that the improvements here attempted are neither few nor inconsiderable. He does not mean, however, to depreciate objects above enumerated, might, perhaps, be the most essential part of speech in the work within his knowledge. And he persuade himself that the improvements here attempted are neither few nor inconsiderable. He does not mean, however, to depreciate objects above enumerated, might, perhaps, be

10. Grammar being a practical art, with the principles of which every intelligent person is more or less acquainted, it might be expected that a work written professionally on the subject should exhibit some evidence of its author’s skill. But it would seem that a multitude of bad or indifferent writers have judged themselves qualified to teach the art of speaking and writing well; so that correctness of language and neatness of style are the most essential part of any grammar. And he persuade himself that the improvements here attempted are neither few nor inconsiderable. He does not mean, however, to depreciate objects above enumerated, might, perhaps, be

11. The mode of instruction here recommended is the result of long and successful experience. There is no other method of conveying the rules of grammar which is so well calculated to improve the memory than the one used in the present work. The author has devoted many years to studies of this nature, and being conversant with most of the grammatical treatises already published, the author conceived that the objects above enumerated, might, perhaps, be better effected than they had been in any work within his knowledge. And he persuade himself that the improvements here offered are neither few nor inconsiderable. He does not mean, however, to depreciate the labors, or to detract from the merits, of those who have gone before him and taught with a laborious and industrious skill. He has studied and written upon the subject, and has thrown upon the subject. For his own information, he has carefully perused books is believed that a work which shall deserve the approbation of the learned, is equally impossible to print with perfect accuracy a work of this size, in which so many little things should be observed, and which are subject to so many errors. The difficulties encountered in boyhood from the use of a miserable epitome, and the deep impression of a few mortifying blunders made in public, first gave the author a fondness for grammar; circumstances having since favored this turn of his genius, he has voluntarily pursued the study, with an assiduity which no man will ever imitate for the sake of pecuniary recompense.

14. This work contains a full series of exercises adapted to its several parts, with notices of the manner in which they are to be used, according to the place assigned them. The examples of false syntax, placed under the rules, are to be corrected orally; the four chapters of exercises adapted to the four parts of the subject, are to be written out by the learner. In selecting examples for these exercises, the author has been studious to economize the learner’s time, by admitting those only which were very short. He has, in general, reduced each example to a single line. And, in this manner, he has been able to present, in this small volume, a series of exercises, more various than are given in any other grammar, and nearly equal in number to all that are contained in Murray’s two octavos. It is believed that a grammatical treatise at once so comprehensive and so practical will be readily adopted, and will be calculated to improve the memory, and strengthen all the faculties of the mind.

16. The greatest peculiarity of the method is, that it requires the pupil to speak or write a great deal, and the teacher very little. But both should constantly remember that grammar is a practical study; and that he who has studied and written upon the subject, and has thrown upon the subject. For his own information, he has carefully perused books is believed that a work which shall deserve the approbation of the learned, is equally impossible to print with perfect accuracy a work of this size, in which so many little things should be observed, and which are subject to so many errors. The difficulties encountered in boyhood from the use of a miserable epitome, and the deep impression of a few mortifying blunders made in public, first gave the author a fondness for grammar; circumstances having since favored this turn of his genius, he has voluntarily pursued the study, with an assiduity which no man will ever imitate for the sake of pecuniary recompense.

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The exercise of parsing commences immediately after the first lesson of etymology, and is carried on progressively till it embraces all the doctrines that are applicable to it. If it be performed according to the order prescribed, it will soon make the student perfectly familiar with the etymological definitions and rules. It requires interpretative thought to keep the mind attentive to what the lips utter; while it advances by such easy gradations and constant repetitions as leave the pupil utterly without inattention. Being neither wholly rehearsed by rote, nor has more dignity than a school-boy's conversation, and more case than a formal recital, or declamation; and is therefore an exercise well calculated to inculcate correctness with fluency in ordinary speech—a species of eloquence as valuable as any other.

19. The best instruction is that which ultimately gives the greatest facility and skill in the science of language. It is best taught by that process which permits its doctrines more directly home to the habits as well as to the thoughts of the pupil—which the most effectually conquers inattention, and leaves the deepest impress of shame upon blundering ignorance. In exercises, there is nothing more effectual than that of parsing; and yet perhaps there is none which, in general, more defectively conducted. Scarce, less useful, as a means of instruction, is the practice of correlating words by regular and logical forms; nor does it appear to have been more ably directed toward the purposes of discipline. There is so much to be done, in order to effect what is desirable in the management of these things, so little prospect of calculation will ever be generally raised to a just appreciation of the study which, more than all others, conforms the mind to habits of correct thinking; that, in reflecting upon the state of the science at the present time, and upon the improvement of its improvement, the author cannot but express, in some degree, with the sadness of the learner's teacher; which tells us that he had always lamented, and often with tears, that while other branches of learning were excellently taught, grammar, which is the foundation of all others, lay so much neglected, and that for this neglect there seemed to be, in that science, no adequate explanation. The grammatical use of language is in sweet alliance with the moral; and a similar regret seems to have prompted the following exclamation of the Christian poet:

"What thou givest of human thought,
How few respect or use as they ought!"—Cooper.

20. No directions, either oral or written, can ever enable the heedless and the unthinking to speak or write well. That must indeed be an admirable book which can attract levity to sober reflection, teach thoughtlessness the true meaning of words, rather than its foundation for low examples, awaken the spirit which attains to excellence of speech, and cause grammatical exercises to be skillfully managed, where teachers themselves are so often lamentably deficient in them. Yet something may be more piously, if a better can be introduced. And what would be its?—Whatever there is of ignorance or error in relation to the premises. And is it arrogant to say there is much? Always! in regard to this, as well as to many a weightier matter, one may truly affirm, "The human mind is a vast expanse of ignorance." Many things are not so clearly comprehended as may appear. Some grammatical errors are apt to conceal themselves from the common mind; and the appeal to reason and just authority is often frustrate, because a wrong head defies both. But, apart from the true difficulties, multiplicity of inconvenience, and uncertainty of change; improvement requires effort; conflicting theories demand examination; and the principles of the science are notoriously disputed; the end is often divorced from the means, as well as the means from the end. Murray's evident disposition, that his book of exercises should be constantly used with his grammar; but he made the examples in the former so dull and prolix, that few learners, if any, have ever gone through the series which he directed. The publishing of them in a separate volume has probably given rise to the absurd practice of endeavoring to teach his grammar without them. The forms of parsing which he furnishes is this author furnish are also multiplicity. Many others perplexes the imagination; and the unknown article of the noun, the adjective, the verb. Accord as the business of a school should proceed without loss of time, and that, in the oral exercises here spoken of, each pupil should go through his part promptly, clearly, correctly, and with ease. There is no reason that these lessons should be so obscurely, and so badly written. Nor does the objection lie against this writer only: ab uno disce omnes. But the reader may demand some illustrations.

From the above rational paragraph: "Virtue! how amiable thou art!" Here his form for the word Virtue is this: "Virtue is a common substantive of the neuter gender, of the third person, in the singular number, and the nominative case." It should have been: "Virtue is a common noun, in the singular number, of the second person, singular number, feminine genus, and nominative case." And then the definitions of all these things should have followed in regular numerical order. He gives the class of this noun wrong, for virtue addressed becomes an individual; he gives the gender wrong, and in direct opposing: it is feminine gender. He follows the primary definitions and rules correctly; but, in giving the case, he is not correct, as may be seen by the pronoun them: he repeats the definite article three times unnecessarily, and inserts two needless prepositions, making them different where the reference is to the same noun. Being neither consistent with the rules, nor with the grammar, he would better omit the whole paragraph. The grammatical of the noun Virtue is this: But, in etymological parsing, the definitions explaining the properties of the parts ought to be regularly and rapidly rehearsed by the pupil, till all of them can be recited, and till he can discerne what is true or false in the description of any word in any intelligible sentence. All these the author omits; and, on account of this omission, his whole method of etymological parsing is miserable, and most defective. He has rejected the pronunciation of the word Virtue, "Vice degrades us." Here his form for the second: "Vice is a common substantive of the third person, in the singular number, and the nominative case." It should have been: "Vice is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, feminine gender, and nominative case; and is the subject of degrees; according to the rule which says, A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a verb must be in the nominative case." Because the meaning is: "Vice degrades us." This is the whole description of the word, with its construction, and to say vice is to leave the matter unfinished.

24. That virtue is a mode of verbally correcting erroneous sentence is: "The man is prudent which speaks little." This sentence, says Murray, is incorrect; because which is a pronoun of the neuter gender, and does not agree in gender with its antecedent man, which is masculine. A pronoun should agree with its antecedent in gender, etc., according to the fifth rule of syntax. Which should therefore be: "The man is prudent which speaks little." Again, after I visited Europe, I returned to America. This sentence, says he, is: "is not correct, because the verb visited is in the imperfect tense, and yet used here to express a action, not only past, but prior to the time referred to by the verb. By the thirteenth rule of syntax, when verbs are used that, in point of time, relate to each other, the order of commonly used be observed. The imperfect tense visited should therefore have been had visited, in the pluperfect tense, representing the action of visiting, not only past, but also prior to the time of the saying that the author has reluctantly introduced to the grammarian, and which is the subject of degrees; and is a common substantive of the third person, singular number, feminine gender, and nominative case; and is the subject of degrees, according to the rule which says, A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a verb must be in the nominative case." Because the meaning is: "Vice degrades us." This is the whole description of the word, with its construction, and to say vice is to leave the matter unfinished.
may select some gems of thought, which will fasten on the memory a worthy sentiment, or relieve the dulness of minute instruction. Such examples have been taken from various authors, and interspersed through the following pages.

27. The moral effect of early lessons being a point of the utmost importance, it is especially incumbent on all those who are endeavoring to confer the admission or inoculation of any principle which may have an improper tendency, and be ultimately prejudicial to those whom they instruct. In preparing this work for publication, the author has been so circumspect as to avoid anything which might be offensive to the most delicate and scrupulous reader; and, of the several thousand which he has given, he trusts that the greater part will be considered valuable on account of the sentiments they contain. But it is not necessary, in a work of this kind, to encumber his pages with what is copied and what is original. All strict definitions of the same thing are not marked so

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29. Many of the definitions and rules of grammar have so long been public property, and have been printed under so many names, that it is difficult, if not impossible, to know to whom they originally belonged. Of these, the author has freely availed himself, though seldom without some amendment; while he has carefully abstained from everything on which he supposed there could now be any individual claim. He has, however, few instances of quotations, and most of these have been acceded to by others, and have been marked with sufficient originality on the subject.

30. In truth, not a line has been copied with any view to the labor of composition. In preparing an English grammar from others already extant, to compose one more directly from the sources of the art, was the task which the writer proposed to himself. And though the theme is not one upon which a man may hope to write well, without a little laborious research and cautious reflection, yet, the parts of this treatise which have cost him the most labor, are those which consist chiefly of materials selected from the writings of others. These, however, are not the didactical portions of the book, but the proofs of the principles which have been proposed, and which advocates of grammar have been accustomed to elucidate principles, if not to establish them; and elucidation is often the sole purpose for which an example is needed.

31. Among men of the same profession, there is an unavoidable rivalry, so far as they become competitors for the same prize; but in competition there is nothing dishonorable, while excellence alone obtains distinction, and no advantage is sought by unfair means. It is evident that we ought to account him the best grammarian, who has executed the work of the critic among the authors, of language."—Minerva, Lib. 1, Cap. ii. Yet, as what is intuitively seen to be true or false, is already sufficiently proved or denied, many points in grammar need nothing more than the force of a great name; for it is generally acknowledged, that every authority in grammar may weigh with me, unless he shall have confirmed his assertions by reason, and also by examples, he shall win no confidence in respect to grammarian. But the student, says, Epistle 4, "Grammarians and critics differ in the things within their reach, the majority seem content to take their opinions upon trust. Hence, it is vain to expect that which is intrinsically best, will be everywhere preferred; or that which is meritorious might discard the opinions of others, and be not encouraged or respected by those who, for the making of books, prefer a pair of scissors to the pen.

36. The real history of grammar is little known; and many erroneous impressions are entertained concerning it: because the story of the system most generally received, has never been fully told; and that of a multitude now gone to oblivion, was never worth telling. In the distribution of grammatical fame, which has chiefly been made by the hand of interest, we have had a strange illustration of the saying: "Unto every one that hath shall be given, and he shall have abundance; but from him that hath not, shall be taken away even that which he hath."
very foremost rank among grammarians, and thrown the learning and talents of others Into the shade, or made tributary to his; every one of the leading grammarians is a master. —Pref. to Lity, p. xiv.

37. Few writers on grammar have been more noted than Lily and Murray. A law was made in England by Henry the Eighth, commanding Lily's grammar "only every- where to be used in the use of learners and for the use of masters." —Pref. to Lity, p. xiv. Being long kept in force by means of a special inquiry directed to be made by the bishops at their stated visitations, this law, for three hundred years, kept all the established schools of this science in a constant state of competition. That Lily's work is best seen in the beginning of the year 1747, is an important matter not inferior to the best types of the present age; as may be seen in a Latin Grammar written by Omni- 

38. Murray was an intelligent and very worthy man, to whose various labors in the compilation of books our schools are under many obligations. But in original thought and critical skill he fell far below most of the authors to whom, he confesses, "the grammatical part of his compilation is indebted for its matters; namely, Harris, Johnson, Loveth, Priestley, Beattie, Sheridan, Walker, Cooke, Blair, and Campbell." —Intro. to Gram., p. 7. It is certain and evident that he entered upon his task with no apparent hesitation. His biography informs us, "no careful examination of his conducted and severe habits. He not un- 

39. The only note which the compiler makes of it, as if it were the first time he was aware of it, reads: "It seems to me that the notion of Murray is not so much new as unexpected, and that the opinion of the world, success is the strongest proof of merit. Nor has the compiler" —Preface, p. 10.

40. For the nature and design of a book, whatever they may be, the author alone is answerable; but the nature and design of gram- mar, are no less required to the strain of this apology, than to the vast number of errors and defects which were overlooked by Murray in his work of compilation. There is no part of the volume more accurate, than
PREFACE.

44. He who makes a new grammar does nothing for the advancement of learning until his performance excel all earlier ones designed for the same purpose; and nothing for a man's honor unless such excellence result from the exercise of his own ingenuity and skill. A good style naturally commends itself to every reader—e'en to him who cannot tell why it is worthy of preference. Hence there is reason to believe that the true principles of practical grammar, deduced from custom and sanctioned by time, will never be universally superseded by anything which individual caprice may substitute. In the republic of letters there will always be some who can distinguish merit; and it is impossible at these should ever be converted into any whimsical theory of language, which goes to take void the learning of past ages. There will always be some who can discern the difference between originality of style and innovation in doctrine—between a due regard to the opinions of others and an actual usurpation of their text; and it is incredible that one should ever be satisfied with any mere compilation of grammar, or with any such orthoploy as either confesses or betrays the writer's own incompetence. For it is not to say that "an English grammar must necessarily be," in any considerable degree, if at all, a compilation. "The rule, the method, and the substance" may, on such a theme, be "compilation," in "the grammatical part" of the work, all compilation, beyond a fair use of authorities regularly quoted, or of materials either voluntarily furnished or free to all, most unavoidably implies—not conscious ability, generally known how to rival merit—"exemplary difficulty"—modestly thinking it moderate skill and inferior talents ribling the public by the spoils of genius, and eking precedence by such means as not even the purest desire of doing good can justify.

45. All praise of excellence must needs be comparative, because the thing itself is so. To excel in grammar is but to know better than others wherein grammatical excellence consists. Hence there is no fixed point of perfection beyond which such learning may not be carried. The limit to improvement is so much in the nature of the subject as in the powers of the mind, and in the inducements to exert them upon a theme so humble as so witting. Dr. Johnson suggests in his mastery preface, "that a whole life might be spent in examining and systematizing, and that even a whole life would not be sufficient." Who then will suppose, in the face of such facts and confessions as have been hitherto, that either in the faulty publications of Murray, or among the various modifications of them by other hands, we have any such work as deserves to be made a permanent standard of instruction in English grammar? The author of this treatise will not pretend to make it perfect; though he has bestowed upon it no inconsiderable pains, that a narrow limit to which it must be confined, might be filled up to the utmost advantage of the learner, as well as to the best direction and greatest relief of the teacher.

46. A KEY TO THE ORAL EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX is inserted in the Grammar, that the pupil may be enabled to fully prepare himself for that kind of mental discipline and classification of class purposes. Doing it unaided with the rule, and having seen the correction, he may be expected to state the rule and the reason for the change, without embarrassment or delay. It is the opinion of some teachers that no Key in all the student should be given. But there are very many grammars, not destitute of exercises in false syntax, are published without either formular correction, or a Key to show the right reading. But English grammar, in every extensive exhibition of it, is a subject dry and difficult enough for the younger, when we have used it best endeavors to free it from all obscurities and doubts. The author thinks he has learned from experience, that, with explicit help of this sort, most pupils will not only gain more knowledge of the art in a given time, but in the end find their acquisitions are more permanent and more permanent.

47. A SEPARATE KEY TO THE EXERCISES FOR WRITING is published for the convenience of teachers and private learners. For an obvious reason this Key should not be put into the hands of the school boy. Being a distinct volume, it may be bound by itself or with the Grammar. Those teachers who desire to exercise their pupils orally in correcting the grammar without a Key, can at any time make use of this series of exercises for such purpose.

48. From the first edition of the following treatise there was made by the author, for the use of young learners, a brief abstract entitled, "THE FIRST LINES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR," in which all the leading doctrines of the Grammar of the language were necessarily excluded from this epitome; nor was it designed for those who never look without wearing it out. But teachers, as well as connoisseurs, demands small and cheap treatises for children; and those teachers who approve of this system of grammatical instruction will find many reasons for preferring the present Lines to any other compendium, as an introduction to the study of these Institutes.

49. Having undertaken and prosecuted this work, with the hope of facilitating the study of the English Language, and thus promoting the improvement of the young, the author now leaves the toils to the candid and industrious; and has committed the important business of instruction. Now far he has succeeded in the execution of his design is willingly left to the just decision of those who are qualified to judge.
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INTRODUCTORY.

LANGUAGE.

We can think of any object which we have seen—a tree, for example—to see it in the mind, like an image or picture. This mental image or picture is called an idea of the tree. The word tree enables us to express the idea, either in speaking or writing. Words serve to bring to the mind the ideas of things previously observed. Thus we may think of various things, and recall to our minds the ideas of them by such words as the following:

A horse.
A white horse.
A soldier on horseback.
A lady riding a black horse.
A horse running away with a carriage.

In a similar manner may be brought to the mind the ideas of things heard, smelled, tasted, or felt. Thus:

Thunder.—The thunder peals.
A rose.—The rose smells sweetly.
An orange.—The orange has a sweet and acid taste.
Velvet.—Velvet is soft and smooth to the touch.

When we try to think of these things, we find that, although we can seem to hear, smell, taste, or feel them, we cannot do this so clearly as we can see in the mind a tree, a horse, or other object of sight. Hence we say, the ideas of things seen are clearer than those obtained through any of the other senses.

In thinking we combine ideas in various ways. Thus:

The bird builds its nest in the tree.

Here we have several ideas combined in a single thought:—of the bird, of building, of a nest, of a tree; and these are related to each other in various ways:—the bird builds; the nest is built; the nest is in the tree. There are, thus, four ideas of things, and several ideas of their relations one to another.
LANGUAGE.

We cannot think without constantly using many ideas; and we cannot think clearly or communicate our thoughts to other persons without using words to represent those ideas. These words joined together in the right way make language.

Language is the expression of our thoughts in speaking or in writing.

There are two kinds of language: spoken language and written language.

Obs. 1. —Language, in the primitive sense of the term, embraced only vocal expression, or human speech uttered by the mouth; but, after letters were invented to represent articulate sounds, language became twofold, spoken and written; so that the term language now signifies any series of sounds or letters formed into words and employed for the expression of thought.

Obs. 2. —Letters claim to be a part of language, not merely because they represent articulate sounds, or spoken words, but because they form words of themselves, and have the power to become intelligible signs of thought, even independently of sound. Literature being the counterpart of speech, and more plentiful in words, the person who cannot read and write is about as deficient in language as the well-instructed deaf mute: perhaps, more so; for copiousness, even of speech, results from letters.

By grammar we learn how to use language correctly both in speaking and in writing.

English grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly.

It is divided into four parts, namely, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

Etymology treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

Syntax treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

Prosody treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement, of words in sentences.

Part I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

I.—LETTERS.

A letter is an alphabetic mark, or character, commonly representing some elementary sound of a word.

An elementary sound of a word, is a simple or primary sound of the human voice, used in speaking.

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

The letters in the English alphabet are twenty-six; the elementary sounds in the language are about thirty-six.

A knowledge of the letters consists in an acquaintance with their names, their classes, their powers, and their forms.

The letters are printed, written, or otherwise represented in a variety of forms. The following are the four chief modes of representation:

1. 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. 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. 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.

Names of the Letters.


OBS. 1.—The names of the letters, as expressed in the modern languages, are most commonly framed with reference to their powers, or sounds. Yet there is not in English no letter of which the name is always identical with its power; for A, E, I, O, and U are the only letters which can name themselves, and all these have other sounds than those which their names express.

OBS. 2.—These letters which name themselves, take for their names those sounds which they usually represent at the end of an accented syllable; thus the names, A, E, I, O, U, are uttered with the sounds given to the same letters in the first syllables of the other names, Ad, Enoch, Isaac, Obad, Urias; or in the first syllables of the common words, paper, pen, ped, profit, pupil. The other letters, most of which can never be perfectly sounded alone, have names in which their powers are combined with other sounds more vocal; as, Bee, Bee, Dee, Bees, Hee, Eee, En, En, Jay, Kay, Kee. But, in this respect, the terms Aitch and Double-u are irregular; because they have no obvious reference to the powers of the letters thus named.

OBS. 3.—Letters, like all other things, must be learned and spoken of by their names; yet, as the simple characters are better known and more easily exhibited than their written names, the former are often substituted for the latter, and are read as the words for which they are assumed.

OBS. 4.—The letters, once learned, may be used unnamed; and so are they always used, except in oral spelling, or when some of their own number are to be particularized.

Classes of the Letters.

The letters are divided into two general classes, vowels and consonants.

A vowel is a letter which forms a perfect sound when uttered alone; as, a, e, o.

A consonant is a letter which cannot be perfectly uttered till joined to a vowel; as, b, d, t.

The vowels are a, e, i, o, u, and sometimes w and y. All the other letters are consonant.

W or y is called a consonant when it precedes a vowel heard in the same syllable; as in wine, twine, whine; ye, yet, youth; in all other cases, these letters are vowels; as in newly, dewy, eye-brow; Yeesh, Yestadt, yitria.

Classes of Consonants.

The consonants are divided into semivowels and mutes.

A semivowel is a consonant which can be imperfectly sounded without a vowel, so that at the end of a syllable its sound may be protracted; as, l, n, r, in at, an, as.

A mute is a consonant which cannot be sounded at all without a vowel, and which at the end of a syllable suddenly stops the breath; as, k, p, t, in ak, ap, at.

The semivowels are f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, t, x, y, z, and c and g soft: but w or y at the end of a syllable, is a vowel; and the sound of c, f, g, h, j, s, or x, can be protracted only as an aspirate, or strong breath.

Four of the semivowels,—l, m, n, and r,—are termed liquida, on account of the fluency of their sounds; and four others,—v, w, y, and z,—are likewise more vocal that the aspirates.

The mutes are eight; b, d, k, p, g, t, and c and g hard: three of these,—k, g, and c hard—sound exactly alike; b, d, and g hard, stop the voice less suddenly than the rest.
Powers of the Letters.

The powers of the letters are properly those elementary sounds which their figures are used to represent; but letters formed into words are capable of communicating thought independently of sound.

The vowel sounds which form the basis of the English language, and which ought therefore to be perfectly familiar to every one who speaks it, are those which are heard at the beginning of the words, *ate, at, ah, ahh, elf, ill, old, on, ooze, use, us,* and that of *u* in *bull.*

In the formation of words or syllables, some of these fourteen primary sounds may be joined together, as in *ay, oil, out, out;* and all of them may be preceded or followed by certain motions and positions of the lips and tongue, which will severally convert them into other terms in speech. Thus the same essential sounds may be changed into a new series of words by an *f*; as, *fate, fud, far, fall, feel, fell, file, fell, fold, fond, fool, fuse, fuss, full.* Again, into as many more with a *p*; as, *pate, pat, par, pull, peel, pell, pile, pill, pole, pond, pool, pule, purr, pull.*

The simple consonant sounds in English are twenty-two: they are marked by *b, d, f, g* hard, *h, k, l, m, n, ng, p, r, s, sh, t,* *th* sharp, *th* flat, *v, w, y, z,* and *zh.* But *zh* is written only to show the sound of other letters; as of *s* in *pleasure,* or *z* in *azure.*

All these sounds are heard distinctly in the following words: *buy, die, fie, guy, high, kie, lie, my, nigh, eying, pie, rye, sigh, shy, tie, thigh, thy, vie, we, ye, zebra, seizure.* Again: most of them may be repeated in the same word if not in the same syllable; as in *biber, diddle, fifty, giggle, high-hung, cockle, silly, mimic, ninny, singing, pippin, mirror, hisses, flesh-brush, little, thinketh, thither, vivid, waitul, union, dixies, vision.*

Thus it is, that from principals so few and simple as about six or seven and thirty plain elementary sounds, represented by characters still fewer, we derive such a variety of oral and written signs, as may suffice to explain or record all the sentiments and transactions of all men in all ages.

The former ends no English word, if ever, used alone even to form syllables. But the reader may easily learn to utter them all separately, according to the foregoing series. Let us note them as plainly as possible: *eigh, s, ah, awe, eh, i, eye, ey, ci, oo, yeve, y,* *sh.* Thus the eight long sounds, *eigh, ah, awe, eh, eye, oh, ooh, yeve,* are, or may be words; but the six less vocal, called the short vowel sounds, as in *at, et, el, ut, put,* are commonly heard only in connection with consonants; except the first, which is perhaps the most frequent sound of the vowel *A or a,* a sound sometimes given to the word *a,* perhaps most generally; as in the phrase, "twice a day."
ORTHOGRAPHY.

OBS. 5.—The consonants $C$ and $Q$ have no sounds peculiar to themselves. $Q$ has always the power of $k$, and is constantly followed by $y$ and some vowel or two more in the same syllable; as in quake, quest, guilt, guilt. $C$ is hard, like $k$, before $a$, $o$, and $u$; and soft, like $s$, before $e$, $i$, and $y$; thus the syllables $co$, $ci$, $cu$, $cy$, are pronounced $ko$, $si$, $ku$, $sy$. $S$ before $c$ preserves the former sound, but coalesces with the latter; hence the syllables, $soc$, $soc$, $sci$, $socu$, $sucy$, are sounded $sko$, $se$, $su$, $sco$, $sky$. $Ce$ and $ci$ have sometimes the sound of $ch$; as in ocean, social. $Ch$ commonly represents the sound of $tch$; as in church.

OBS. 6.—$G$, as well as $C$, has different sounds before different vowels. $G$ is always hard, or guttural, before $a$, $o$, and $u$; and generally soft, like $j$, before $e$, $i$, or $y$; thus the syllables, $go$, $ge$, $gi$, $go$, $gu$, $gy$, are pronounced $go$, $je$, $ji$, $go$, $gu$, $gy$.

Forms of the Letters.

In the English language, the Roman characters are generally employed; sometimes, the Italic; and occasionally, the Old English. In writing, we use the Script.

The letters have severally two forms, by which they are distinguished as capitals and small letters.

Small letters constitute the body of every work, and capitals are used for the sake of eminence and distinction.

Rules for the use of Capitals.

RULE I.—Titles of Books.

The titles of books, and the heads of their principal divisions, should be printed in capitals. When books are merely mentioned, the chief words in their titles begin with capitals, and the other letters are small; as, "Pope's Essay on Man."

RULE II.—First Words.

The first word of every distinct sentence, or of any clause separately numbered or paragraphed, should begin with a capital.

RULE III.—Names of Deity.

All names of the Deity should begin with capitals; as, God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being.

RULE IV.—Proper Names.

Titles of office or honor, and proper names of every description, should begin with capitals; as, Chief Justice Hale, William, London, the Park, the Albion, the Spectator, the Thames.

RULE V.—Object Personified.

The name of an object personified, when it conveys an idea strictly individual, should begin with a capital; as, "Come, gentle Spring, ethereal mildness, come."

RULE VI.—Words Derived.

Words derived from proper names of persons or places should begin with capitals; as, Newtonian, Grecian, Roman.

RULE VII.—I and O.

The words I and O should always be capitals; as, "Out of the depths have I cried unto thee O Lord."

RULE VIII.—In Poetry.

Every line in poetry, except what is regarded as making but one verse with the line preceding, should begin with a capital; as, "Our sons their fathers' falling language see, And such as Chaucer is, shall Dryden be." —Pope.

RULE IX.—Examples, etc.

A full example, a distinct speech, or a direct quotation, should begin with a capital; as, "Remember this maxim: 'Know thyself.'" "Virgil says, 'Labor conquers all things.'"

RULE X.—Chief Words.

Other words of particular importance, and such as denote the principal subjects of discourse, may be distinguished by capitals. Proper names frequently have capitals throughout.

SYLLABLES.

A syllable is one or more letters pronounced in one sound, and is either a word or a part of a word; as, $a$, $an$, and.

In every word there are as many syllables as there are distinct sounds; as, gram-ma-ri-an.

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

A diphthong is two vowels joined in one syllable; as, ea in beat, ou in sound.

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

An improper diphthong is a diphthong in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, oa in loaf.

A triphthong is three vowels joined in one syllable; as, eau in beauty, iou in anxious.

A proper triphthong is a triphthong in which all the vowels are sounded; as, voy in buoy.

An improper triphthong is a triphthong in which only one or two of the vowels are sounded; as, eau in beauty, iou in anxious.

Syllabication.

In dividing words into syllables, we are to be directed chiefly by the ear; it may however be proper to observe, as far as practicable, the following rules:—

RULE I.—Consonants.

Consonants should generally be joined to the vowels or diphthongs which they modify in utterance; as, ap-ostolic.

RULE II.—Vowels.

Two vowels, coming together, if they make not a diphthong, must be parted in dividing the syllables; as, ær-ial.

RULE III.—Terminations.

Derivative and grammatical terminations should generally be separated from the radical words to which they have been added; as, harm-less, great-ly, con-nec-ted.

RULE IV.—Prefixes.

Prefixes in general form separate syllables; as, mis-place, out-ride, up-lift; but if their own primitive meaning be disregarded, the case may be otherwise; thus re-create and re-count are words of different import.

III.—Words.

A word is one or more syllables spoken or written as the sign of some idea, or of some manner of thought.

Species and Figure of Words.

Words are distinguished as primitive or derivative, and as simple or compound. The former division is called their species; the latter, their figure.

A primitive word is one that is not formed from any simpler word in the language; as, harm, great, connect.

A derivative word is one that is formed from some simpler word in the language; as, harmless, greatly, connected, disconnect, unconnected.

A simple word is one that is not compounded, not composed of other words; as, watch, man, never, the, less.

A compound word is one that is composed of two or more simple words; as, watchman, nevertheless.

Permanent compounds are consolidated; as, book-store, housekeeper: others, which may be called temporary compounds, are formed by the hyphen; as, glass-house, school-master.

Rules for the Figure of Words.

I.—Words regularly or analogically united, and commonly known as forming a compound, should never be needlessly broken apart.

II.—When the simple words would only form a regular phrase, of the same meaning, the compounding of any of them ought to be avoided.
ORTHOGRAPHY.

III.—Words otherwise liable to be misunderstood, must be joined together or written separately, as the sense and construction may happen to require.

IV.—When two or more compounds are connected in one sentence, none of them should be split to make an ellipsis of half a word.

V.—When the parts of a compound do not fully coalesce; as, to-day; to-morrow; or when each retains its original accent, so that the compound has more than one, or one that is movable; as, first-born, hanger-on, laughter-loving, the hyphen should be inserted between them.

VI.—When a compound has but one accented syllable in pronunciation, as watchword, statesman, gentleman, and the parts are such as admit of a complete coalescence, no hyphen should be inserted between them.

IV.—SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

Obs.—This important art is to be acquired rather by means of the spelling-book or dictionary, and by observation in reading, than by the study of written rules. The orthography of our language is attended with much uncertainty and perplexity: many words are variously spelled by the best scholars, and many others are not usually written according to the analogy of similar words. But to be ignorant of the orthography of such words as are uniformly spelled and frequently used, is justly considered disgraceful. The following rules may prevent some embarrassment, and thus be of service to those who wish to be accurate.

Rules for Spelling.

RULE I.—FINAL F, L, or S.

Mono-syllables ending in f, l, or s, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, staff, mill, pass: except three in f—cleft, if, of; three in l—bul, sal, sol; and eleven in s—as, gas, has, was, yes, its, this, us, thus, pus.

RULE II.—OTHER FINALS.

Words ending in any other consonant than f, l, or s, do not double the final letter: except add, add, add, egg, tan, err, Burr, purr, yurr, butt, buzz, fus, and some proper names.

RULE III.—DOUBLING.

Mono-syllables, and words accented on the last syllable, when they end with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, or by a vowel after gu, double their final consonant before an additional syllable that begins with a vowel: as, rob, robber; permit, permitting; acquit, acquit, acquitting.

Exc.—X final, being equivalent to ks, is never doubled.

RULE IV.—NO DOUBLING.

A final consonant, when it is not preceded by a single vowel, or when the accent is not on the last syllable, should remain single before an additional syllable: as, told, telling; visit, visited; general, generalise.

Exc.—But t and s final are sometimes doubled (though according to Webster, improperly), when the last syllable is not accented: as, travel, traveller; bias, blessed.

RULE V.—REMAINING.

Words ending with any double letter, preserve it double before any additional termination, not beginning with the same letter; as in the following derivatives: seeing, bluesful, oddly, hilly, stiffness, illness, smallness, carelessness, agreement, agreeable.

Exc.—The irregular words, field, sold, told, chart, split, shall, will, beat, post, and the derivatives from the word point, are exceptions to this rule.

RULE VI.—FINAL E.

The final e mute of a primitive word, is generally omitted before an additional termination beginning with a vowel: as, rate, ratable; force, forcible; rave, raving; eye, eying.

Exc.—Words ending in ce or ge, retain the e before able or ous, to preserve the soft sounds of c and g: as, peace, pacific, change, changeable; outrage, outrageous.

RULE VII.—FINAL E.

The final e of a primitive word, is generally retained before an additional termination beginning with a consonant: as, pale, paleness; lodge, lodgement.

Exc.—When the e is preceded by a vowel, it is sometimes omitted: as, true, truly; awe, awful; and sometimes retained: as, rue, rueful; shoe, shoemaker.
OPTHOGRAPHY.

RULE VIII.—FAAL Y.

The final y of a primitive word, when preceded by a consonant, is changed into i before an additional termination: as, merry, merrier, merriest, merrily, merriment; pity, pitied, pities, pitiless, pitiful, pitiable.

EXC.—Before ings, y is retained to prevent the doubling of i; as, pities, pitying. Words ending in ies, dropping the e by Rule 6th, change i into y, for the same reason; as, die, dying.

Ora.—When a vowel precedes, y should not be changed; as, day, days; valley, valleys; money, moneys; monkey, monkeys.

RULE IX.—COMPOUNDS.

Compounds generally retain the orthography of the simple words which compose them; as, heroef, wherein, horseman, recall, uphill, shellfish.

EXC.—In permanent compounds, the words full and all drop one l; as, handful, careful, always, withal: in others, they retain both; as, full-eyed, all-wise, save-all.

Questions for Review.

I.—INTRODUCTORY.

What is an Idea?
What is a Thought?
What is Language?
What is the use of Grammar?
What is English Grammar?
How is it divided?
Of what does Orthography treat?
Of what does Etymology treat?
Of what does Syntax treat?
Of what does Prosody treat?

II.—LETTERS.

Of what does Orthography treat?
What is a Letter?
What is an elementary sound of a word?
What name is given to the sound of a letter?—What epithet, to a letter not sounded?
How many letters are there in English?—How many sounds do they represent?
In what does a knowledge of the letters consist?
What variety is noticed in letters that are always the same?
What different sorts of types, or letters, are used in English?

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What are the names of the letters in English?
Which of the letters name themselves, and which do not?
What are the names of all in both numbers, singular and plural?

III.—CLASSES OF LETTERS.

Is to what general classes are the letters divided?
What is a vowel?
What is a consonant?
What letters are vowels?—What consonants?
When are w and y consonants, and when vowels?
How are the consonants divided?
What is a semivowel?
What is a mute?
What letters are semivowels, and which of these are aspirates?
What letters are called liquids, and why?
How many and which are the letters reckoned mutes?

IV.—POWERS, OR SOUNDS.

What is meant, when we speak of "the powers of the letters?"
In what series of short words are heard our chief vowel sounds?
How may these sounds be modified to form words or syllables?
Can you form a word from each by means of an f?
Will you form another such series with a p?
How many and what are the consonant sounds in English?
In what series of words may all these sounds be heard?
In what series of words is each of them heard more than once?
Do our letters admit of combinations enough?
What do we derive from these elements of language?

V.—FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

What is said of the employment of the several styles of letters in English?
What distinction of form do we make in each of the letters?
What is said of small letters, and why are capitals used?
How many rules for capitals are given, and what are their heads?
What says Rule 1st of titles of books?—Rule 2d, of first words?—Rule 3d, of names of Deity?—Rule 4th, of proper names?—Rule 5th, of objects personified?—Rule 6th, of words derived?—Rule 7th, of i and o?—Rule 8th, of poetry?—Rule 9th, of examples, etc.?—Rule 10th, of chief words?

VI.—SYLLABLES.

What is a syllable?
Can the syllables of a word be perceived by the ear?
What is a word of one syllable called?—a word of two syllables?—of three?
—of four or more?
What is a diphthong?
What is a proper diphthong?—an improper diphthong?
What is a triphthong?
ORTHOGRAPHY.

What is a proper triphthong?—An improper triphthong? What chiefly directs us in dividing words into syllables? How many rules of syllabication are given, and what are their heads? What says Rule 1st, of consonants?—Rule 2d, of vowels?—Rule 3d, of terminations?—Rule 4th, of prefixes?—Rule 5th, of compounds?—Rule 6th, of lines full?

VII.—Words.

What is a word? How are words distinguished in regard to species and figure. What is a simple word? What is a derivative word? What is a primitive word? What is a word? What is a compound word? How do permanent compounds differ from others? How many are the rules for the figure of words, and what are their heads? What says Rule 1st, of compounds?—Rule 2d, of simples?—Rule 3d, of the sense?—Rule 4th, of ellipses?—Rule 5th, of the hyphen?—Rule 6th, of using no hyphen?

VIII.—Spelling.

What is spelling? How is this art to be acquired? How many rules for spelling are there, and what are their heads? What says Rule 1st, of final, l, or s?—Rule 2d, of other finals?—Rule 3d, of the doubling of consonants?—Rule 4th, against the doubling of consonants?—Rule 5th, of retaining?—Rule 6th, of final e?—Rule 7th, of final a?—Rule 8th, of final y?—Rule 9th, of compounds?

Exercises for Writing.

I.—CAPITALS.

These exercises are classified according to rules on pages 24, 25.

1. The pedant quoted Johnson’s dictionary of the English language, Gregory’s dictionary of arts and sciences, Crabbe’s English synonyms, Walker’s key to the pronunciation of proper names, Sheridan’s rhetorical grammar, and the diversions of purley.

2. Gratitude is a delightful emotion. the grateful heart at once performs its duty and endeavors itself to purley.

3. What madness and folly, to deny the great first cause! Shall mortal man presume against his maker? shall he not fear the omnipotent? shall he not reverence the everlasting one?—‘The fear of the lord is the beginning of wisdom.’

4. xerxes the great, emperor of Persia, united the Medes, Persians, Bactrians, Lydians, Assyrians, Lykians, and many other nations, in an expedition against Greece.

5. I observed, that, when the votaries of religion were led aside, she commonly recalled them, by her emissary conscience, before habit had time to enchain them.

6. Heracles is said to have killed the Nemean lion, the Erymanthian boar, the Cretan serpent, and the Symphysian birds. The Christian religion has brought all mysticologic stories and millesian fables into disrepute.

7. 'I live as I did, I think as I did, I love you as I did: but all these are to no purpose; the world will not live, think, or love as I do.—o wretched prince! o cruel reverse of fortune! o father Micipsa!

8. are these thy views? proceed, illustrious youth, and virtue guard thee to the throne of truth!

9. Those who pretend to love peace, should remember this maxim: “it is the second blow that makes the battle.”

II.—CAPITALS. MISCELLANEOUS.

'time and I will challenge any other two,' said Philip.—'thus,' said Diogenes, “Do I trample on the pride of Plato?—'true,' replied Plato; ‘but is it not with the greater pride of Diogenes?’

the father in a transport of joy, burst into the following words: ‘o excellent Scipio! heaven has given thee more than human virtue! o glorious leader! o wondrous youth!’

Epantheon was the Theban general, was remarkable for his love of truth. he never told a lie, even in jest.

and Pharaoh said to Joseph, “Say to thy brethren, ‘do this—lade your beasts, and go to the land of Canaan.’”

who is she that, with graceful steps and a lively air, trips over yonder plain? her name is health: she is the daughter of exercise and temperance.

to the penitent sinner, a mediator and intercessor with the sovereign of the universe, appear comfortable names.

the murder of Abel, the curse and rejection of Cain, and the birth and adoption of Seth, are almost the only events related of the immediate family of Adam, after his fall.

on what foundation stands the warrior’s pride, how just his hopes, let Swedish Charles decide.

in every leaf that trembles to the breeze, i hear the voice of God among the trees.
III.—SYLLABLES.

Divide the following words into their proper syllables:
ado, adorn, adown, adrift, anoint, athwart, awry, bespeak, bestow, between, encroach, incrust, foreknow, forestall, forswear, undersanged, preterit, retrace, unyielded, unrepaid, unresting, underbid, upholder, withal.

Civil, color, copy, damask, dozen, ever, feather, gather, heaven, lemon, meadow, never, orange, punish, robin, shovetl, timid, whither, benefit, canister, generous, academical, several, miserable, tolerable, epidemic, paralytic, liberal, characteristic, experimental.

Amorosa, convenient, ingenious, omniscience, peculiar, substantial, sociable, partiality, pecuniary, announce, enunciate, appreciate, associate, expatiate, negotiate.

Eastern, pallet, stormy, England, anthill, cowslip, farewell, foremost, hoghead, homeward, sandstone, forever, husbandman, painstaking, bookseller, sequential, requisition, architecture, machinery, aquecnd, arable, horrible, inflammation, impossible, preferable, perilous, business, preferred.

IV.—FIGURE OF WORDS.

Correct the errors in the following, according to the rules on pages 27, 28.

1. The shine of the plough share is the farmer's wealth.
The cross row has ever had some thing of a magic spell in it.
The old fashioned are apt to think the world grows worse.
The stealing of water melons may lead the house breaking.
A good clothes brush helps greatly to make a gentle man.

2. An ill-tongue is a fearful corruptor of good-manners.
Envoy not the good-luck of prosperous transgressors.
St. Paul admonishes Timothy to refuse old-wives' fables.
Lawmakers have often been partial to male-descendants.
New-year's gifts brighten many a face on new-year's day.

3. They that live in glass-houses should not throw stones.
A glass house is a house in which glass is manufactured.
A spirit stirring discourse is seldom a long winded one.
Knowledge and virtue are the stepping stones to honor.
The American whip poor Will is a night warbling bird.

4. Let school and meeting-houses be pleasantly located.
The teapot and kettle are now deemed indispensable.
Both the ten and the eight syllable verses are lambic.
Most, at six or seventeen years of age, are men and women.
A ketch is a vessel with two masts, a main and mizen-mast.

5. The bloody-minded man seldom dwells long in safety.
A tiresmith puts on wheelbands redhot, then cools them.
Plato was so called because he was broadshouldered.
Time-honored custom may be soul-destroying folly.
Is evenhanded honesty expected in slave merchants?

6. A good pay-master is always a man of some fore-thought.
The glory of the common-wealth is the states-man's boast.
Rain-bows are made of sun-shine dissolved in sky water.

V.—SPELLING.

In the following exercises the pupil is required to correct the errors in spelling according to the rules on pages 28, 29, 30.

1. Few know the value of a friend, til they lose him.
Good men pass by offences, and take no revenge.
Hear patiently, if thou wouldst speak well.

2. The business of war is devastation and destruction.
To err is human; to forgive, divine.
A bad speller should not pretend to scholarship.

3. It often requires deep digging, to obtain pure water.
Praise is most shamed by the praiseworthy.
He that hoists too much sail, runs a risk of oversetting.

4. Quarrels are more easily begun than ended.
Contempt leaves a deeper scar than anger.
Of all tame animals the flattener is the most mischievous.

5. Smallness with talness makes the figure too slender.
Handiness is always in danger of embarrassment.
The recklessness of license is no attribute of freedom.

6. Good examples are very convincing teachers.
Doubts should not excite contention, but inquiry.
- Obliging conduct procures deserved esteem.

7. Wise men measure time by their improvement of it.
Learn to estimate all things by their real usefulness.
Encouragement increases with success.

8. Nothing essential to happiness is unattainable.
Vices, though near relations, are all at variance.
Before thou denyest a favor, consider the request.

9. Good-will is a more powerful motive than constraint.
A well-spent day prepares us for sweet repose.
The path of fame is altogether an uphill road.
II.

1. He is tall enough who walks uprightly.
   Repetition makes small transgressions great.
   Religion regulates the will and affections.
2. To carry a full cup, even, requires a steady hand.
   Idleness is the nest in which mischief lays its eggs.
   The whole journey of life is beset with foes.
3. Peace of mind should be preferred to bodily safety.
   A bad beginning is unfavorable to success.
   Very fruitful trees often need to be pruned.
4. None ever gained esteem by tattling and gossiping.
   Religion purifies, fortifies, and tranquillizes the mind.
5. Indolence and listlessness are foes to happiness.
   Carelessness has occasioned many a wearisome step.
6. In all thy undertakings, ponder the motive and the end.
   Wisdom rescues the careless from disaster.
   Valleys are generally more fertile than hills.
7. Due to appreciate and improve your privileges.
   To borrow of future time, is thriftless management.
   A cascade, or waterfall, is a charming object in scenery.
8. Pitying friends cannot save us in a dying hour.
   A covetous person is always in want.
   Fair appearances sometimes cover foul purposes.
9. Cold numness had quite bereft her of sense.
   A cascade, or waterfall, is a charming object in scenery.
   Weigh your subject well, before you speak positively.

III.

1. He that scoffs at the crooked, should beware of stooping.
   Pictures that resemble flowers, smell only of paint.
   Misdemeanors are the pioneers of vices.
2. To remit a wrong, leaves the offender in debt.
   Superlative commendation is near akin to detraction.
   Pity admits not of excessive sorrow.
3. You are safe in forgetting benefits you have conferred.
   He has run well who has outstripped his own errors.
   The briers of prejudice often preclude conviction.
   A true friend is a most valuable acquisition.
   Weigh your subject well, before you speak positively.
   Difficulties are often increased by mismanagement.
ORTHOGRAPHY.

Diseases are more easily prevented than cured. Contrivers of mischief often entrap themselves. Corrupt speech indicates a dissipated mind. Assuasion does not always remove doubt. Hypocrites are like wolves in sheep's clothing. Ostentations liberality is its own paymaster.

V.—MISCELLANEOUS.
A downhill road may be travelled with ease. Distempered fancy can swell a molehill to a mountain. Let your own unbiased judgment determine. A knave can often undersell his honest neighbors. Xenophanes preferred reputation to wealth. True politeness is the offspring of benevolence. Loveliers are generally the dupes of designing men. Rewards are for those who have fulfilled their duty. Who trusts a hungry boy in a cupboard of dainties? Miser acquaints a man with strange bedfellows. The liberal man ties his purse with a beau-not. Double-dealers are seldom long in favor. The characters of the crow are wondrous wonders. The plagiarist is a jackal decked with stolen plumes. All virtues are in agreement; all vices, at variance. Personal liberty is every man's natural birthright. There, except in clouds, the blueish hills ascend. The birds frame to thy song their cheerful cheruping. There figs, sky-dyed, a purple hue disclose. Lysander goes twice a day to the chocolate-house. Years following years steal sumthing every day. The soul of the slothful but dwells in his body. What think you of a clergyman in a soldier's drab? Justice is here holding the stiliards for a balance. The humming-bird is sometimes no bigger than a bumble-bee. The musicotes will make you as spotted as a salmon trout. Cruelty to animals is a malicious and lo-lived vice. Absolute Necessity must sign their death-warrant. He who catches flies, emulates the nectar-napper. The frogs had long lived unmolested in a heron's pond. "These are villainous creatures," says a blokehead bloy. The robbin-read-breast tit o' late had rest, And children sacred hold a martin's nest.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

I.—THE SENTENCE.

In the utterance of any definite thought, such as, *Birds fly—The sun shines—Fishes swim*, there is obviously some person or thing spoken of, and something said of that person or thing. The former is called the subject, and the latter the predicate. When united so as to make complete sense, these form what is called a proposition; and a proposition, or a combination of two or more propositions, forms a sentence.

Thus *Man is mortal* is a sentence containing one proposition; and *Art is long, and time is fleeting* is a sentence containing two propositions.

The distinction between the subject and the predicate of a sentence should be clearly understood. This distinction is marked in the following sentences:

**Subjects.**

- Birds
- The flowers
- Perseverance
- The love of truth
- An honest man

**Predicates.**

- sing.
- are fading.
- overcomes all obstacles.
- will prevail over error.
- is the noblest work of God.

The following definitions will now be understood.

A sentence is an assemblage of words, making complete sense; as, "Reward sweetens labor."—"The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom."
Every sentence must contain two principal parts; namely, the subject and the predicate.

Whatever is directly spoken of in the sentence is the subject; as, "The sun has set." — "Can you write?"

That which is said of the subject is the predicate; as, "Beauty fades."

Any combination of the subject and predicate is called a proposition.

Words added to other words in a sentence to modify or limit their meaning are called adjuncts; as, "A good scholar rapidly improves."

Sentences are divided, with respect to the nature of the propositions which they contain, into four classes; declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory.

A sentence is declarative, when it expresses an affirmation or negation; interrogative, when it expresses a question; imperative, when it expresses a command; and exclamatory, when it expresses an exclamation.

Exercises.

1. Point out the subject and the predicate in the following sentences, and state to which of the four classes each sentence belongs.

One.—In interrogative and exclamatory sentences, the words are usually transposed; in imperative sentences, the subject is often understood; as, "Bring me a slate;" in which the subject is thou or you, understood.

The tree bears fruit. The ox bears a yoke. The carpenter uses a saw. Avarice causes crime. The miser loves gold. The boy has told an untruth. The merchant has made a fortune. The river overflowed its banks. lend Charles a book. Has Mary received the letter? Will Richard return soon? How hard a task he has! The scholar's diligence deserves a reward. Do not injure your neighbor. How kindly he treated his schoolmate! Has Robert found his pencil?

2. Write predicates for the following subjects.


THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

3. Write subjects for the following predicates.

— is writing. — was too late. — did not improve. — will be rewarded. — should be treated with kindness. — brings misery. — is a source of happiness.

4. Insert as many adjuncts as possible to the subject and predicate of each of the following sentences.

Example.

The horses ran.

The wild horses ran away very swiftly.

The ship sailed. Flowers bloom. Flowers fade. Birds fly. The sun shines. The scholar improves. The oxen are grazing. The man is ploughing. The dog is barking. The woman is washing. The storm rages. The wind blows. The lightning flashes. The thunder peals.

II.—THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The words that compose a sentence are used for various purposes in connection with the subject or predicate. Some are names of persons or things; some express action; some, quality; others, relation; and some are used to connect words or propositions.

For this reason the words or parts of a sentence have been arranged in classes, called the Parts of Speech.

The Parts of Speech, or sorts of words, in English, are ten; namely, the article, the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the verb, the participle, the adverb, the conjunction, the preposition, and the interjection.

An article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns to limit their signification; as, The air, the stars; an island, a ship.

A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned; as, George, York, man, apple, truth.

An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality; as, A wise man; a new book. You two are diligent.
A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun: as, "The boy loves his book; he has long lessons, and he learns them well."

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon: as, I am, I rule, I am ruled; I love, thou lovest, he loves.

A participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun. It is generally formed by adding ing, d, or ed, to the verb: thus, from the verb rule, are formed three participles: two simple and one compound; as, 1, ruling; 2, ruled; 3, having ruled.

An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or another adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner; as, "They are now here, studying very diligently."

A conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected; as, "Thou and he are happy, because you are good."

A preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun; as, "The paper lies before me on the desk."

An interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind; as, Oh! alas! ah! poh! phaw! avvant!

Definitions of Terms.

A definition of anything or class of things is such a description of it, as distinguishes that entire thing or class from every thing else, by briefly telling what it is.

A rule of grammar is some law, more or less general, by which custom regulates and prescribes the right use of language.

A praxis is a method of exercise, showing the learner how to proceed. (The word literally signifies action, doing, practice, or formal use.)

An example is a particular instance or model, serving to prove or illustrate some given proposition or truth.

An exercise is some technical performance required of the learner, in order to test his knowledge or skill by use. Parsing is the resolving or explaining of a sentence, or of some related word or words, according to the definitions and rules of grammar.

Exercises in Parsing.

Praxis I.—Etymological.

In the First Praxis, it is required of the pupil, after analyzing the sentence, by pointing out the subject and predicate, with the adverbs in each, to distinguish the different parts of speech, and to assign a reason for each distinction, by citing the proper definition, and adapting it to each particular case. Thus:

Example Parsed.

"The patient ox submits to the yoke, and meekly performs the labor required of him."

1. Submit is a verb, because it signifies action.
2. Performs is also a verb, for the same reason.
3. Ox is a noun, because it is the name of a thing.
4. Yoke and labor are nouns, for the same reason.
5. The is an article, because it limits the signification of ox, yoke, or labor—the noun before which it is placed.
6. Required is a participle, because it expresses action like a verb, and qualifies the noun labor like an adjective.
7. Meekly is an adverb, because it is added to the verb performs, and expresses manner.
8. And is a conjunction, because it connects the predicates containing the verbs submits and performs.
9. To is a preposition, because it expresses the relation of the verb submits to the noun yoke.

Note.—The numbers are here used to indicate the order in which the pupil should, at first, be required to distinguish the parts of speech in the sentences given in this exercise. The verb is made the first in this series, because it is the word to which all others have an immediate or remote relation, and because it is easily recognized, and, when discovered, leads the mind necessarily to a knowledge of the other parts of speech com-
ETYMOLOGY.

OBS.—The attribute, when it is a noun or a pronoun, is in the same case as the subject to which it refers; as, “It is I, be not afraid.”—

“Who is she?”—“They believed it to be me.”

In analyzing a simple sentence, point out:

1. The subject.
2. The predicate.
3. The subject noun and its adjuncts.
4. The predicate verb and its adverbial adjuncts.
5. The object and its adjuncts, or the attribute and its adjuncts.

Exercises in Analysis and Parsing.

Praxis II.—Etymological.

In the Second Praxis, it is required of the pupil: to classify and analyze the sentence as in the preceding praxis; to point out, in addition, the adjuncts in each of the principal parts; and distinguish their classes; and to parse the sentence by distinguishing the different parts of speech, and the classes and modifications of the nouns, distinguishing also the article as definite or indefinite. Thus:

EXAMPLE 1.—ANALYZED AND PARSED.

"The Athenians carefully observed Solon’s wise laws."

ANALYSIS.—This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is the Athenians; the predicate is carefully observed Solon’s wise laws. The subject noun is Athenians, limited by the adjective the; the predicate verb is observed, and its adjuncts are the adverb carefully and the object laws; the adjuncts of the object are Solon’s and wise.

PARSING.—The is the definite article, because it limits the noun Athenians. Athenians is a proper noun, because it is the name of a particular people; of the third person, because they are spoken of; of the plural number, because the noun denotes more than one; of the common gender, because it includes both sexes; and in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb observed. Carefully is an adverb, because it is added to the verb observed, and expresses manner.

Observe is a verb, because it expresses action. Solon’s is a proper noun, because it is the name of a particular individual; it is of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and in the possessive case, because it indicates the possession of laws.

Laws is an adjective, because it is added to the noun laws.

EXAMPLE 2.—ANALYZED.

Filial ingratitude is a shameful crime.

A simple declarative sentence.

Subject, Filial ingratitude; predicate, is a shameful crime.

Predicate noun, ingratitude; adjective, filial.

Predicate verb, is; adjunct, the attribute crime; adjuncts of the attribute, a and shameful.

Honesty is the best policy. Liberty is a great blessing. Rose leaves are very fragrant. William soon became a very good scholar. The distant hills look blue. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.

Construction and Composition.

Construction is the combination of words into sentences.

Composition is the combination of sentences to express connected thought.

OBS.—In a composition the sentences are related to each other by the thoughts which they express. Without this connection, or logical relation, sentences do not form a composition. Thus the sentences in the preceding exercise for analysis do not form a composition, because the thoughts which they express are not logically related to one another.
ETYMOLOGY.

Exercises.

Construct the following:—
A sentence with a noun, a verb, and adjuncts of each.
A sentence with a subject noun, a predicate verb, and an object with its adjuncts.
A sentence with a subject pronoun, a predicate verb, and an attribute noun, with or without adjuncts.
A sentence with an adjective attribute, with or without adjuncts.
Write three sentences of any of these kinds describing a tree.
Write four sentences describing a fish.
Write five sentences about a clock.
Write several sentences forming a short composition upon a horse.

Cautions.
1. Do not use the same word too often, nor express the same thought more than once.
2. Avoid all slang expressions.
3. Do not use too many short sentences in succession. Join some of them together so as to make the style more pleasing.
4. Be careful to spell all the words correctly, to use capitals according to the rules, and to place a period at the end of each sentence. When sentences are united, they should be separated by a comma (,). Phrases should also, usually, be set off by a comma.

Criticise the following:—

The Owl.

The owl is a curious kind of bird. It has curious large eyes. It cannot see in the Light, it hides away in the daytime in dark places, the sun dazzles his eyes. He comes out at night and goes flying around looking after his prey. It catches birds and moles and mice and other animals it also catches insects. There are a good many kinds of owls, such as the Eagle owl, the Cat owl the Screech owl and others. Did you ever hear an Owl hoot in the night? It makes a Kind of mournful sound, I was awfully scared one night hearing a screech owl in the woods. I couldn't think what it was. Owls are very funny creatures.

ADJECTIVES.

Faults.—The ideas are not well arranged. Certain words, curious, etc., are repeated in close succession. There are too many short sentences coming together, making the style unpleasant. There are repetitions of the same thought, in the first and last sentences; and there are mistakes in capitals and punctuation. Some of the words are ill-chosen, and there are slang expressions.

In the following these faults are corrected:

The Owl.

The owl is a curious bird. It has large eyes like those of a cat; and during the day, it hides away in dark places, because it is not able to bear the dazzling light of the sun. At night it flies about, seeking its prey, which consists of birds, mice, moles, insects, etc. There are several kinds of owls, as the eagle owl, the screech owl, and the cat owl. Some of these birds are quite large. The hooting of an owl at night is a very dismal sound; and once, when I heard a screech owl in the woods, I was really frightened, for I did not know what it was. Did you ever hear an owl hoot?

Write a similar composition on each of the following subjects.


VI.—ADJECTIVES.

An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.

Classes.

Adjectives may be divided into six classes; namely, common, proper, numeral, pronominal, participial, and compound.

A common adjective is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denoting quality or situation; as, Good, bad, peaceful, warlike—eastern, western, outer, inner.
APPENDIX I.

COMPOSITION.

After studying carefully the Rules for Punctuation (page 252), the pupil will be sufficiently advanced to apply to his own compositions the various principles and rules requisite for their full correction. The following suggestions are designed to afford a guide to the teacher and pupils for a series of graded exercises in composition, in continuation of the practical language lessons already interspersed through this work.

In connection with these exercises, the pupils should be required to study carefully the principles and rules contained in Appendix II.

Preliminary Exercises.

1. Read a story, biographical sketch, or incident in history; and require the pupils to reproduce it in their own language, as far as possible.

This exercise should be continued sufficiently long to familiarize the pupils with the narrative style of composition, and to teach them to avoid the awkward expressions and repetitions customary with those untrained in this branch of composition. The simplest and easiest narratives should at first be selected.

2. Write out, or otherwise give to the pupils, a full account of any particular incident or event, and require them to abridge or condense it, omitting all but the most important circumstances.

3. Write a brief account of any incident or event, and require the pupils to expand it, adding any circumstances which they may conceive could have existed or occurred in connection with the facts stated.

Both of these exercises of condensation and expansion should be continued for some time, as they cultivate special faculties of the mind, most important to be addressed in training the pupil in the production and expression of thought.

4. Select a piece of poetry, and require the pupils to express the same thoughts in prose, using a plainer and less figurative style.

Be careful to select only such pieces as are fully adapted to the pupils' comprehension.

5. Require the pupils to write an analysis of any piece of prose or poetry, giving the topics treated, with the arguments and illustrations employed, etc.

Begin with easy pieces, and advance gradually to more difficult ones. Do not give argumentative pieces at first. This exercise, when skillfully employed, is a most excellent one, as it will go far to impart to the mind habits of regular, logical thought.

6. Require the pupils to write out criticisms of selected pieces, making observations on the thoughts, their arrangement and relation to the subject, as well as the modes of expression employed.

These exercises will prepare the mind for writing compositions on miscellaneous subjects. This is a task which should never be imposed without the preliminary exercises. Many pupils are permanently disgusted with composition by being required to perform this impossible task.

Original Composition.

7. Assign a subject, or theme, and suggest the mode of treatment, writing down for the pupils the topics which should be considered and discussed, with the arrangement to be employed.

This exercise should be pursued until the pupils' minds have become accustomed to the discovery of topics. It is designed to afford training in what is called, in rhetoric, Invention.

During the exercise, the teachers should require the pupils to suggest the topics, before deciding himself what is proper.

8. Reverse the above exercises; that is, select an appropriate subject, and require the pupils to discover the topics which should
be treated under it, and to write, by properly arranging them, an analysis of the mode of treatment.

This should be done at first so as to afford a brief sketch or outline, which afterward may be expanded or filled in, by suggesting illustrations, arguments, etc., under each topic. As considerable exercise of this kind will be needed, the pupils should be required to write out in full only an occasional composition; but the analysis should be copied in a book, and preserved by the pupil, for the next exercise, which is the writing of compositions on selected themes.

9. Require the pupils to write compositions on subjects either selected for them or suggested by their own minds.

It is preferable, at this stage, that the pupils should select their own subjects, as a general thing, in order to give full scope to the original suggestions of the mind, and to the unfolding of any special talent or genius for composition, which will often be found to show itself under the training here outlined, if it be faithfully persevered in.

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**LETTER-WRITING.**

In connection with the above exercises, the pupils should be instructed in letter-writing. This will include the proper forms, as shown below.

**Heading.**

The heading consists of the name of the place (sometimes the street and number) from which the letter is sent, and the date,—including month, day, and year. This should be written a line or two from the top of the page, and should be commenced so that it may end near the margin of the sheet at the right. Thus:

*New York, May 10, 1882.*

Or, when the street is mentioned:

*56 Lafayette Place, New York, May 10, 1882.*

**Address.**

The address should, in formal letters, follow on the next line, near the left side of the page, usually a little to the right of the body of the letter. Thus:

*Mr. Thomas H. Brown, Springfield, Ill.,
Sir,*

Or, in less formal letters:

*Mr. William A. Thompson,
Dear Sir,*

Or, as implying greater intimacy:

*Mr. John B. Smith,
My dear Sir,*

Where the address is to a company, the following may be used:

*Messrs. William Wood & Co.,
New York,
Gentlemen,*

In less formal letters, the address may be written below and at the left of the signature, at the end of the letter.

Other forms of address will be required according to circumstances, varying with the persons addressed and the terms of intimacy that exist. Thus:

*A. B. Palmer, Esq.; John Porter, M.D.; Dr. John Porter; B. C. Baldwin, LL.D.; Rev. H. J. Davis, or Rev. Mr. Davis; Noah Porter, D.D., LL.D.; etc.*

When ladies are addressed, the following are customary:

*Miss Brown; Miss Kate Field; Mrs. George Burns; Mrs. General Grant; etc.*

These may be followed by:

*Sr, Dear Sir, My dear Sir, Sirs, Gentlemen; Madam, Dear Madam, My dear Madam, Ladies; Dear Mr. Hart, My dear Mr. Smith; Dear Friend, My dear Friend, etc.*
The title Hon. is applied to persons holding high governmental positions; His Excellency is sometimes applied to the President of the United States and to State Governors.

**Body.**

The body of the letter should be commenced on the line next below the address, and a little to the right of it. The style will vary with the character of the letter. Business letters should be formal, brief, and to the point. Friendly correspondence requires an easy, familiar style, for the acquisition of which the study of good models will be very useful.

A few specimens for the opening are here given:

- Yours of the 5th inst. is just received, etc.
- Your favor of the 3d inst. is received, etc.
- Your esteemed favor of the 10th inst. is at hand, etc.
- I am in receipt of yours, etc.
- Yours of the 20th ult. has remained unanswered until now, etc.

**Closing.**

The forms of closing, followed by the signature, are various. A few are here given:

- Respectfully yours; Very respectfully yours; Truly yours;
- Yours truly; Very truly yours; Your obedient servant; Your obedient, humble servant; Yours cordially; Faithfully yours;
- Yours affectionately; Ever affectionately yours; As ever, your friend; etc.

**Superscription.**

Write the name about midway between the top and bottom of the envelope; under this write the address, commencing each line a little farther to the right than that above it. Great care should be taken to make the address as legible as possible.

Affix the postage stamp to the right-hand corner at the top of the envelope.
STYLE is the particular manner in which a person expresses his conceptions by means of language. It is different from mere words, and is not to be regulated altogether by rules of construction. It always has some relation to the author's peculiar manner of thinking; and, being that sort of expression which his thoughts most readily assume, sometimes partakes, not only of what is characteristic of the man, but even of national peculiarity. The words which an author employs, may be proper, and so constructed as to violate no rule of syntax; and yet his style may have great faults.

To designate the general characters of style, such epithets as concise, diffuse,—neat, negligent,—nervous, feeble,—simple, affected,—easy, stiff,—perspicuous, obscure,—elegant, florid,—are employed. A considerable diversity of style, may be found in compositions all equally excellent in their kind. And, indeed, different subjects, as well as the different endowments by which genius is distinguished, require this diversity. But in forming his style, the learner should remember, that a negligent, feeble, affected, stiff, or obscure style, is always faulty; and that perspicuity, ease, simplicity, strength, and neatness, are qualities always to be aimed at.

In order to acquire a good style, the frequent practice of composing and writing something, is indispensably necessary. Without exercise and diligent attention, rules or precepts for the attainment of this object will be of no avail. When the learner has acquired such a knowledge of grammar, as to be in some degree qualified for the undertaking, he should devote a stated portion of his time to composition. This exercise will bring the powers of his mind into requisition, in a way that is well calculated to strengthen them. And if he has opportunity for reading, he may, by a diligent perusal of the best authors, acquire both language and taste, as well as sentiment; and these three are the essential qualifications of a good writer.

In regard to the qualities which constitute a good style, we can here offer no more than a few brief hints. With respect to words and phrases, particular attention should be paid to purity, propriety, and precision; and, with respect to sentences, to perspicuity, unity, and strength. Under each of these heads, we shall arrange, in the form of short precepts, a few of the most important directions for the forming of a good style.

1.—Purity.

Purity of style consists in the use of such words and phrases only, as belong to the language which we write or speak.
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PRECEP 1.—Avoid the unnecessary use of foreign words or idioms: as fraicheur, hauteur, delicatessen, politeness, nobleness; he repented himself; it serves to an excellent purpose.

PRECEP 2.—Avoid, on ordinary occasions, obsolete or antiquated words; as, whim, creche, who, albeit, moreover, aforetime, methinks.

PRECEP 3.—Avoid strange or unauthorized words; as, flatteration, insipid, judiciousness, incumbrance, constancy, despirited, martyred.

PRECEP 4.—Avoid bombast, or affectation of fine writing. It is ridiculous, however serious the subject: as, 'Personifications, however rich the deceptions, and unconstrained their latitude; analogies, however incredible, however serious the subject; as, ‘It is odious and hateful.’ 'His faithfulness and fidelity should be rewarded.'

PRECEP 5.—Supply words that are wanting: thus, in stead of 'This he was', say, 'This he is.'

PRECEP 6.—Avoid tinkering, for no other reason than to tinker.

PRECEP 7.—Avoid unnecessary repetition of words; as, 'A diligent scholar may acquire knowledge, gain celebrity, obtain rewards, ten prizes, and get high honor, though he earns no money.' These six verbs have nearly the same meaning, and yet they cannot well be changed.

II.—Propriety.

Propriety of language consists in the selection and right construction of such words as the best usage has appropriated to those ideas which we intend to express by them.

PRECEP 1.—Avoid low and provincial expressions: such as, 'Say I.' — 'Thinks I to myself.' — 'To get into a scrape.' — 'Stay here while I return.'

PRECEP 2.—In writing prose, avoid words and phrases that are merely poetical: such as, mora, eve, plaint, lane, amid, oft, steeple; — 'What time the winds arise.'

PRECEP 3.—Avoid technical terms: except where they are necessary, in treating of a particular art or science. In technology, they are proper.

PRECEP 4.—Avoid the recurrence of words in different senses, or such a repetition of words as denotes paucity of language: as, 'His own reason might have suggested better reasons.' — 'Gregory favored the undertaking; for no other reason than this, that the manager, in countenance, favored his friend.' — 'I want to go and see what he wants.'

PRECEP 5.—Supply words that are wanting: thus, instead of saying, 'This action increased his former services,' say, 'This action increased the merit of his former services.'

PRECEP 6.—Avoid equivocal or ambiguous expressions: as, 'His memory shall be lost on the earth.' — 'I long since learned to like nothing but what you do.'

PRECEP 7.—Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent expressions: as, 'I have observed that the superiority among these coffee-house politicians, proceeds from an opinion of gallantry and fashion.' — 'These words do not convey even an obscure idea of the author's meaning.'

PRECEP 8.—Observe the natural order of things or events, and do not put the cart before the horse; as, 'The scribes taught and studied the law of Moses.' — 'They can neither return to nor leave their houses.' — 'He tumbled, head over heels, into the water.'

III.—Precision.

Precision consists in avoiding all superfluous words, and adapting the expression exactly to the thought, so as to exhibit neither more nor less than is intended by the author.

PRECEP 1.—Avoid a useless tautology, either of expression or sentiment: as in, 'Return again; return back again; converse together; rise up; fall down; enter in; a mutual likeness to each other; the latter end; liquid streams; grateful thanks; the last of all; throughout the whole book.' — 'Whenever I go, he always meets me there.' — 'Where is he at? In there.' — 'Nothing else but that.' — 'It is odious and hateful.' — 'His faithfulness and fidelity should be rewarded.'

PRECEP 2.—Observe the exact meaning of words accounted synonymous, and employ those words which are the most suitable; as, 'A diligent scholar may acquire knowledge, gain celebrity, obtain rewards, ten prizes, and get high honor, though he earns no money.' These six verbs have nearly the same meaning, and yet they cannot well be changed.

IV.—Perspicuity.

Perspicuity consists in freedom from obscurity or ambiguity. It is a quality so essential, in every kind of writing, that for the want of it, no merit can stand. 'Without this, the richest ornaments of style, only glimmer through the dark, and puzzle instead of pleasing the reader.' — Blair. Perspicuity, being the most important property of language, and an exemption from the most embarrassing defects, seems even to rise to a degree of positive beauty. We are naturally pleased with a style that frees us from all suspense in regard to the meaning; that 'carries us through the subject without embarrassment or confusion; and that always flows like a limpid stream, through which we can see to the very bottom.'

PRECEP 1.—Place adjectives, relative pronouns, participles, adverbs, and explanatory phrases, as near as possible to the words to which they refer, and in such a situation as the sense requires. The following sentences require the words inserted in crotchets: 'Restlessness of mind disqualifies us, both for the enjoyment of peace, and for the performance of our duty.' — Murray's Key. 'The Christian religion gives a more lovely character of God, than any [other] religion ever did.' — Ibid.

V.—Unity.

Unity consists in avoiding useless breaks or pauses, and keeping one object predominant throughout a sentence or paragraph. Every sentence, whether its parts be few or many, requires strict unity.

PRECEP 1.—Avoid brokenness and hitching. The following example lacks the very quality of which it speaks: 'But most of all, in a single sentence, is required the strictest unity. It may consist of parts, indeed, but these parts must be so closely bound together, as to make the impression upon the mind, of one object, not of many.' — Murray's Grammar.

PRECEP 2.—Treat different topics in separate paragraphs, and distribute the sentiments in separate sentences. Error: 'The two volumes are, indeed, intimately connected, and constitute one uniform system of English grammar.' — Murray's Preface.
APPENDIX.

Precept 3.—In the progress of a sentence, do not desert the principal subject in favor of adjuncts. Error: "To substantives belong gender, number, and case; and they are all of the third person whom spoken of, and of the second when spoken to."—Murray's Grammar.

Precept 4.—Do not introduce parentheses, except when a lively exclamation may be thrown in without diverting the mind too long from the principal subject.

VI.—Strength.

Strength consists in giving to the several words and members of a sentence, such an arrangement as shall bring out the sense to the advantage, and present every idea in its due importance. A conciseness or opposition will be rendered more striking, if some resemblance or opposition will be rendered more striking, if some resemblance in the language and construction be preserved.

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APPENDIX III.

POETIC DICTION.

Poetry, as defined by Dr. Blair, "is the language of passion, or of enlivened imagination, formed, most commonly, into regular numbers." The style of poetry differs, in many respects, from that which is commonly adopted in prose. Poetic diction abounds in bold figures of speech, and unusual collocations of words. A great part of the figures which have been treated of under the head of prosody, are purely poetical. The primary aim of a poet is to please and to move; and, therefore, it is to the imagination, and the passions, that he speaks. He may, and he ought to, have it in his view to instruct and reform; but it is indirectly, and by pleasing and moving, that he accomplishes this end. The exterior and most obvious distinction of poetry is versification; yet there are some forms of verse so loose and familiar as to be hardly distinguishable from prose; and there is also a species of prose so measured in its cadences, and so much raised in its tone, as to approach very nearly to poetical numbers.

Poetical Peculiarities.

The following are some of the most striking peculiarities in which the poets indulge, and are indulged:—

I.—They very often omit the articles; as,

What dreadful pleasure! there to stand sublime,
Like shipwreck'd mariner on desert coast!—Beattie.

II.—They abbreviate many nouns; as, amaun, for amazement; acclamation, for acclamation; consult, for consultation; corse, for corpse; see, or even, for evening; fount, for fountain; helm, for helmet; lament, for lamentation; morn, for morning; plaint, for complaint; target, for target; weal, for wealth.

III.—They employ several nouns that are not used in prose, or are used but rarely; as, bensam, boon, emprise, face, guardian, guise, ire, kan, lore, meed, sire, steel, stithy, walkin, yore.

IV.—They introduce the noun self after another noun of the possessive case; as,

1. "Affliction's semblance bends not o'er thy tomb,
Affliction's self doth bear thy youthful doom."—Byron.
2. "Thoughts of beauty, she was beauty's self."—Thomson.

V.—They place before the verb nouns, or other words, that usually come after it; and, after it, those that usually come before it; as,

1. "No jealousy their down of loves o'ercast,
Nor blasted were their wedded days with strife."—Beattie.
2. "No base hush thou of hoarded sweets."—Beattie.
3. "Thy chain a troughed sweet shall prove."—Longhorne.
4. "Follows the coal's aggrieved roar."—Thomson.
5. "That purple grous the primrose pain."—Longhorne.