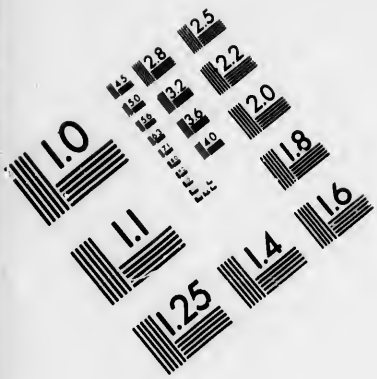



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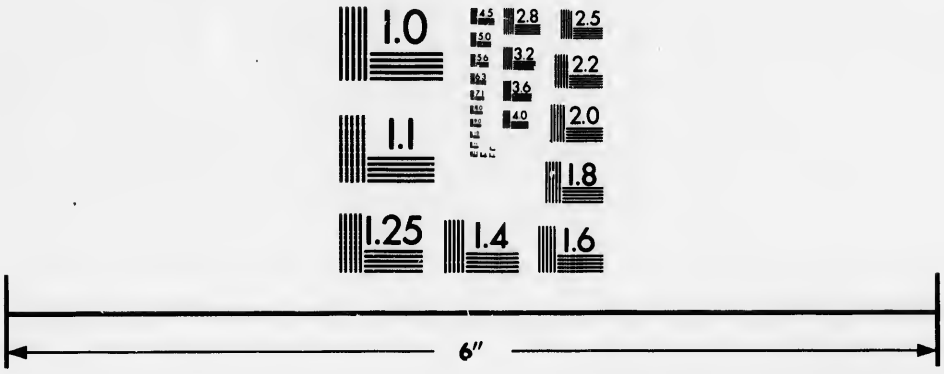


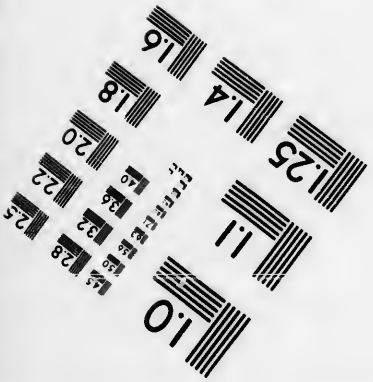


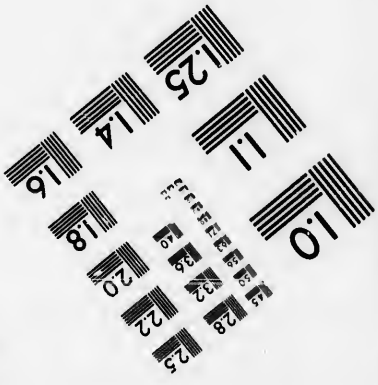


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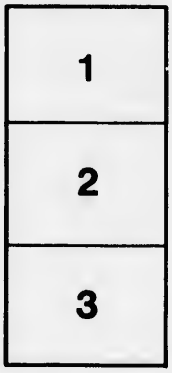


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# PROMPTER,

CONTAINING

## THE PRINCIPLES

OF

# THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE,

AND

## SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS,

WITH

## AN APPENDIX,

IN WHICH ARE STATED

## THE OPINIONS OF DIFFERENT GRAMMARIANS

ON DISPUTED POINTS.

BY MRS. FLEMING.

The difference between the system—between any system which is artificial, whose principle is an alphabet, and the volume embodying which is a mere vocabulary—and a natural system, founded on the knowledge of the subjects which it professes to systematize, is simply this:—that in the artificial system, the difficulty, the real knowledge, that which alone requires thought and study, does not come till the genera, or perhaps even the individuals, are arrived at; while in a natural system, the "tug of war" is at the very threshold, and when that is once crossed, all is ease and pleasure. And who that has seen the ardent mind of youth writhing and struggling under the load of unremoved difficulty, which the curse of "easy introductions," and yet more easy tutors has heaped upon it, but must exult, that for the benefit of those who *do* wish to be instructed in knowledge, a system in which there is no such load upon the mind—a load under which nine-tenths of the students of almost every subject that requires thought are most cruelly "broken down" and "done to dullness" *for* life—has been introduced into science."—MUDIE.

**Montreal:**

PRINTED BY LOVELL AND GIBSON, ST. NICHOLAS STREET.

1844.

# PREFACE.

In this publication the design of the author is to communicate to teachers, and to all who feel an interest in the advancement of learning, a method of teaching English Grammar, which she has practised with success.

Her first intention was to give merely a brief outline of the plan, and this, for experienced teachers, would have been sufficient, but several of those who take an interest in education, advised that it should be laid down so fully as to enable even teachers who had little or no experience, to put it in practice. Whether or not she has succeeded in this attempt, is yet to be ascertained. She cannot, however, dismiss the subject, without stating, that though a person come to maturity, who has never learned grammar, may with ease acquire a thorough knowledge of it by studying the Prompter, it ought not to be put into the hands of children.

With them, the success of the method of teaching which it contains, arises from its leading them by a series of suitable questions, to examine and to reflect on every subject which is in succession brought under their notice, and from its calling forth, and assisting them to arrange, and to bring into practical use, that knowledge

of their mother tongue which they have unconsciously acquired; but which has previously lain, dormant and without form, in the recesses of their minds; and which, when thus embodied, strengthened, and matured, is still their own, because it originally was, and has never ceased to be so. To put this book into their hands would be but another attempt, and probably a vain one, to make them appropriate knowledge, in the production of which their own minds had no concern. After they have gone through the course, there is no reason against their perusing it, but all that they have to commit to memory will appear very soon, in a more compendious form.

# LANGUAGE.

## INTRODUCTION.

HITHERTO, in teaching the principles of language, we have begun at the unknown, and explained that, by returning to what was already known.

Let us set out from a different point, and beginning at the known, go from that to the unknown.

The supposition that children know nothing of the principles of language till they begin to learn grammar is erroneous. Without ever having studied that, they know a great deal—not of the conventional and artificial terms; but, of what is much more important, the real and natural distinctions belonging to the different sorts of words of which it is composed.

Let us here draw a line, that what they are supposed to know may be more precisely defined.

Words which express action are in their nature different from those which are used to distinguish and to represent persons and things. This radical difference, coexistent with language itself, must have been observed and well understood, before any one thought of giving names to these, or to any other class of words.

Terms more suitable, or even as much so as those by which we designate them, it would not perhaps be easy to find; but had words expressing action been first named *agentia*, and the Latin *nomen*, stood unaltered in our language, instead of noun, the inherent difference

of one class from the other would have been in no degree affected; the distinction is natural and real; the terms that mark it artificial and conventional.

Thus, too, words that denote the qualities of animate or inanimate objects, are obviously different from either of the above mentioned classes or orders of words; and had they in English been still spoken of by their natural English appellation, and called names of qualities, or should they now be so, the really existing difference between them and the foregoing classes or orders of words would have remained, and would remain, unaltered.

Those words likewise, which, at times, stand instead of names or nouns are naturally different and easily distinguishable from them.

All those words already spoken of, admit of and require variation. Here, then, let us pause to enquire in what the causes of their variations consist.

The first and most important variations, in words expressing action, are those which originate in the consideration of what has been termed voice; viz. whether the action is done *by*, or *to* the subject or nominative of the verb. The second, those arising from the different periods of time; a thing has been done, is doing, or is to be done. The third, those which spring from the manner or mode in which the action or event is spoken of—certain, as, it has been done—it will be done—uncertain, as, it may be done—if it should be done—commanding or entreating, as—be it done—O, let it be done.

The causes of these variations are found in the nature of the verb itself; but there are other variations arising from the consideration of the person or persons to whom the action is attributed—whether to the speaker, to a

person spoken to, or to one spoken of—whether to one single individual, or to more than one. These are the variations arising from person and number. They do not at first sight seem necessary, as they do not belong to the verb itself, but to the person acting, suffering or existing; nevertheless, they are to be found in all languages, and add much to the perspicuity and beauty of language. Our own is deficient in this respect, or, to speak in other words, if it cannot be called a defect, our language has fewer variations indicating distinction of person and number than any other with which we are conversant.

In names or nouns, the first variation arises from the consideration of Number—whether one, or more than one, be spoken of. The distinctions of Gender which range English nouns in their natural order, can scarcely be termed variations. There are, however, a few—though very few—of our nouns which are modified to express it. The next variation arises from the situation or position of the person or thing spoken of; viz: whether the subject or the object of a verb—or linked to some possession—or addressed—or referred to by a preposition.

In ours, as in every other language, the difference between one and more than one is, with very few exceptions, distinctly marked by the change of termination; but in it the different positions or cases of nouns are not thus marked, except where a noun is linked to some possession, and said to be in the possessive case.

Pronouns standing instead of names or nouns might be supposed subject to like variations; nouns of each gender have, in English, their corresponding pronouns; which, however, rather seem to be different words than modifications of the same, and this is likewise observa-

ble in the distinction of number—but whether they be considered as distinct words, or modifications of the same, there are among them differences corresponding to the natural distinctions of Gender, Number, and Position, and in this latter they have in English a variation which nouns have not—marking them, when the objects of a verb, or referred to by a preposition.

Adjectives, names of qualities, have in English only those variations naturally arising from difference in degree. This difference in degree, the adverbs derived from them likewise have, but it is generally denoted by prefixing to them other adverbs, seldom by a change of termination.

The lines of distinction which separate adverbs from adjectives, and the remaining orders of words from them and from each other, may seem less striking than those dividing the verb from the noun; but when brought into a proper light they are sufficiently obvious.

It has been already said that, of natural and real distinctions, children know a great deal. Let the teacher draw forth their store of ideas and assist them to arrange it, the task is neither difficult nor unpleasant.

It is presumed your pupils can read correctly; assure yourself, before going farther, that they all understand what they do read; provided they be not at the time reading what is beyond their comprehension. There are not many children of eight or nine years old to whom such sentences as these, "Uniformity is in no respect the genius of the world," or * "Can you seriously think, that because the hypothesis of your countryman Descartes, which was nothing but an ingenious well-imagined romance, has been lately exploded, the

* Murray's English Reader.

system of Newton, which is built on experiments and geometry, the two most certain means of discovering truth, will ever fail?" are clearly intelligible—should they unfortunately be reading a lesson replete with such passages; turn back to some simple narrative, and ask, "Who did this? Who performed that action?" If they all answer correctly and readily, they can all go on.

It is necessary that they should comprehend clearly what they read, because it is to the meaning of words we first direct their attention, and it is that which, through the whole course, we keep in view.

The nature of the knowledge they gain, the manner in which they acquire it, may be easily exemplified. Let us suppose that you wish to give two boys, of the same age and of equal abilities, intelligent children eight or nine years old, some idea of rivers in general, and of one in their own country in particular.

We will suppose too, that it is their holiday-time, their summer vacation, a season when the eye dwells with pleasure on running water.

Throw the information you wish to convey into the usual form of a lesson, question and answer.

Q. What is a river, &c? Leave the one under the charge of a friend possessing both the means and the inclination to give him every advantage of air, exercise, and amusement, appointing him, for every morning, a short lesson in your *catechism*. Take the other on an excursion through the country. In crossing a river lead him to observe the rapid current in one part, and the more gentle flow of the water in another; and when you come to some of those rivulets, which wind between mountain and river or lake, choosing a spot where over sand or pebbles it flows softly, wide, transparent, and

shallow—let him linger on its margin—wade in it, if he chooses—cross and recross the stream; then proceed to where a brook dashes abruptly down the side of a mountain, and if it issues from a *tarn* or mountain lake, let him ascend to its source. Do not attempt to confine his attention to water alone, but through the whole course of the excursion, let him examine every object that interests him, and do you answer every rational question he puts. Do not lead or urge, but judiciously, when you find occasion, direct the natural curiosity of childhood.

Let him next look on some sluggish and dark coloured river, flowing through a level country, and in a clay soil. He will immediately contrast that silent and gloomy looking water, with the joyous rush of the mountain brook, with the pure expanse of the mountain lake, with the bright waves of the rivulet that so recently laved his foot, and rippled round his ancle. Point out to him the causes of that difference, and turning up the stream, let him see it gushing pure and rapid over its rocky bed.

Then let him view that river respecting which you wished him to be best informed. Riding along the bank, or sailing on the bosom of the stream, he will see that every change in the character of the banks and channel, occasions a corresponding change in the appearance and velocity of the stream; he will behold it at length mingling with, and lost in, some other river, or discharging its waters into the sea. Take the first suitable hour after your arrival at home to examine the boys.

The first has learned his lesson; yet more, in so far, he understands it. He can tell you, when questioned, the breadth, of the river at its mouth or at its source, the

length of its course, &c. &c.; but the great probability is that of the knowledge contained in the lesson he has really appropriated but a very small portion; that it has never mingled with the currrent of his thoughts; never been made the subject of his reflections, and that were you now to close the page, and not recur to it for a twelvemonth, you would then find that it had vanished from his mind;—and even now, does not all that his replies convey, seem meagre, very meagre, compared with the animated description given by the other? Spread before them a large coloured map. Let them go over it as they choose, and make their own remarks on it. The one will be pleased to find in it the subject of his studies, and will look at that part of the map with interest, and at the rest with some degree of curiosity; but the other has treasured a store of vivid imgages, a fund of new ideas all linked to, and in accordance with, some leading truths; and if you have never before attentively observed the active mind of childhood expanding as it received fresh accessions of real knowledge, you will yourself be surprised at the ease with which, in his own simple language, he will deduce from general principles, now perfectly familiar to him, probable facts. You will see him, in tracing the course of a river from its mouth to its source, look for some neighbouring mountains or contiguous lake, to supply its waters, or if mountains first attract his notice, seek in the adjacent plains for the lake or river into which the little streams that rise among them may flow. You will hear him telling his companion that though too small to be marked on the map, there are brooks or little rills flowing from the mountains to the plain; and accounting for any apparent widening of a river, where no tributary stream flows in to augment

it, by supposing that the character of the channel changes there. All this and much more you will hear, if you are disposed to listen to it, and if anything that does not harmonise with his ideas attract his attention, he will turn to you for an explanation. You will be convinced that he runs little risk of losing the knowledge he has gained, because first principles, once grasped, the intellect tenaciously retains them; and you will see that a solid foundation is laid for his future acquirements in the science, because, when any new fact is presented to him he is disposed to consider and to compare.

This idea has been carried far enough; and parents and teachers may say "Maps must supply the place of the objects they represent. The plan you suggest is impracticable, at least it is so, except to a very few. Who can carry a child some hundreds of miles to give him a lesson in geography, even though a valuable one." All this is admitted; I merely put an imaginary case, but for examples of language you have no need to lead your pupils beyond the door of the schoolroom, no occasion to leave your seat in it. Examples of language, in all its varieties, are in your possession; you have but to pronounce them, and you cannot ask the most trifling question without giving one. Have you got the new book I desired you to bring? Are you to walk home, or will you be sent for? Are you to spend the vacation in the country? It is with sentences more simple even than these that we begin.

It is to be hoped your pupils have books containing proper selections from the best English authors. It is with these we conclude.

Here too there must be some leading idea, round which the others can with ease be marshalled.

The subject of speech is action—action physical or

mental. Suffering still implies action, and even when being is spoken of, it is in connection with action, past, present, or to come, and some expression denoting that, always precedes or follows it. The word expressing action or being, which, as already observed, always implies action, is, in every sentence, the principal word, and this the name given to such words denotes. The importance of the name or noun, and especially of that particular noun which is the subject of the verb, is obvious. Without words expressing action there could be no language; without names to distinguish the agents or subjects of them, there would be no use of it. The first question, when we begin to consider any example, is—what is said to have been done, to be doing, or to be about to be done? the second—who is said to have done it?

These clearly understood, the natural distinctions of time, past, present and future, and those of person—that is, whether the action belongs to the speaker or speakers, to one spoken *to* or spoken *of*, are easily brought into notice.

Every thing, every object, animate or inanimate, has some qualities belonging to it.

To convince your pupils of this, let them compare a leaf with a piece of bark, or a wafer with a pencil; but qualities have no existence except in connection with some object, some person, animal, or thing. Every word expressing a quality must then belong to a word representing a person, an animal, or a thing, whether real or ideal matters not, and this connection well impressed on the mind, the degrees of comparison, and the use of the adverb, follow as naturally as the distinct ions of time, of person, and of mood, come in the train of action.

Secondly, they must comprehend clearly what they read, because they have to supply the ellipsis, and this they are required to do from the first, or rather immediately on their coming to sentences in which it occurs.

We do not, on commencing, separate Syntax from Etymology, because when pointing out the connections and variations of words we bring into view the reasons for these variations; and this is the basis of Syntax.

Not only do pupils require to comprehend clearly what they read, but they should likewise be able to write, at least a legible text hand on the slate. It is easy to perceive that to children of even ordinary quickness of apprehension, these oral lessons can scarcely be called a task. A new field is opened before them; as they advance, interesting selections are substituted for simple sentences; and the current of their thoughts is so directed, that, while considering these, they are discovering the distinctions and relations of words. Far from wishing to pause or to linger over a lesson, they press on. As soon as they find that they understand the subject last presented to their view, they want something new; they would, if permitted, grasp more than they could possibly retain; but their task in writing, which is done in the class hour, demands from them application, close and steady application, and tends to fix in their minds, in its proper order all they have previously learned; for, such is the plan laid down for their exercises, that the subjects of the first lessons, the action and the agent, must still precede and the rest follow in order.*

* As a preface is often read hastily over, the author must be excused for again pressing on the consideration of parents and teachers her conviction that the Prompter should not be given to children; because, instead of facilitating, it would prevent their improvement. In a class taught in the manner suggested, the

I have here endeavoured to give a general idea of the plan. We will now proceed to its practical details.

difference between a pupil who had never seen and one who had the book, would be, that while the former would seek in his own mind an answer to the question asked, the other would merely try to recollect something he had read: with him the interest which he would otherwise have felt would be in a great measure destroyed by his already having an idea, though an imperfect, perhaps an erroneous one, of the inference to be drawn.

# THE PROMPTER.

## ACTION THE SUBJECT OF SPEECH.

It is very easy in the outset to awaken the minds of your pupils to this truth, that speech, (allowing for a few exceptions) always relates to action, and that even where being alone is spoken of, it is still in connection with some action.

This may be done in many different ways.* Con-

* "Why do we speak? Of what use is speech to us? Tell me, what do we speak for?"

These questions—all tending to one point—were put in the same breath to a class of children—no previous warning given, no possibility of preparation on their part.

"We speak when we want any thing."

"Yes, that is one use of language. Any more?"

"We speak when we want to tell our feelings."

"Yes we do. Any thing more?"

"We speak when we want to relate any thing."

Such were the replies.

"Very well. Now you have told me some of the principal uses of speech. We speak when we want any thing, because we want something to be done for us by the person to whom we speak. For instance, if you want an apple, a piece of bread, or a book, you expect the person from whom you ask it either to hand it to you or to give you permission to take it, do you not? And if you go to buy any thing, you expect the shopman either to give you one article or to place before you several to choose from, and then to take the price, do you not? So whatever you say when you want any thing relates to doing or action.

It is not quite so easy to explain what is meant by "to express our feelings," for we have feelings of the mind as well as of the body; but when we say we rejoice, we grieve, or, when speaking of our thoughts, we say we purpose, we intend, we must consider such words as expressive of mental action—action of the mind. Now try if you can converse without saying any

verse with them a few minutes concerning their coming to school, their going home, their lessons or amusements.* Whatever turn you give to the conversation, it will still be found to relate to action of some kind. Lead your pupils to observe this. Let them next try to converse without speaking of any action. They will find all they could thus say would be limited to a

thing about doing or action ; say what you please, only do not speak of any thing that has been done, is doing, or is to be done. You can find nothing to say. Well, I can find a few short sentences. I *am* here. I *was* in the country yesterday. I *will* be there tomorrow. I *have* this book. I *had* a good pen yesterday. I can say such sentences as these, but can get no farther without speaking of action. I may say, you *are* here. But if I wish to add, When *did* you *come* ? When *will* you *go* ? I speak of action. In saying I am, or We were, you speak of being, and when you say He has, or They had, you speak of possession. But these, as I have already said, are mostly used in connection with words expressing action. There *was* a little boy whose name was Harry. Who would take the trouble to say this, or who would care about hearing it, if nothing more were to follow. But, There was a little boy whose name was Harry, and his papa and mamma sent him to school. There is something in that to think about, and it is the beginning of a story. All the histories, and all the little tales that you hear or read, relate in like manner to past actions. To what certain persons, and sometimes, indeed, to what certain animals, have done, or what others have done to them.

Now do you not think that as so much of what we say or read relates to action, past, present, or to come, the word that expresses action must be the principal word in the sentence ?

* It may here be observed, that if among teachers who wish to give this plan a fair trial, there should be any that have been in the habit of keeping their pupils at a distance, and perpetually under the overpowering influence of awe or fear, they must in this instance condescend a little, and must take some pains to let their pupils see that they are doing so. No child, unless he be perfectly at ease, can either think with freedom or find words to express his thoughts. From such teachers children would require an assurance that no displeasure will be manifested at a mistake, if they should make one. The subject should be introduced by something to this effect : "I wish to converse with you, and to ask you a few questions, not concerning your past lessons, nor any thing you are studying ; but be attentive, for I wish you to think about every question I ask you, and to tell me what you do think." Some such introduction is always necessary.

few short uninteresting sentences, and, when you ask them whether the word expressing action is not the most important in the sentence, will readily reply that it is. Or, read to them a passage from some well written narrative; and then, reviewing it, and asking them if they recollect any narrative, any tale of which the subject is not action, you may lead them to the same conclusion. I am not at present considering whether the verb be active, passive, or neuter. We first take a general view of the subject. Passive verbs imply action; the action of another agent falling on the subject of the verb, and even those which have been termed neuter verbs, with very few exceptions, likewise imply action.

### WORDS EXPRESSING ACTION.

The proposition that the word which expresses action is the most important, once assented to, bid your pupils try to discover in every sentence you give them, which is that word. Give them first simple sentences, in which the nominatives are nouns and the verbs such as strikingly express action. Some such examples are subjoined.

*Q.* Which is the word that speaks of Doing or Action?

George broke a pane of glass.
Edward tore Jane's map.
Charles climbed up the ladder.
Henry shook the tree.
Richard pulled off some basswood bark.
John and Richard twisted it into thongs.
Jane ate a ripe plum.
Mary gathered strawberries.
Henry drank tea, and George drank milk.
Rose bought a wax doll.

Lucy dressed it.

Mary gave Jane some fruit.

Eliza braided little Helen's hair.

Susan dressed the baby.

Henry and George ran a race.

William and Charles picked the apples.

John and Edward rowed the boat across the stream.

Lucy, Caroline, and Amelia, went into the garden.

Sydney, Frank, and Edward, rode in the waggon.

The carpenter planed all these boards in one day.

Ralph and Ned will mow the hay in that meadow to-morrow.

The mason will build the new chimney next week.

The rosebuds will blow before Sunday.

Mary spoke to him yesterday.

My brother said so.

George read a long story about a traveller.

Henry believed it.

But Charles said it was not true.

Thomas wishes for a top.

Edward rejoices because he will soon see his sister again.

Mary hopes to see her grandfather soon.

Lucy grieves for the death of her uncle.

The lightning struck an old pine tree.

The rain fell in torrents.

It seems almost unnecessary to add that these sentences must be read to them distinctly and with proper emphasis, giving each in turn a question, till the examples have gone twice or thrice round the class. Very probably when you come to "will mow" you may be answered "mow." You have only to say, "More than that: it takes two words to make the sense complete—will mow;" and if to the next, "build"

should be the reply, "more than that" will immediately call forth the proper answer. They pass—or at least every class I taught did pass—from *said, read, told,* to *believe,* without the least hesitation; but, after they have answered this, it is well to remark, "Yes, believed is an action of the mind, and to wish, to rejoice, to grieve, likewise express mental action." Before giving such examples as these, "My father is here," &c., I have generally said, "Now recollect, we had at the beginning of the lesson a few sentences where the principal words did not express action, but being or possession; *is, are, were, have,* and *had,* were some of them, and here we come to them again.

*Q.* The word expressing Being?

My father is here.

My uncle and aunt are here.

These doves are very like each other.

*Q.* The word expressing Possession?

Jane and Helen have a rocking horse at home.

My uncle has a beautiful garden.

My aunt will have ripe fruit next week.

After such sentences have gone twice or thrice round the class, proceed to inquire whether there must not be some person, animal, or thing to do whatever is said to be done. This is a question for the class. You may either let it go round, or ask one or any of them to answer it; and when you do get an answer, which you will very soon, and in the affirmative, ask if they all think so. Then go again over the same sentences with them, inquiring who or what did this. Thus:

George broke a pane of glass.

*Q.* The word that speaks of action?

*A.* Broke.

*Q.* Who broke? The answer of course will be

"George." Go on. They will answer readily and correctly; and where the action is attributed to two, three, or more individuals, they will, without any suggestion from you, name the several nominatives, not omitting one.

Sydney, Frank, and Edward, rode in the waggon.

*Q.* The word expressing Action?

*A.* Rode.

*Q.* Who rode?

*Q.* Sydney, Frank, and Edward.

This seems all very simple. It really is so—but it is not on this account the less important; it is the foundation on which a lofty superstructure will rise, and rise rapidly; but it must be carefully and patiently laid.

Man holds himself upright on his feet.

His head is erect on his shoulders.

He has arms and legs.

He takes hold of things with his hands.

The soles of his feet rest on the ground.

The head turns to the right and to the left.

Upon the head is the hair.

Within the head is the brain.

On the face are seen the eyes, nose, mouth, chin.

The eyes are shut by means of the eyelids.

The eye is moistened with a fluid called tears.

Above the eyes are the eyebrows; higher still is the brow.

Man sees with his eyes.

The nose is between the eyes and the mouth.

Under the mouth is the chin.

Within the mouth are the palate, the tongue, and the teeth.

The teeth are fixed in the jaw bones.

The tongue brings the food under the teeth, and at the same time the saliva moistens it.

While food is in the mouth, the tongue and the palate taste the flavour of it.

The breath comes from the lungs. The mouth, the lips, the tongue, the teeth, and the palate are the organs of speech.

Man perceives smell by his nose.

Man has five senses.

These senses are sight, smell, taste, hearing, and touch.

BEING—SUBJECTS PRECEDING AND FOLLOWING.

Your papa's wife is your mother.

Your mamma's husband is your father.

Your papa's father is your grandfather.

Your papa's mother is your grandmother.

Your mamma's father and mother are your grandfather and grandmother.

Your papa's brother is your uncle.

Your papa's sister is your aunt.

Your mamma's brother and sister are your uncle and aunt.

You are your uncle's nephew.

Lucy is her uncle's niece.

Your papa and mamma's child is your brother or sister.

There are more examples furnished than can be required, and though at first, whatever be the age of the pupils, verbs strikingly expressive of action must be given, yet the examples which exactly suit children eight or nine years old, are, when continued, uninteresting to those three or four years older; but when the class is composed of pupils of various ages, there is no help for this. It is better the sentences should be uninter-

esting to some than unintelligible to others. For a class where none of the pupils are under twelve, the examples marked *Sen.* are more suitable.

## VERBS—NOMINATIVES—NOUNS.

As soon as you observe that they answer readily what has been done and who did it, go on, for it has a bad effect to keep them lingering over what they already know. Proceed to inform them that names have been given to the different orders or classes of words; that most of those names have been derived from the Latin; that words denoting action, suffering, or existence, are called verbs, as being THE WORDS, the most important words,—that the names of persons, of animals, or of inanimate things, are called nouns; and when they are subjects of verbs, are said to be in the nominative or naming case—nominatives to the verbs which respectively belong to them. Go on again with new examples.

The frog from a corner look'd up to the skies.

*Q.* The verb?

*A.* Look'd.

*Q.* The nominative?

*A.* Frog.

It is possible there may be a little hesitation at first on the transition from the term, "the word expressing action," to the verb. But it is easily got over. You will only require, when you observe any of your pupils hesitate at the question, "The verb?" to add, "The word expressing action?" and, in like manner, should there be any pause at "The nominative?" to repeat "Who or what did this or that?" By the time these new terms have gone twice round the class, your pupils will answer to them with ease.

One day Willy saw several men.
When the gardener plants a tree.
The bricks rolled—some one way, some another.
The bricklayer laughed outright.
The bricklayers have finished.
The painter gave him a small brush.
Willy approached the house.
Willy ascended the staircase.
At length the boy reached the bottom of the chimney.
A servant came in. The sweep was very glad.
Our dog barks very loud sometimes.
The buds will grow larger and larger.
Said his mamma.
The whole row of little buttons raised their sharp voices.
The face of the button shone brighter than usual.
" Oh no," replied the button.
Copper is a metal.
And metals will not burn.
The tribe wept over him.
And his name is honoured among the Arabs.
Their father and mother met them.
Iron is very hard.
The ploughshare is made of iron.
Iron will melt in a very hot fire.
Knives and scissors are made of steel.
His papa and mamma sent him to school.
Columbus set sail from Palos.
The village preacher's modest mansion rose.
Truth from his lips prevailed with double sway.
With ready zeal each honest rustic ran.
Is there no hope? the sick man said,
The silent doctor shook his head.

The Italian lakes spread their waves beneath a cloudless sky.

There the wigwam blaze beamed on the young and the helpless.

The wind rages with great fury.

The spectator observes sometimes a sand-bank.

Europeans may admire the views in this archipelago.

A hurricane is generally preceded by an awful stillness.

The air becomes close and heavy.

The sun is red; and the stars at night seem large.

Frequent changes take place in the thermometer.

Darkness extends over the earth.

The higher regions gleam with lightning.

The impending storm is observed.

Foaming mountains rise suddenly.

Land birds are driven into the ocean.

The elements are thrown into confusion.

Fertile valleys are changed in a few hours.

Scenes of sudden desolation have been disclosed.

Ruins of houses have been strewed over the land.

If there are any teachers disposed to ask "why can we not at the commencement tell them these are verbs?" the answer is, because expressing action or expressing being is a definition, a description of the word, which in the outset it is necessary to keep in view, while verb is a mere name, to be used only when they have learned to distinguish the object to which it is applied.

It is very probable you may now have to close the lesson; but this depends on the degree of intelligence your pupils evince. Some require but a few examples, and of course go on the faster and the farther.

An hour at a time is as much as can be advantageously employed in these lessons, with the exception of the first, at the commencement of which some time is spent in desultory conversation. The high degree of interest they feel cannot be kept up much longer, and as soon as that begins to flag it is time to give over. With some classes, however, I went on through the ellipsis of the nominative, and the infinitive mood of the verb; and, (leaving the length of the lessons to the discretion of the teacher,) we proceed to these now; observing, however, that examples are given in pages 29 and 30 for exercises in writing, which may be here introduced.

## SUGGESTIONS RELATIVE TO THE EXERCISES TO BE WRITTEN.

Directions respecting the exercises to be written seem scarcely necessary, as the plan is so simple and so plainly laid down in the printed examples.

The teacher has merely to desire the slates to be ruled for writing, and lines drawn, dividing each into columns—two columns at first, as, even after pronouns are introduced, they still stand under the denomination of nominatives, and are distinguished by P. placed close to them when personal, and P. R. when relative pronouns.

The difficulty is in finding suitable sentences, similar to those given for the oral exercises, which must at first be—verbs, their nominative nouns expressed, without a pronoun, a participle, or a verb in the infinitive; after that, verbs, the nom. nouns expressed or understood, and pronouns. The greatest difficulty, it may easily be observed, is at first, as the field gradually widens; but at the commencement I have always been obliged to supply my pupils with written sentences. This,

however, is a labour which cannot fairly be expected of teachers, and for which, should the system come into general use, there would be no occasion, as suitable exercises could be printed at a trifling expense. They could indeed be furnished without any additional expense, as they would be good reading lessons. As soon as we pass the participle, all difficulty of that kind vanishes, and teachers who have not time or inclination to copy sentences suitable for their pupils will be obliged to defer appointing exercises till the class has got that length; for *each* of the pupils must have either a written sentence or a book for his own use. Two having to read on the same book, is apt to lead to assisting, or copying from, each other; and any attempt of that kind must be denounced, and the recurrence of it prevented. This may be effectually done. Should you detect, or even suspect any one of thus evading his task, you may give each of those who sit near each other separate exercises, and this adds nothing to the labour. No whispering must be allowed; no assistance asked by one from another; but every encouragement given them to come to you for an explanation of any thing they do not understand. A teacher has full employment in attending to a class engaged in these exercises.

## EXAMPLES FOR EXERCISES IN WRITING.

| VERBS—NOMINATIVES—NOUNS. | PLAN OF THE EXERCISES. | |
|---|---|---|
| | *Verbs.* | *Nominatives.* |
| The wind one morning sprang up from the deep. | Sprang. | Wind. |
| Trees waved their branches. | Waved. | Trees. |
| Flowers bent their heads. | Bent. | Flowers. |
| The fires blaze high. | Blaze. | Fires. |
| And the lamps burn bright. | Burn. | Lamps. |
| Where the bramble shoots are found. | Are found. | Shoots. |
| Where the bees are humming round. | Are humming. | Bees. |
| Where the grass grows fresh and fine. | Grows. | Grass. |
| The cat, and the dog, and the bird, live in the house. | Live. | Cat—Dog—Bird. |
| Ten chariots weighed less than one plough. | Weighed. [ed. | Chariots. |
| Many of the games and ceremonials of Christmas have disappeared. | Have disappear- | Games—Ceremonials. |
| Cooler the breezes play around my brow. | Play. | Breezes. |
| My little brothers round the warm hearth crowd. | Crowd. | Brothers. |
| { The bleak wind whistles ; snow-showers far and near, | Whistles. | Wind. |
| { Drift without echo to the whitening ground. | Drift. | Snow-showers. { |
| Elizabeth Temple and Louisa had gained the summit of the mountain. | Had gained. | Elizabeth Temple—Louisa. |
| Night is the time for rest. | Is. | Night—Time. |
| Glad voices whispered round. | Whispered. | Voices. |
| Their early prayers will rise as incense. | Will rise. | Prayers. |
| The old halls of castles and manor houses have resounded. | Have resounded | Halls. |
| Springs burst forth in the intervals between the low and high grounds. | Burst. | Springs. |
| Gray squirrels are skipping from bough to bough. | Are skipping. | Squirrels. |

## EXAMPLES FOR EXERCISES IN WRITING, *SEN.*

| VERBS—NOMINATIVES—NOUNS. | PLAN OF THE EXERCISES. | |
|---|---|---|
| | *Verbs.* | *Nominatives.* |
| The ship's bell toll'd, and slowly o'er the deck. | Tolled. | Bell. |
| Came forth the crew. | Came. | Crew. |
| Bold, hardy men, far from their native skies, stood silent there. | Stood. | Men. |
| Broken waves heav'd up their sharp white helmets. | Heaved. | Waves. |
| A youthful form was as a burden laid. | Was laid. | Form. |
| Now that chosen friend bowed low his sun-bronzed face. | Bowed. | Friend. |
| There was a plunge. | Was. | Plunge. |
| The riven sea complained. | Complained. | Sea. |
| Death from her briny bosom took his own. | Took. | Death. |
| The fame of his discovery had resounded throughout the nation. | Had resounded. | Fame. |
| His route lay through several of the finest provinces. | Lay. | Route. |
| His journey appeared like the progress of a sovereign. | Appeared. | Journey. |
| The country poured forth its inhabitants. | Poured. | Country. [nies. |
| The streets, windows, and balconies, were filled with eager spectators. | Were filled. | Streets—Windows—Balco- |
| His journey was continually impeded by the multitude. | Was impeded. | Journey. |
| The very roofs were covered with spectators. | Were covered. | Roofs. |
| The sovereigns had ordered their thrones. | Had ordered. | Sovereigns. |
| Here the king and queen awaited his arrival. | Awaited. | King—Queen. |
| At length Columbus entered the hall. | Entered. | Columbus. |
| As Columbus approached, | Approached. | Columbus. |
| The sovereigns rose. | Rose. | Sovereigns. |
| Columbus now gave an account. | Gave. | Columbus. |

## EXERCISES—VERBS--NOMINATIVES—NOUNS.

The prophet spoke, when with a gloomy frown,
The monarch started from his shining throne,
While round the prince the Greeks employ their care,
The Trojans rush tumultuous to the war.
The monarch spoke, and straight a murmur rose,
Loud as the surges when the tempest blows.
Tydides paus'd amid his full career,
Then first the hero's manly breast knew fear,
Here all the terrors of grim war appear;
Here rages force—here tremble flight and fear.
Each generous breast with emulation glows.
Where Calydon on rocky mountain stands,
Once fought the Ætolian and Curetian bands.

On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay th' untrodden snow,
And dark as winter was the flow,
Of Yser * * *
But Linden show'd another sight,
When the drums beat at dead of night.

Each horseman drew his battle-blade.

The ellipsis that most frequently occurs is that of the nominative, where two or more verbs belong to the same noun. They ought now to be led to the consideration of this by such examples as those subjoined, introduced immediately after others in which the nominatives are all expressed.

The birds sing in the branches, and
The young lambs sport in the meadow.
The butterflies flutter from bush to bush,
And open their wings to the warm sun.

| | |
|---|---|
| The sovereigns | had ordered their thrones. |
| Here the king | and queen awaited his arrival. |
| At length Columbus | entered the hall. |
| As Columbus | approached, |
| The sovereigns | rose. |
| Columbus now | gave an account. |

| | |
|---|---|
| Sovereigns. | Had ordered. |
| King—Queen. | Awaited. |
| Columbus. | Entered. |
| Columbus. | Approached. |
| Sovereigns. | Rose. |
| Columbus, | Gave. |

*Q.* The first verb? [It will be observed this is the second sentence.]

*A.* Flutter.

*Q.* The nominative?

*A.* Butterflies.

*Q.* The second verb?

*A.* Open.

*Q.* The nominative?

The answer will again be "Butterflies."

Ask them how they know that. Tell them that you do not mean to say they are mistaken, but you would like to know if they feel quite sure, and are all agreed, that butterflies is the nominative.

They will all reply in the affirmative.

"Well, but I do not see butterflies before the second verb, and I did not repeat the word."

"No."

"Yet you all understand that butterflies is the nominative to open?"

"Yes."

"That is the very reason why it is not repeated. People who write and speak well do not repeat words when the meaning is quite plain without them. You *understand* that the nominative is butterflies. You all understand it. This then is the *nominative understood.*

The tawny eagle seats his callow brood,
High on the cliff, and feasts his young with blood.

*Q.* The first verb?

*A.* Seats.

*Q.* The nominative?

*A.* Eagle.

*Q.* The second verb?

*A.* Feasts.

*Q.* The nominative?

*A.* Eagle.
*Q.* Is it expressed or understood?
*A.* Understood.

Sir Ralph the rover sail'd away,
And scour'd the seas for many a day.

The sly little dormouse crept out of his hole,
And led to the feast his blind brother the mole.

They went on straight and steadily for some yards, and then suddenly turned down a path.

Water falls, and flows, and rises again.
The bean sprouts, and grows, and blossoms.
Goats ramble on the mountain-tops, browse on the shrubs, and bound from rock to rock.
Ortogrul looked and saw a torrent.

*Signs of Rain in England.*

The soot falls down—the spaniels sleep,
And spiders from their cobwebs peep;
Last night the sun went pale to bed,
The moon in halos hid her head;
The boding shepherd heaves a sigh,
For now a rainbow spans the sky;
The walls are damp, the ditches smell,
Closed is the pink-eyed pimpernel;
Loud quack the ducks, the peacocks cry;
The distant hills appear more nigh;
Low o'er the grass the swallow wings;
The cricket, too, more sharply sings;
Through the clear stream the fishes rise,
And nimbly catch the incautious flies;

The glow-worms, numerous and bright,
Illumed the dewy dells last night;
The frog has changed his yellow vest,
And in a russet coat is dress'd;
The morning air is cold and still,
The mellow blackbird's voice is shrill.

On the dark wave of Galilee
The gloom of twilight gathers fast,
And o'er the waters drearily
Sweeps the bleak evening blast.

The weary bird hath left the air,
And sunk into his shelter'd nest;
The beast hath sought his mossy lair,
And laid him down to welcome rest.

The showers descend as softly there
As on the loveliest flowers;
Nor does the moonlight seem more fair,
On beauty's sweetest bowers.

The brighter stars assumed their seats on high,
The moon's pale crescent glowed serenely bright,
As the last twilight fled along the sky,
And all her train in cloudless majesty,
Were glittering on the dark blue vault of night.

The fresh and desperate onset bore
The foes three furlongs back and more;
Alone, De Argentine
Yet bears on high his red-cross shield,
Gathers the reliques of the field,
Renews the ranks where they have reel'd,
And still makes good the line.

It has been already said that the length of time and number of examples given, must be regulated by the degree of intelligence evinced by the pupils. There are, however, more examples for each exercise given than can be required for any one class, and teachers can vary them by choosing others for themselves if they think fit; but at the commencement great attention is necessary in choosing them. I will give an instance of the manner in which with one class I had to proceed. I had been in the habit of using some MS. sentences, and selecting others from Mrs. Barbauld's hymns—but my pages of written sentences had been curtailed, and no copy of Mrs. Barbauld was at hand, so that before the first lesson was half over my stock was expended. I turned to the battle of Hohenlinden.

On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

Here were two verbs with their respective nominatives.

But Linden show'd another sight,
When the drum beat at dead of night.

Here again were two, but in both verses I had to omit the concluding lines, neither a participle nor a verb in the infinitive being as yet admissible. So likewise I had to omit the first line in the next verse and go on to the second.

Each horseman drew his battle-blade,
And furious every charger neigh'd.

Omitting the line, "And rallying, &c.," and the verse which begins, "The combat deepens," we went with ease through the rest—through part of Southey's Ballads—Lord William, and the Incheape Bell,—through some detached sentences from Diversions of Hollycot, and then on to the verb in the Infinitive—thus:

Then out came the spider with fingers so fine,
To show his dexterity on the tight line.

*Q.* The verb in the first line?
*A.* Came.
*Q.* The nominative?
*A.* Spider.
*Q.* Does not "To show" in the second line seem something like a verb?
*A.* Yes.
*Q.* But it has no nominative?
*A.* No.

That is because it does not positively say such a thing has been done, or will be done, or may be done, by such a person. It is a verb in what is called the Infinitive Mood. It has generally, though not always, *to* before it, which is there called the sign of the Infinitive. It is the name of the verb, and gives a general idea of the action. Verbs in that mood never have nominatives, but do themselves sometimes stand as nominatives to other verbs; thus:

To err is human; to forgive is divine.

"To err is human" here, *is* is the verb, and *to err*—the act of erring—the nominative.

The lime-bough lured the honey bee,
To murmur by the desert's tree.

*Q.* The first verb?
*A.* Lured.
*Q.* The nominative?
*A.* Lime-bough.
*Q.* The second verb?
*A.* To murmur.
*Q.* Has it a nominative?
*A.* No.
*Q.* Why?
*A.* Because it is in the Infinitive Mood.

And furious every charger neigh'd,
To join the dreadful revelry.

Those scales were not made to weigh sugar and tea.
Henry sprang forward to assist his brother.
Albert rose to go away.
The Jew sent his wife to buy the diamond.
Two little boys went to pass the evening.
Obidah, the son of Abensina, left the caravansera early in the morning, and pursued his journey over the plains of Hindostan.
Here Obidah paused, and began to consider.
And Abraham entreated the stranger to come in.
The Moorish sovereign was compelled to resign his throne.
Julius was requested to preside at the meeting.
Rosamond proceeded to empty the purple vase.
The prince commanded the old man to be admitted.

A few such examples closed the lesson

On commencing the second lesson, it is necessary to take a brief review of the first.

Q. Can you recollect how many different sorts of words we had under consideration last lesson?

"We had first words expressing action; and these, in the language of grammar, are called verbs, are they not? Next we had names—the names of persons, of animals—or of inanimate things. These are termed nouns—and, when subjects of the verb, nouns in the nominative case, nominatives to the verbs which respectively belong to them. We found that, sometimes, where two or more verbs, expressing different actions, all attributed to the same person or thing, occurred, the nominative was expressed only to one, and understood to the rest, did we not? Then we had a particular form of the verb—that which is called the Infinitive Mood, and which has no nominative, because it merely speaks in a general manner of the action."

Now let us go on again to find verbs—nominatives expressed and understood—and verbs in the infinitive.

## VERBS—NOMINATIVES—NOUNS—VERBS IN THE INFINITIVE.

The floor is of sand, like the mountain-drift,*
And the pearl-shells spangle the flinty snow;
From coral rocks the sea-plants lift
Their boughs, where the tides and billows flow;
The water is calm and still below,
For the winds and waves are absent there,
And the sands are bright as the star-lit glow
In the motionless fields of the upper air;

* These lines should first be read from beginning to end to pupils, and then given out in separate sentences.

There, with its waving blade of green,
The sea-flag streams through the silent water,
And the crimson leaf of the dulse is seen
To blush, like a banner bathed in slaughter;
There, with a light and easy motion,
The fan-coral sweeps through the clear deep sea,
And the yellow and scarlet tufts of ocean
Are bending like corn on the upland lea,
And life, in rare and beautiful forms,
Is sporting amid those bowers of stone,
And is safe when the wrathful spirit of storms
Has made the top of the wave his own;
And when the ship from his fury flies
While the myriad voices of ocean roar,
When the wind-god frowns in the murky skies,
And demons are waiting the wreck on shore;
Then far below, in the peaceful sea,
The purple mullet and gold-fish rove,
Where the waters murmur tranquilly,
And lave the twigs of the coral grove.

## REPETITION.

In all probability, some of the pupils, having greater quickness of apprehension, and more confidence, than the others, have replied to most of the questions during the first lesson; and to attempt to prevent this would be wrong—for, if they who answer most readily were permitted to speak only in their turn, a great deal of time would be lost; but now, in the commencement of the second, care must be taken to bring up the backward and the timid. For this purpose, the class must be arranged, so that, contrary to general usage, those who in the preceding lesson were most backward with their answers may be questioned first. It does not an-

swer for the pupils to take places during these first lessons. Nothing that distracts their attention can be permitted, and that has a tendency to do so. After they have got a certain length the case is altered—and even now, if the teacher cannot otherwise arrange the class, that method of doing it may be taken; but, as soon as they seem to have got their proper places, it must be dropped, and the questions put first to those who have fallen lowest.

Go on with new examples of the same kind as those in the preceding lesson—verbs, their nominative nouns expressed—verbs, their nominative nouns expressed and understood—sentences containing verbs as before, and verbs in the infinitive. The review and repetition will occupy about half an hour—generally rather less. As soon as you find they all answer readily, go on, as pointed out in the following exercise, without pause or introduction, to the pronouns.

## EXAMPLES.

The parents of those little boys had desired them to return at eight o'clock.

The elder brother had the courage to whisper to another boy.

His sister requested him to bring her a book.

Earl Gilbert waved his truncheon high,
Just as the northern ranks arose,
Signal for England's archery
To halt and* bend their bows.

Then stepp'd each yeoman forth a pace,
Glanced at the intervening space,

* Ask your pupils to supply the ellipsis--to say what is wanting.

And raised his left hand high;
At once ten thousand bowstrings ring,
Ten thousand arrows fly!

There came an eve of festal hours,
Rich music fill'd that garden's bowers.

## PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The trumpet sounded. The young victors advanced. Wreaths of laurel were placed on their heads. Rich gifts were presented to them, and they retired, amid the acclamations of the spectators.*

*Q.* The first verb?
*A.* Sounded.
*Q.* The nominative?
*A.* Trumpet.
*Q.* The second verb?
A. Advanced.
*Q.* The nominative?
*A.* Victors.
Wreaths of laurel, &c.
*Q.* The verb?
*A.* Were placed.
*Q.* The nominative?
*A.* Wreaths.
Rich gifts, &c.
*Q.* The verb?
*A.* Were presented.
*Q.* The nominative?
*A.* Gifts.
And they, &c.
*Q.* The verb?
*A.* Retired.

* The whole paragraph should first be read to them, and then each portion separately.

*Q.* The nominative?

It is probable that at this question a difference in opinion will be manifest. One will answer, "They." Another will say, "Victors understood." Should this be the case, carry out the division by asking each of the class in turn—"Which do you think is the nominative?" Then say, "They *is* the nominative; but I should like to hear, from you that said so, what it was which led you to suppose that such a word could be the nominative of a verb. It is neither the name of person, of animal, nor of thing. What right has it to stand as nominative to a verb?"

I have never yet had a class of pupils that were unable to answer this or a similar question; but it is very likely that the task of answering will devolve on some of those who gave "victors"—and they will reply, "It stands instead of victors," or, "It stands in the place of victors." "You are right—it does so. It is one of those words which stand instead of nouns; and its name, pro-noun, signifies for, or instead of a noun. If we had no such words, we would be obliged to repeat nouns or names very often. Thus, instead of saying, "Willy took great pains to keep it upright, so he held his finger and thumb close to the head of the nail; and when he struck it with the hammer, he gave his finger and thumb a good blow,"—we should have to say, "Willy took great pains to keep the nail upright, so Willy held his finger and thumb close to the head of the nail; and when Willy struck the nail with the hammer, Willy gave his finger and thumb a good blow." The same word recurring so often has an unpleasant effect, and this is felt still more if the word be a long one. In most languages, pronouns are short words; in English the greater part of them are mono-

syllables. In the passage where we found the first pronoun, the noun must likewise have been repeated if there had been no pronoun to take its place; for, "rich gifts were presented to them, and retired amid the acclamations of the spectators," would not have conveyed the sense: the nominative could not thus be *understood.*

"Now have you ever observed that when you speak of yourselves you do not use your own names?"

"You, Charles, when* you asked me if you might go into the other room for your book, did you say, 'May Charles go?'"

"No; I said, 'May I go?'"

"But if your brother had said, 'May I go?' would you have supposed he was speaking for you?"

"No; he would have been speaking for himself."

"Then it is always the person speaking that says I?"

"Yes."

"But if you had been asking permission for your brother and yourself too, what would you have said?"

"May George and I go?"

"And if you were telling me that both he and you were going to the country, and were to return next day, would you say, 'George and I are going to the country, and George and I will return?'"

"No; I would say, 'George and I are going, and *we* will return.'"

Here then is another person which the speaker uses in speaking of himself, and another coupled with him.

"If both your brothers were going with you, what would you say?"

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* Teachers can easily alter this or any other sentence to suit their respective classes.

"George, Edward, and I are going, and *we* will return."

"You would still say *we?*"

"Yes."

"Then, whether the party consists of two or two hundred, the speaker, speaking of himself and others, uses *we*; and, when speaking of himself singly, uses *I?*" Tell me now, do you always use people's names when you speak *to* them? Would you say to your sister, 'Jane, will Jane come to the garden and see my pear-tree?' "

"No; I would say, 'Jane, will you come?"

"And, if you were asking both Jane and Emily, would you still use you?"

"Yes."

"Then, in speaking to either one or more than one, you would still use the same pronoun?"*

"Could you find no other to use in speaking to one single person? Try if you can recollect whether in Scripture or in Poetry you have not sometimes met with another?"

"Then Agrippa said unto Paul, *Thou* art permitted to speak for thyself."

"King Agrippa, believest *thou* the prophets? I know that *thou* believest."

"*Thou* art walking the billows, and ocean smiles,
*Thou* hast touch'd with glory his thousand isles;
*Thou* hast lit up the ships and the feathery foam,
And gladdened the sailor like words from home."

"Is not *thou* in these examples used in addressing one person?"

"Could it be used in addressing more than one?"

* Very few of the answers supposed to be made by the children are given; but the meaning of their replies will be such as is evidently *implied* in the succeeding remark made, or question put by the teacher.

"You are right. *Thou* is a pronoun that formerly was often used in addressing one person, but now we generally use *you* in speaking to one as well as to more than one; still in poetry we use *thou*, and the Society of Quakers or Friends have retained the use of it in conversation. This is not all; *ye*, which is never used when we are speaking to one, was, and is still sometimes used in speaking to more than one. Can you remember any other pronoun? In speaking *to* your father, you would use *you*, but can you do so in speaking *of* him? Would you, if he were going to build a house, say, "My father has bought land, and you are going to build on it?"

"No; My father has bought land, and he is going."

"Here, then, is another pronoun; and if you were speaking of your mother, would you say, 'My mother gave us flower-seeds, and *he* is going to get plants for us?"

"And could you say, 'The book was left on the table, and now *she* is gone?'"

"And speaking of your sisters, could you say, 'Jane and Emily went to my uncle's yesterday, and she is to bring one of my cousins up?"

"And speaking of your brothers, could you use *they*?"

"Speaking of books, could you use *they?* Could you say, The books were lent, and now they are returned?"

"Repeat* those pronouns, and count how many words called pronouns we have now?"

* If in the class there are any who have studied Grammar, they should, as has been already stated, be always questioned last; but while thus distinguishing the pronouns you will have to request them to be silent, as this arrangement differs from that they have learned.

"You have omitted one.* Let us arrange them, and then you will recollect them better. Of whom do you generally think first? The books of all the scholars are lying on the desk. Tell me, Henry, if I were now to dismiss the class, whose books would you go to look for?

"And if you saw two or three of your class-mates going without theirs, you would perhaps say, 'Boys, are you leaving your books?' But you would not return and collect them, would you?"

"Certainly, no one has a right to expect another to do for him what belongs to him to do, and what he can as well do himself. So when any thing is to be done in which you are concerned, you think what part of it?"

"What part of it I have to do."

"For this reason, as each person naturally thinks first of himself, and calls himself *I*, we put *I* first among the pronouns, and call it the first person.

"*I* is then the first person—the pronoun the speaker uses in speaking of himself singly; but speaking of himself along with another or others, what pronoun does he use?"

"This, then, is still the pronoun of the first person; but as it signifies more than one, we call it plural. Do any of you know enough of Latin or of French to tell me why we call it plural? *Plus* signifies *more*, and from that comes our word plural, more than one."

"*I* and *we*, then, are pronouns of the first person—the one singular, the other plural."

"Is it not generally the case that the person you speak *to* is nearer you than the person you speak *of*?"

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* This is generally the case.

"Yes, for the person *to* whom you speak must be near enough to hear you—the person you speak *of*, may be in a distant part of the world. The person you speak *to*, is living now; but you may speak *of* one who has been dead a thousand years. For this reason, the pronouns you use in speaking *to* others, are called the *second*—pronouns of the *second* person; while those you use in speaking *of* them are called the *third*. Tell me now what pronoun you use in speaking *to* one person."

"Yes; that is what we use now; but tell me the pronoun that was formerly used, and is so still in Scripture and in poetry?"

"This, then, *is* the pronoun of the second person singular; for though we do use the other in speaking to one, it is plural. We use it as the French do *vous*, and likewise put the verb in the plural as they do. You will be able to observe this when we come to the variations of verbs. Tell me now what pronouns we use in speaking *to* more than one?"

"*Thou* and *you*, then, are pronouns of the second person—the one singular, the other plural."

"Now what comes next to *second?*"

"Then the pronoun you use in speaking *of*, is the third person, and there are three of those pronouns corresponding with the different genders of the nouns they stand instead of. What pronoun do you use in speaking of your father or brother?"

"Yes; *he* is the pronoun of the third person, masculine gender, and the masculine gender denotes animals of the male kind, as a man, a boy, a lion. What pronoun do you use in speaking of your mother or sister?"

"Yes: *she* is the pronoun of the feminine gender, and that denotes animals of the female kind, as a woman, a girl, a lioness. What pronoun do you use in speaking of a book or pen?"

"And *it* is the pronoun of the third person, neuter gender. The neuter gender denotes things without life—as a house, a garden."

"Here are three pronouns of the third person. Try if you can find a fourth. What person do you use in speaking of your brothers?"

"What in speaking of your sisters?"

"What in speaking of your pens or your book?"

"Then there are three different pronouns in the singular of the third, and only one in the plural. Now let us hear them in their proper order?"

"I—thou—you—he—she—it—we—they."

"How many have we now?"

"Yes, eight—eight words, which are called personal pronouns."

This *is* the proper order, for it is the natural one, and it is easier for pupils to remember them thus; for each has its distinct character, and brings its plural along with it.

It was said that the length of the lessons must be left to the discretion of the teacher; but every experienced teacher will see at once, that this lesson on the pronouns ought not to be divided; and to those who have but little experience, I would beg leave to say that their pupils will recollect the whole lesson, much better than they would a part of it.

In the lesson following this, the first thing done must be to repeat and name the pronouns; the next, to let exercises, replete with pronouns in the nominative case, (for as yet we have nothing to do with any other case, either of noun or pronoun,) go twice or thrice round the class, taking care that each pupil tell what person, &c., the pronoun that falls to him to answer is.

Willy was much disappointed. "And why," said he, "cannot I build a wall that will stand firm like yours?" "Because you have never learnt, my lad," replied the man. "When I was a boy I was taught to build walls."*

Rosamond, a little girl of about seven years old, was walking with her mother through the streets of London. As she passed along, she looked in at the windows of the shops, and she saw many pretty things of which she did not know the use nor even the names.

I tossed the kite up just as little John ran off. It rose with all the dignity of a balloon.

Two children, a brother and sister, lived in a village in the United States. The name of the little girl was Ellen; the name of her brother was Henry. One day, as they were going to school, Henry proposed that they should go to the woods and pick whortle-berries. To this Ellen objected, and said it would be wrong, because their parents had given them no permission to do so. "But," said Henry, "we did not ask them. I dare say they would have no objections. It is very pleasant to pick whortle-berries. I love to ramble in the bushes, and† hear the birds, and fill my basket with the nice fruit."

The king has come to marshal us,
All in his armour dress'd;
And he has bound a snow-white plume
Upon his gallant crest.

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* It is to be presumed that no teacher will so far lose sight of the principle of this mode of instruction as to ask, "Which is the pronoun?" or "Where is the pronoun?" The first question must *always* be, "The verb?" Then, "The nominative?" Then, "Is it noun or pronoun?" "Of what person?" &c.

† Do not forget to desire them to supply the ellipsis here.

The champions had come from their fields of war,
Over the crests of the billows far;
They had brought back the spoils of a hundred shores
Where the deep had foam'd to their flashing oars.

The swell was gone from the harp's proud string,
They had summon'd a softer voice to sing;
And a captive girl at the warrior's call
Stood forth in the midst of that frowning hall.

Lonely she stood—in her mournful eyes
Lay the clear midnight of southern skies.

Ten years I will allot to the attainment of knowledge, and ten I will pass in foreign countries. I shall be learned, and therefore shall be honoured. Every city will shout at my arrival, and every student will solicit my friendship.

As for me, I was packed in a bag with a great many other fleeces, and sent to some mills. They seized hold of us, and pulled us, and twisted us about, in such a wonderful manner, that at last we were all drawn out into worsted threads, so unlike wool that I hardly knew myself again. But it was still worse when, some time afterwards, they plunged me into a large copper of dark, dirty-looking water; and when I was taken out, instead of being white, I was of a bright blue colour, and looked very beautiful. Well, some time after this, I was sent to the cloth-mills, and my threads were stretched into a machine called a loom, and there I was woven into a piece of cloth. I was then folded up, and lay quiet for some time."

"Indeed," said Edward, "I think you required a little rest."

"Soon after," resumed the voice, "I was bought by

tailor, and lay on the shelf of his shop, when one day you and your papa came in and asked to see some cloth to make you a coat. I was taken down and unfolded on the counter with several other pieces, and, if you remember, you chose me on account of my beautiful colour."

"So I did," said Edward; "but you are not so bright a blue now as you were then."

"Something the worse for wear," replied the coat. If you stain me and cover me with dirt, it is your fault, not mine."

Edward was much entertained with the story of the coat. "But these bright buttons," said he, "are not made of wool; have you nothing to say about them?"

"They were perfect strangers to me till they were sewn on," said the coat; "I know nothing about them; they must speak for themselves."

### THE BURIAL OF SIR JOHN MOORE.

Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As his corse to the rampart we hurried;
Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
Nor in sheet nor in shroud we wound him;
But he lay like a warrior calmly at rest,
With his martial cloak around him.

Few and short were the prayers we said,
And we spoke not a word of sorrow;
But we steadfastly gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

We thought, as we hollowed his narrow bed,
And smoothed down his lonely pillow,
The foe and the stranger would tread o'er his head,
And we far away on the billow.

Lightly they'll talk of the spirit that's gone
And o'er his cold ashes upbraid him;
But little he'll reck if they let him sleep on
In the grave where a Briton has laid him.

### THE VOICE OF SPRING.

I have passed o'er the hills of the stormy north,
And the larch has hung all his tassels forth;
The fisher is out on the sunny sea,
And the rein-deer bounds through the pasture free,
And the pine has a fringe of softer green,
And the moss looks bright where my step has been.

From the streams and founts I have loos'd the chain,
They are sweeping on to the silvery main;
They are flashing down from the mountain brows,
They are flinging spray on the forest boughs,
They are bursting forth from their sparry caves,
And the earth resounds with the joy of waves.

### ADDRESS TO THE STARS.

Ye are fair, ye are fair; and your pensive rays
Steal down like the light of departed days;
But have sin and sorrow ne'er wander'd o'er
The green abodes of each sunny shore?
Hath no frost been there, and no withering blast,
Cold, cold, o'er the flower and the forest past?
Does the playful leaf never fall nor fade?
The rose never droop in the silent shade?

Comes there no cloud on your morning beam?
On your night of beauty no troubled dream?
Have ye no tear the eye to annoy?
No grief to shadow its light of joy?
Hath death never sadden'd your scenes of bloom?
Have your suns never shone on the silent tomb?
Did their sportive radiance never fall
On the cypress tree, or the ruin'd wall?
'Twere vain to ask, for no eye hath seen
O'er the gulph eternally fixed between.
We hear not the song of your early hours;
We hear not the hymn of your evening bowers.
The strains they wake in each radiant sphere
Ne'er pour'd their sweets on a mortal ear;
Farewell, farewell! I go to my rest,
For the shades are passing into the west,
And the beacon pales on its lonely height,
Isles of the blessed, good night, good night!

The teacher can choose such passages of the foregoing exercises as are most suitable to the class; and as soon as the pupils answer readily every question, in sentences where there are personal pronouns, may pass on, without going through the whole, to the relative pronouns, letting them introduce themselves thus:

The man who treads mount Ætna, seems like a man above the world.

"The first verb?"

"The second verb?

"The nominative to the second verb? Who is it that seems?"

The answer will be "man."

"Yes; man is the nominative to seems. The *man*

who treads mount Ætna *seems.* Tell me now what is the nominative to the first verb—to *treads;* the man *who treads?*"

"Yes, *who* is the nominative to *treads.* It, too, is a pronoun—it is called a relative pronoun, and it relates to some noun in the same sentence with it. Can any of you tell me to what noun it relates?"

"Yes, it relates to man. I asked you what was the nominative to the *second* verb, *first,* to prevent your making a mistake which otherwise you might have done; for *man* being the noun, and the subject of the sentence, you would very probably have made it nominative to the first verb, which it is not. After this, when you come to a relative pronoun, consider well before you name the nominative. In sentences where there are relatives, the first verb is seldom the principal one. The man seems above the world. The nominative here is separated from its verb by a clause pointing out what man it is who seems above the world —the man *who treads* mount Ætna."

This appearance, which is now familiar, filled the companions of Columbus with terror.

"The first verb?"

"The second verb?

"The nominative to the second verb? What was it that filled?"

"Yes, it was appearance. Now, the nominative to the first verb? This appearance, *which is.*"

"Yes, *which* is the nominative. Try if you can tell me what is the difference between who and which. Could we say the man which treads mount Ætna?"

"You are right; we could not with propriety say so. Could we say, this appearance who?"

"Nor that either, Well, tell me the difference between man and appearance?"

"Yes, man is a person, and appearance is a thing. *Who* is the relative used for persons; and *which*, for things. But what do we use for animals? Would we say, the butterfly, *who* flew into the room, or the butterfly *which*?"

"Yes, we would say which. Could we say the horse which run the race?"

"You are right; we would say *that*. *That* is likewise a relative pronoun. We use it sometimes instead of *who*, sometimes instead of *which*, and it is often used in speaking of the more intelligent animals. Speaking of them, when in life and in action, we seldom use which; we would say, "The dog who rescued the child, rather than which rescued. Now here are three relative pronouns—*who*, *which*, and *that;* and here, too, is a sentence with one of them: "Upon this the whole row of little buttons raised their sharp voices at once, which sounded like the jingling of so many little bells."

"The first verb?"

"The nominative?"

Here you see no clause interferes between the nominative and verb.

"The second verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Yes, which *is* the nominative to sounded. This sentence is differently arranged to those preceding it, on which we had relatives. In this the principal verb immediately follows its nominative. If there had been no relative, no *which* to put in, what word could we have used to give the same meaning as that which follows "raised their voices?"

"I think we would have required *and*, too,—'And their voices sounded.' Do you not think '*which* sounded' preferable?"

Now, you have some idea of the use of the relative. After this I shall proceed in the usual way, asking you the nominative to each verb as it stands; but recollect what I told you; you must consider well when you come to a sentence that has a relative nominative in it, to which of the verbs it belongs.

You will sometimes meet with *that* where it is no relative. We have already had the same monosyllable, but not the same word;* because, though spelt with the same letters, it had a different signification. "King Agrippa, believest thou the prophets? I know that thou believest."

The relative *that* can always be turned into *who* or into *which* without altering the sense: the word that cannot thus be replaced either by *who* or by *which* is no relative; the noun the relative refers to is called the antecedent.

EXERCISES.

The grand vizier, who opposed all his designs, was deposed about two months after.

He slipped two ducats into the hand of the post-master, who exactly performed his orders.

The king had a horse given him, that was both lame and restive.

Leaves, which consist of fibres in a kind of network, perform functions of essential importance.

Riga was defended by the old count d'Alberg, who joined the fire of a young man to the experience of eighty campaigns.

* See Appendix.

The princes who were to have furnished their contingencies for the army, contributed nothing.

Come, take our boy, and we will go*
  Before our cabin-door;
The winds shall bring us, as they blow,
  The murmurs of the shore;
And we will kiss his young blue eyes,
And I will sing him as he lies,
  Songs that were made of yore.
I'll sing in his delighted ear
The island lays thou lov'st to hear.

Oh, how one ugly trick has spoil'd
  The sweetest and the best!
Matilda, though a pleasant child,
  One ugly trick possess'd,
Which, like a cloud before the skies,
Hid all her better qualities.

Her grandmamma went out one day,
  And by mistake she laid
Her spectacles and snuff-box gay
  Too near the little maid;
"Ah! well," thought she, "I'll try them on,
As soon as grandmamma is gone."†

THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

During the engagement, William had given the most signal proofs of personal bravery. Three horses had been killed under him, and he had been compelled to

* Read the whole piece, for the sake of the connection; but begin to question them only at "we will go."

† We set aside for the present the remaining pronouns, and go on through the following exercises to the adjective.

grapple, on foot, with his adversaries. Harold had also animated his followers, both by word and example, and had displayed a courage worthy of the crown for which he was fighting. His brothers, Gurth and Leoswin, had perished already; but as long as he survived, no man entertained the apprehension of defeat, or admitted the idea of flight. A little before sunset, an arrow, shot at random, entered his eye. He instantly fell, and the knowledge of his fall relaxed the efforts of the English. Twenty Normans undertook to seize the royal banner, and effected their purpose, but with the loss of half their number. One of them, who maimed with his sword the dead body of the king, was afterwards disgraced by William for his brutality. At dusk, the English broke up, and dispersed through the wood. William's intrepidity hurried him forward to the scene of danger; his presence encouraged his men; succours arrived; and the English, after an obstinate resistance, were repulsed.

### THE WANDERER OF AFRICA.

He launched his boat where the dark waves flow,
Through the desert that never was white with snow,
When the wind was still, and the sun shone bright,
And the stream glowed red with the morning light;
He had sat in the cool of the palm's broad shade,
And drank of the fountain of Kasrah's glade,
When the herb was scorch'd by the sun's hot ray,
And the camel fail'd on his thirsty way.

And the dark maids of Sego their mats had spread,
And sung all night by the stranger's bed;
And his sleep was sweet on that desert sand,
For his visions were far in his own loved land.

He was weary and faint in a stranger clime,
But his soul was at home, as in youth's sweet time;
And he lay in the shade by his cot's clear pool,
And the breeze which came by was refreshing and cool,
And the look of his mother was gentle and sweet,
And he heard the loved steps of his sister's light feet;
And their voices were soft, and expressive, and low,
Like the distant rain or the brook's calm flow.

## NAMES OF QUALITIES, OR ADJECTIVES.

And their voices were soft, and expressive, and low.

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

"There is no nominative following the verb *to be*, here; but what are all these words clustering together —*soft, expressive, low?* They seem to belong to one class, do they not?"

"They are neither nouns nor verbs; what would you call them? Let us go back to the lines about Matilda:

Matilda, though a pleasant child,
One ugly trick possess'd;
Which, like a cloud before the skies,
Hid all her better qualities."

"What do you suppose those better qualities were that Matilda had? She was—what do you suppose she was? Unkind, and greedy, and spiteful, and sullen?"

The answer will be "No."

"What do you suppose she was, then?"

You will probably be told, "Good, kind, mild, &c."

"These were her better qualities?"

"Then the words you have just repeated, 'good,' &c. are the names of *qualities*—good qualities,—and those *I* mentioned before—'unkind, greedy, spiteful, sullen,' are names of bad qualities, are they not?"

"And do not *soft*, *expressive*, *low*, likewise seem to be qualities?"

Let us try if we can find any more:

And the look of his mother was gentle and sweet.

"What qualities had the look of his mother? What was it?"

I thought of the friends who had roam'd with me there,
When the sky was so *blue*, and the flowers were so *fair*.

"Any qualities in that line?"

"I thought of the river all *quiet* and *bright*?"

"I thought of the *green* banks, that circled around?"

"Yes; we had *blue* before, and now we have *green*. Colours are qualities—a green bank, a purple flower; and all qualities resemble colours in one point—they must belong to some person, animal, or thing. We may speak of the *names* of colours—pink, blue, yellow—but we can never *use* them without having something to put them on; no more can we apply qualities without some object, animate or inanimate, to link them to. Back to our first example now:

Their voices were soft, and expressive, and low.

"What are said to be soft, and expressive, and low?"

"Yes, voices are said to be so."

When the sky was so blue.

"What was blue?"

And the flowers were so fair.

" What were fair ?"

In that line each object has one quality only.

About half way up was a verdant and pleasant spot.

" The qualities in that line ?"

" And the object to which they are linked ?"

Spot has two qualities there.

In the midst stood a high and solitary palm.

" The qualities ?"

" The object or noun to which they belong ?"

" Palm has two qualities there. One single thing, as well as one person, may have many qualities. One person may be intelligent, kind, benevolent, and self-denying—another may be arrogant, selfish, and quarrelsome. No object, however trifling, is without some distinguishing quality. How many qualities do you think an apple may have? Of what form is it?"

" Yes, apples are generally round; and one apple may be hard, green, and sour—another may be ripe, red, soft, sweet, and juicy."

" How many qualities do we reckon, belonging to that one apple?"

" We will now go on with our exercises as formerly."

In the following plan of Exercises in Writing, Inf. signifies Infinitive; P. personal pronoun; P. R. relative pronoun; *ant.* antecedent; U. understood; O. ordinal; *nat.* national; † after an adjective, signifies that it qualifies the noun which has a similar mark.

## EXAMPLES FOR EXERCISES IN WRITING.



| | *Verbs.* | *Nominatives.* | *Names of Qualities, or Adjectives.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| From Mahomet the Second, who took Constantinople, to | Took. | Who, P. R. *ant.* Mahomet.† | Second† O. |
| Solyman the Magnificent, who began his reign a few | Began. | Who, P. R. *ant.* Solyman.† | Magnificent.† |
| months after Charles the Fifth was placed on the imperial | Was placed. | Charles.† | Fifth.† O. |
| throne of Germany, a succession of illustrious princes ruled | Ruled. | Succession. | Imperial—illustrious. |
| over the Turkish empire. | | | |
| By their great abilities, they kept their subjects of every | Kept. | They, P. 3d p. plu. no. | Great—military—civil |
| order, military as well as civil, submissive to government, | Had. | They, U. P. 3d p. plu. no. | Submissive—absolute. |
| and had the absolute command of whatever force their vast | Was. | Empire.† | Vast†—able.† |
| empire was able to exert. Solyman, in particular, who is | To exert. Inf. | | |
| known to the Christians chiefly as a conqueror, but is cele- | Is known. | Who, P. R. *ant.* Solyman. | |
| brated in the Turkish annals as the great lawgiver who es- | Is celebrated. | Who, U. P. R. Solyman. | Turkish—*nat.* |
| tablished order and police in their empire, governed, during | Governed. | Solyman. | Long—less. |
| his long reign, with no less authority than wisdom. | | | |
| " I saw his coursers in proud triumph go, | Saw. | I. P. 1st p. sing. | Proud, |
| Swift as the wind, and white as winter snow ; | Go. Inf. | | Swift—white. [ing |
| Rich silver plates his shining car infold, | Infold. | Plates.† | Rich†—silver†—shin- |
| His solid arms, refulgent flame with gold." | Flame. | Arms.† | Solid†—refulgent.† |
| " Bold was thy aim, and glorious was the prize, | 1 Was—2was | 1 Aim—2 prize. | 1 Bold—2 glorious. |
| (Ulysses, with a scornful smile, replies) ; | Replies. | Ulysses. | Scornful. |
| Far other rulers those proud steeds demand, | Demand. | Steeds.† | Proud.† |
| And scorn the guidance of a vulgar hand." | Scorn. | Steeds, U. | Vulgar. |

## EXERCISES.

Columbus was the first European who set foot in the new world, which he had discovered. He landed in a rich dress, and with a naked sword in his hand.

"The first verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Yes, you are right; two nominatives, both signifying the same person—Columbus, European."

"The second verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Is it noun or pronoun?"

"The third verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Whom does it stand instead of?"

"Any qualities in that sentence?"

"To what noun does *new* belong?"

He landed, &c.

"The first verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Whom does *he* stand instead of?"

"Any qualities in that?"

"To what noun does rich belong?"

"Any more?"

"To what noun does *naked* belong?"

Heavy clouds obscured the sun; and as they neared the land, the sky grew dark and darker.

"The first verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Any qualities there?"

"Dark and darker. What does darker mean? Is it not the same as dark?"

"They are not exactly the same. Well, can you tell me what is the difference?"

"Then *I* must tell *you*. They express different de-

1 Was—2 was | 1 Aim—2 prize.
Replies. | Ulysses.
Demand. | Steeds.†
Scorn. | Steeds, U.

"Bold was thy aim, and glorious was the prize,
(Ulysses, with a scornful smile, replies);
Far other rulers those proud steeds demand,
And scorn the guidance of a vulgar hand."

1 Bold—2 glorious.
Scornful.
Proud.†
Vulgar.

grees of the same quality; and there are very few qualities which have not different degrees. Suppose we had three mountains in view; one might be lofty, another still——"

"Yes, loftier; and the third, with its summit towering above the other two?"

"Yes, the loftiest; and of three brothers, one may be young, another younger, the third the youngest; and one may be tall, another——go on now?"

"Yes, another taller, and the third, the tallest. One horse may be swift, another——"

"Yes, swift—swifter—swiftest. Now, when you say, that is a tall tree, are you thinking of one or more than one?"

"Yes, of one; and tall is the simple or positive degree; but yonder is another taller than it. Of how many now?"

"Of two; you are thinking of two, and comparing the one with the other—so this is called the *comparative* degree; and when you say, that farthest off is the tallest of the three, or of the group, you are thinking of several; and tallest of all is the highest degree; for that reason, it is called the superlative—from *super*, above—above, or over the rest. Repeat to me now the three degrees of comparison?"

---

"Our last lesson was on qualities, and we left off at their different degrees. Soft is the first, the simple or positive degree of that quality. Can you tell me the second and third?"

"Softer and softest; and what name has the second degree?"

"Yes, the comparative; because, in using it, we are comparing one thing with another. Now the name of the third?"

" Superlative; because it is above, or highest of all."

The pretty red squirrel lives up in a tree,
A little blithe creature as ever can be;
He dwells in the boughs, where the stock dove broods,
Far in the shade of the deep green woods.

The pretty red squirrel lives up in a tree.

" The verb ?"
" The nominative ?"
" Any qualities in that line ?"
" Can you compare pretty ?"

It is very seldom we say redder, or reddest; for the different shades of red have distinguishing names.

As blithe, &c.

" There is no verb there. Can you tell me the meaning of blithe ?"

" Then it is a quality. We will say nothing about its degree at present."

He dwells in the boughs where the stock dove broods.

" The first verb ?"
" The nominative ?"
" The second verb ?"
" The nominative ?"

" Now I must tell you the qualities in the next line, lest you should make a mistake—' deep green woods.' There are two qualities there. The meaning is not woods, that are of a deep green colour; but woods, that are both deep and green. Tell me, what degree deep is ?"

" Now give the comparative and superlative degrees ?"

## EXERCISES.

In America have been found the bones of an animal, called the mammoth; he was larger than the elephant. There are no living mammoths now. The elephant is the largest animal we know any thing about. He is strong, obedient, and sagacious. In Siam, a country of Asia, the people love elephants very much. The king of Siam has a beautiful house for his elephants; he feeds them upon the cleanest and the whitest rice.

I have sent through the wood-paths a gentle sigh,
And called out each voice of the deep blue sky,
From the night-bird's lay through the starry time,
In the groves of the soft Hesperian clime,
To the swan's wild note, by the Iceland lakes,
Where the dark fir-bough into verdure breaks.

The general colour of the lion is yellow; his look is bold; his gait, proud; and his voice, terrible. His face is broad, and some have thought that it resembles the human countenance. His teeth are terrible, and his paws, like those of the cat. His eyes are bright and fiery.

There came an eve of festal hours,
Rich music filled that garden's bowers.

## ADVERBS.

The Arab spake kindly to the stranger, and invited him to enter his tent.

"The first verb?"
"The nominative?"
"The second verb?"
"The nominative?"
"Is it expressed or understood?"
"The third verb?"
"No nominative?"

The Arab spake kindly to the stranger.

Perhaps some of you are about to say kindly is a quality; but think again. A quality must belong to some particular object—some person, animal, or thing. 'The voice of the lion is terrible'—it is a terrible voice. 'The elephant is strong, obedient, and sagacious'—he has all these qualities, but our present example does not say that the Arab was kind—always kind—or of a kind disposition—it merely says he spoke kindly to a passing stranger; and the word kindly, expressing the manner in which he spake, belongs to the verb, not to the noun—it is attached to spoke, not to Arab. Did any of you ever observe fish in a clear stream? Are not their motions quick when they dart along even against the current? Would you not, in describing them, say that, in their own element they are swift? Does not the river, in some places, flow rapidly? We say the current there is strong and rapid; strong and rapid express qualities belonging to the flow of the water at that particular part of the river. Throw a bit of wood into that strong current: how would you describe its motion? You would probably say, 'It goes swiftly, rapidly down,' would you not? But swiftly or rapidly would not express qualities belonging to the wood—either or both of these words, if you were to use them, would only describe the manner of its motion; they would belong to the verb, not to the noun; it *goes* swiftly, it *goes* rapidly. Horehound is bitter; here bitter is a quality belonging to the verb. The two children put their arms about each other's necks, and wept bitterly. Bitterly there is linked to the verb *wept*, is it not? Kindly, swiftly, rapidly, bitterly, all belong to a class of words which we have not yet considered. They are

called adverbs, because they are more frequently joined to verbs than to any other class or order of words. Those words which principally occupied our last lesson we have as yet only called by their natural name—names of qualities—but in Grammar they have another name. They are called adjectives. Adverbs are sometimes joined to them. Suppose you hear thunder rolling and coming nearer. One peal is loud—the next?

"Yes, louder—and the third?"

"Now amongst your classmates are three; one is studious—another, who studies still harder, is——"

"More studious; and the third, we will say, the most studious. More and most are adverbs, and many of those adjectives which have two or more syllables, are compared by prefixing more to express the comparative degree, and most to express the superlative. A variety of words belong to the class of adverbs. At first view you would scarcely suppose that *yes*, *here*, and *late*, could be words of the same class—yet they all have one common point of resemblance—each of them can answer a question. 'Have you seen your brother?' 'Yes.' 'Where is he?' 'Here.' 'When did he arrive?' 'Late.' Generally, however, in such replies the verb used in the preceding question, if not repeated, is understood. 'He *is* here.' 'He arrived late.' *Here* is an adverb of one kind, and *late* of another; and, as there are several different sorts of adverbs, we will, before going farther, name some of those most in use, and say to which class they belong. Do you know the difference between *to affirm* and *to deny?* Suppose I ask you a question, and you mean to answer in the affirmative, you say yes, do you not?"

"*Yes* is an adverb of affirmation. Now there is

another little monosyllable, which says directly the reverse of yes?"

"*No* is an adverb of negation. Does not *here* mean in this place?"

"It is an adverb of place. *There* is another of the same kind, and so is *yonder* and *hither*, and there are many more such. Does not *now* mean at this time?"

"What is it an adverb of, then?"

"Yes, it is an adverb of time; and *presently*, *soon*, *long since*, *lately*, are likewise adverbs of time. *Perhaps* and *peradventure*, are adverbs of doubt. *Once*, *twice*, *thrice*, &c. are adverbs of number; and *first*, *secondly*, *thirdly*, are adverbs of order. *Rapidly*, *kindly*, *swiftly*, *bitterly*, are adverbs of manner. They are formed from adjectives; and, allowing for a few exceptions, we may form from any adjective an adverb of manner. From *sweet* comes *sweetly;* from *bright* comes *brightly*; from *close*, *closely*. *More* and *most* are adverbs of comparison, and so is *as;* it is used in what is called the comparison of equality, and does then signify equally—*as* brave, *as* generous, *as* kind, as his father."

The merchants of Arabia, Egypt, and Syria, employ camels to carry great loads across wide tracts of sand, where there are no springs of water, except at great distances from each other, and no shady trees.

"The first verb!"
"The nominative?"
"The second verb?"
"What mode is it in?"
"The third verb?"
"The nominative?"

"'And no shady trees.' Supply the verb that is wanting there?"

"Now give the nominative?"

"Form the adverb from it?"

"Any other adjectives?

"Great again. The same adjective should not be introduced twice in one sentence, if another can be found to supply its place. Let us see if we can amend this. Large distances would not be a correct expression; but we can say large loads, and great distances, and then there will be no unpleasant repetition. There is yet another adjective, and it belongs to trees. We can compare it; we can say, a more shady spot—and we might even say, the most shady spot; but it is seldom we thus use it—and we would not say, the most shady tree, but the tree that throws the deepest or the widest shade. We form no adverb from it."

This strong and patient animal endures both fatigue and thirst.

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Any adjectives?"

"Tell me the superlative of patient?"

"Form the adverb from it?"

The merchants who use the camel, do not travel singly, but in large companies, called caravans.

"The verb in that sentence?"

"The nominative?"

"What class of words does singly belong to?"

"What adjective is it formed from?"

"This is one of those adjectives that have only the degree. 'But——in large companies,' &c. Supply the verb?"

"Is there no adjective in the sentence?"

"Compare it?"

"Now can any of you tell me the difference between an adjective and an adverb? Tell me, then, what an adjective expresses?"

"Yes, it expresses a quality; adverbs generally express some circumstance—the time, the place, the order, or manner in which a thing is done. An adjective always belongs to some noun, or to a pronoun, the representative of a noun; an adverb belongs sometimes to a verb, sometimes to an adjective, sometimes to another adverb. 'A strong bow.' Strong expresses a quality belonging to bow. 'A quick step.' Quick is likewise an adjective belonging to step. 'But Charles walked quickly to school.' Here the adverb *quickly* expresses a circumstance—the manner in which Charles walked—and is joined to the verb. 'From this point you have a more extensive view.' Extensive qualifies view, and the adverb *more* is joined to *extensive*, and puts it in the comparative degree. 'He ran very swiftly.' Here the adverb *very* is joined to the other adverb *swiftly*."

Do you pretend to sit as* high on Olympus as Hercules sits?

The calm shade shall bring a kindred calm, and the sweet breeze, that makes the green leaves dance, shall waft a balm to thy sick heart.

The mossy rocks themselves, the old and ponderous trunks of once proud trees that lead from knoll to knoll, a causeway rude, or bridge,† the sunken brook, and their dark roots with all their earth upon them, breathe fixed tranquillity.

* As and high are adverbs.

† Bridge is a verb.

## CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

| *Affirmation.* | *Negation.* | *Doubt.* | *Interrogation.* | *Number.* | *Order.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Yes, yea. | No, nay. | Perhaps. | Why. | Once. | First. |
| Verily. | Not. | Perchance. | Whither. | Twice. | Secondly. |
| Doubtless. | Not at all. | Peradventure. | When. | Thrice. | Thirdly. |
| Surely. | | Probably. | | | Fourthly. |
| Certainly. | | Possibly | | | |

| *Time.* | *Place.* | *Comparison.* | *Manner.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Now. | Here. | More, most, little, less. | So, thus, well, ill. |
| Then. | There. | Rather, much quite. | Brightly, sweetly. |
| Soon. | Near. | Almost, nearly. | Swiftly, &c. |
| To-day. | Off, far off. | Better, worse. | Like, sig. in the same manner. |
| To-morrow. | Somewhere. | Too. | Adverbs of manner are mostly derived from adjectives. |
| Yesterday. | Nowhere. | As, sig. equally—in the same manner, in the same ratio. | |
| Ever, never. | Upward. | | |
| Again. | Downward. | | |
| Always. | Forward. | | |
| Seldom. | Backward. | | |
| Duly, Daily. | Nigh. | | |
| Nightly. | High, sig. in a high place. | | |
| Weekly, &c. | Low, sig. in a low place. | | |
| Immediately | Nearer, farther. | | |

## EXERCISES.

The congar is the largest animal of the cat kind, in America; and has occasionally received the name of the American lion.

Adam then proceeds to give an account of his condition and sentiments, immediately after his creation. How agreeably does he represent the posture in which he found himself—the beautiful landscape that surrounded him, and the gladness of heart which grew up in him on that occasion.

The conference between Gabriel and Satan abounds with sentiments proper for the occasion.

In Switzerland, and along the whole line of their growth, larches supply the principal timber for domestic purposes, more especially for building.

"The sun is not set yet, Thomas?" "Not quite, sir. It blazes through the trees on the hill yonder, as if their branches were on fire."

"Do you pretend to sit as high on Olympus as Hercules?"

Merrily, merrily goes the bark
On a breeze from the northward free;
So shoots through the morning sky the lark,
Or the swan, through the summer sea.

Merrily, merrily goes the bark,
Before the gale she bounds;
So darts the dolphin from the shark,
Or the deer before the hounds.

And oft he traced the uplands, to survey,
When o'er the sky advanced the kindling dawn,
The crimson cloud, blue main, and mountain gray,
And lake dim gleaming o'er the smoky lawn.
Far to the west the long, long vale withdrawn,
Where twilight loves to linger for a while;
And now he faintly kens the bounding fawn,
And villager abroad at early toil. [smile.
But lo! the sun appears, and heaven, earth, ocean

And oft he traced the uplands, to survey

"The first verb?"
"The nominative?"
"The second verb?"

When o'er the sky advanced the kindling dawn.

"The verb?"
"The nominative?"

Now pause a little on the next question. Do not answer hastily. Do you know what kindling is?

Sometimes in verse, the natural or common arrangement of words is altered. I will turn these lines into prose for you.

And often he traced the uplands, to survey the crimson cloud, the blue main (the sea), and the gray mountain, and the lake gleaming dimly over the smoky lawn, when (at the very time when) the dawn kindling advanced over the sky.

"Do you know what kindling is? Does it express an action or a quality?"*

It does express action; but, except when compounded with a verb, it does not express it in the strict and positive manner that the verb, as you have hitherto had it, does. It is not of itself a verb, but it is part of one, (though a distinct part); it is not an adjective, though sometimes used as one.

It belongs to a class of words, which, partaking the properties of both verbs and adjectives, are, on that account, called participles. Standing in the same connection as kindling does here, these words are simply participles; but compounded with the verbs we call auxiliaries, they help to form verbs and become part of them.

You have often had sentences in which they were thus used, and always recognized the expression as a verb. Rosamond was *walking*. The larch has *hung* all his tassels forth. Life is *sporting*.

The yellow and scarlet tufts of ocean
Are *bending* like corn on the upland lea.

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* Here again is a question on which there will probably be a division of opinion in the class; but, in whichever way they answer, it is easy, now that they understand the adjective to show that the participle partakes the nature of adjective and verb.

On the other hand, when the action they express is continuous, they become adjectives, for then that action is considered as a quality or property of the noun to which it is ascribed. Thus when we say a foaming cataract, the action is continuous; and foaming, being a quality of the cataract, is here an adjective; but, when describing an inundation occasioned by a temporary swell of a mountain stream, we say—The river, swollen to a threatening flood, came rushing and foaming down; *foaming* and *rushing* are both participles. Threatening, as applied to flood, is an adjective; because, while it continues a flood, it *may* occasion loss of life or property; when it subsides into its own channel, it ceases to be threatening, but then it is no longer a *flood.*

The first faint gleam of dawn is lighting the eastern sky.

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

The stars are disappearing.

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Is it noun or pronoun?"

"Spoken to or spoken of?",

For some time the struggle was most amusing; the fish *pulling,* and the bird *screaming* with all his might; the one attempting to fly, and the other to swim.

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Is there any adjective?"

"To what noun does it belong?"

"What degree is it? Should I say, 'Jane was amusing her sister?' 'Was amusing' would be—yes, a verb."

"Does *pulling* express action there?"

"Does *screaming* express action?"

"Then *pulling* and *screaming* are participles there?"

"The one *attempting* to fly? Name the verb there?"

"What is *attempting*?"

"Yes, it is a participle there. The one attempting to fly and the other——supply the ellipsis there?"

"Yes, *attempting* to swim."

Now we will return to the passage in which we found kindling.

"Are there any adjectives in the third line?"

Now neither of these adjectives can be compared in the usual way. Speaking of crimson, we say a deeper, or a brighter, crimson; of blue, a deeper or darker, or a lighter blue; of grey, a lighter or a darker grey.

"To what noun does crimson belong?"

"To what does blue belong?"

And the lake *gleaming* dimly over the smoky lawn.

"There is no verb in this line? What is gleaming?"

"What is dimly?"

"What adjective is it formed from?"

"Can you tell why, in the lines, as I first read them, the adjective dim is used instead of the adverb dimly? Then *I* must tell *you*. In poetry, a liberty of that kind is sometimes taken with words, when the syllable which should be added would make one too many for the measure; and here, dim passes for an adverb. What is smoky? To what noun does it belong? The first verb in the fifth line? 'Where twilight loves to linger,' &c. The nominative? The second verb? 'The long, long vale withdrawn far to the west.' Here is a participle—that differs from those

you have had. Withdrawn is a participle. Withdrawing is one you would have known better. There is yet another—having withdrawn. But we must leave these different participles to another lesson. Tell me if there are any adjectives in that line?"

"Long, repeated in this manner, means very long. I must tell you the verb in the next line; *ken* means to descry; it is seldom used now—he kens, he descries; and in that line, the participle bounding is used as an adjective; because the fawn generally bounds in moving—that is his natural pace. What is now? What is faintly?"

But lo! the sun appears; and Heaven, earth, ocean smile.

"The first verb?"

"The nominative?"

"The second verb?"

"The nominatives?"

The rivulet sends forth glad sounds; and, *ripling* over its bed of pebbly sands, or *leaping* down the rocks, seems, with continuous laughter, to rejoice in its being.

There was a delicious sensation of mingled security and awe with which I looked down from my giddy height on the monsters of the deep, at their uncouth gambols. Shoals of porpoises *tumbling* about the bows of the ship; the grampus slowly *heaving* his huge form above the surface; or the ravenous shark, *darting* like a spectre through the blue waters.

"What is that, mother?"

"The eagle, boy!
Proudly *careering* his course of joy,
Firm in his own mountain vigour *relying*;
*Breasting* the dark storm, the red bolt *defying*;

His wing on the wind, and his eye on the sun,
He swerves not a hair, but bears onward, right on.
Boy! may the eagle's course ever be thine,
Onward, and upward, and true to the line.

High sight it is, and haughty, while
They dive into the deep defile;
Beneath the cavern'd cliff they fall,
Beneath the castle's airy wall.

By rock—by oak—by hawthorn tree,
Troop after troop are disappearing;
Troop after troop their banners rearing,
Where the eastern bank you see.
Still *pouring* down the rocky den,
Where flows the sullen Till;
And *rising* from the dim-wood glen,
Standards on standards, men on men,
In slow succession still;
And *sweeping* o'er the Gothic arch,
And *pressing* on in ceaseless march,
To gain th' opposing hill.

The Scottish host drawn out appears,
For, *flashing* on the hedge of spears,
The eastern sun-beam shines.
Their front now *deepening*, now *extending*,
Their flank *inclining*, *wheeling*, *bending*,
Now *drawing* back, and now *descending*,
The skilful Marmion well could know,
They watch'd the motions of some foe.

I dreamed I saw a rosy child,
With flaxen ringlets, in a garden *playing*,
Now *stooping* here, and then afar off *straying*,
As flower or butterfly his feet beguiled.

The devout heart, penetrated with large and affecting views of the immensity of the works of God, the harmony of his laws, and the extent of his beneficence, bursts into loud and vocal expressions of praise and adoration; and, from a full and overflowing sensibility, seeks to expand itself to the utmost limits of creation.

The young of all animals appear to receive pleasure from the exercise of their limbs and bodily faculties, without reference to any end to be attained, and any use to be derived from the exertion.

A child, without knowing any thing of the use of language, is in a high degree delighted with being able to speak. Its incessant repetition of a few articulate sounds, or perhaps of a single word, which it has learned to pronounce, proves this point clearly.

Nor is it less pleased with its first successful endeavours to walk, or rather to run, which precedes walking; although entirely ignorant of the importance of the attainment to its future life, and even without applying it to any present purpose.*

A child is delighted with speaking without having any thing to say; and with walking, without knowing whither to go.

The poor child of nature knew not the God of revelation; but the God of the universe he acknowledged in every thing around him. He beheld him in the star, that sank in beauty behind his lonely dwelling; in the sacred orb, that beamed on him from her midnight throne; in the flower, that snapped in the morning breeze; in the lone pine, that defied a thousand whirlwinds; in the timid warbler, that never left its native grove; in the fearless eagle, whose untired pinion was

* See Appendix.

wet with clouds; in the worms, that crawled at his feet; and in his own matchless form, glowing with a spark of that light to whose mysterious source he bent in humble, though blind adoration.

If it was intended for us as well as you, why has not the Great Spirit given it to us; and not only to us, but why did he not give to our forefathers the knowledge of that Book, with the means of rightly understanding it?

We do not understand these things: we are told, that your religion was given to your forefathers, and has been handed down from father to sun. We also have a religion which was given to our forefathers, and has been handed down to us: it teaches us to be thankful for all favours received, to love each other, and to be united: we never quarrel about religion.

### MARCH.

The stormy March is come at last,
With wind, and cloud, and changing skies:
I hear the rushing of the blast,
That through the snowy valley flies.

Ah! passing few are they who speak,
Wild stormy month, in praise of thee;
Yet, though thy winds are loud and bleak,
Thou art a welcome month to me.

For thou to northern lands again,
The glad and glorious sun doth bring;
And thou hast joined the gentle train,
And wear'st the gentle name of Spring.

And in thy reign of blast and storm,
  Smiles many a long, bright, sunny day,
When the changed winds are soft and warm,
  And heaven puts on the blue of May.

Then sing aloud the gushing rills,
  And the full springs, from frost set free,
That, brightly leaping down the hills,
  Are just set out to meet the sea.

The year 's departed beauty hides
  Of wintry storms the sullen threat;
But, in thy sternest frown abides
  A look of kindly promise yet.

Thou bring'st the hope of those calm skies,
  And that soft time of sunny showers,
When the wide bloom, on earth that lies,
  Seems of a brighter world than ours.

## VARIATIONS OF THE VERB.

The stormy March is come at last,
  With wind, &c.

Go on with the usual questions through the first and second verses.

Thou art a welcome month to me.

*Art* is then the verb, and *thou* and *month* the nominatives, and *welcome* an adjective belonging to *month*. If it had been 'thou art welcome,' welcome would have been an adverb. Thou—the month of March—art welcome; but the line means more—it means the month of March is always a welcome month to the person who speaks.

"Is not *art* part of the verb *to be*?"

"Could I say I am here yesterday?"

"What then must I say?"

"Can I say I am here to-day?"

"What is the difference between to-day and yesterday?"

"You are right. Yesterday is past, and to-day is not. We call it present. When we speak of periods of time, we say, the present year—the present month—the present week,—meaning that, till its course is completed, some portion of the specified period of time is present or with us; and when we say the past year, the past or the last month or week, we speak of a period gone, and as surely belonging to that portion of time which is irrecoverably gone as is the last century.

"Is to-morrow past?"

"Is it here now?"

"Where is it then?"

"*To come*; that is right; to-morrow is a portion of time to come, which we call future. We say, I *was* here yesterday; I *am* here to-day; and to-morrow—— yes, that is right—I *will be* here. There are thus three different periods of time—past, present, and future; and you see the verb has been varied so as to mark to which of these different periods the action or event which it expresses belongs. These variations form the distinctions of time, and are called tenses, and by them we can distinguish to which of the divisions of time an action belongs, even when no particular period is spoken of. 'George gathered grapes for me.' We know that is past. 'George is gathering grapes for me.' This is present—he is doing it now. 'George will gather grapes for me'—at some future period of time he will do it."

"Now I am speaking of present time, I say, 'I am.' Can I say, 'we am?'"

"And why must I say, 'we are?' What is the difference between I and we?"

"Yes, *I* stands for one person, and *we* for more than one. That has led to another variation in the verb; the word is changed to make the distinction between one and more than one. We say, 'Summer is gone;' but if we speak of summer and autumn, we say, 'Summer and autumn'——yes, 'are gone.'"

"Now though I say, 'I am,' I cannot say, 'We am;' because *I* is singular and *we* plural. But can I say, '*He* am?' Why not? *He* is singular as well as *I*—what difference is there between them; they are both personal pronouns, are they not?"

"You are right; *I* is the pronoun of the first person—the pronoun used by the speaker in speaking of himself, and *he* is the pronoun of the third, and represents a person spoken of,—and the verb is varied to mark that distinction also; but our English verbs have fewer of those variations which mark distinctions of person and number, than the verbs of other languages, and that you will very soon be able to observe."

"There is another, and a very important distinction in verbs; that is, whether the action be done *by* or *to* the subject or nominative of the verb."

"Harry brought his old companion home." Here the action is done *by* the nominative. 'Harry was carried home by his uncle.' Here it is done *to* the subject or nominative, by his uncle."

Julius *forbade* his brother to say any thing more about it.

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

" Was the action done *by* or *to* Julius ?"

Julius *was forbidden* to say any thing more about it.

" Here Julius is the nominative again."

" Is the action said to be done *by* or *to* him ?"

This distinction does not exist in verbs that express being or a state of being. It is called the distinction of voice. That which represents the action as done *by* the subject is called the active voice ; that which represents it as done *to* the subject, or nominative, the passive voice. Those verbs which express being are called neuter. There is yet another distinction arising from the manner or mode in which the action is represented : Whether certain, as it is done, it will be done ; uncertain, as it may be done, if it should be done ; or commanding, as be it done. All the different variations of any one verb form what is termed the conjugation of it ; and to go through them all in their proper order, is to conjugate it. I said that verbs in other languages were varied, to mark the distinctions of person and number; so, of course, they are to express those of time, voice, and mode. Here is part of the conjugation of a verb in Latin, in French, and in English. I wish you to consider and compare the three.

INDICATIVE MOOD OF THE REGULAR VERB TO RECEIVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. Ego recipio. | 1. Nos recipimus. |
| 2. Tu recipis. | 2. Vos recipitis. |
| 3. Ille recipit. | 3. Illi recipiunt. |
| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| 1. I receive, or am receiving. | 1. We receive. |
| 2. Thou receivest, &c. | 2. Ye or you receive. |
| 3. He receives. | 3. They receive. |
| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| 1. Je reçois. | 1. Nous recevons. |
| 2. Tu reçois. | 2. Vous recevez. |
| 3. Il reçois. | 3. Ils reçoivent. |

PAST TENSES—IMPERFECT.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. Ego recipiebam. | 1. Nos recipiebamus. |
| 2. Tu recipiebas. | 2. Vos recipiebates. |
| 3. Ille recipiebat. | 3. Illi recipiebant. |
| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| 1. I was receiving, or I received. | 1. We were receiving. |
| 2. Thou wast or wert receiving, &c. | 2. Ye or you were receiving. |
| 3. He was receiving. | 3. They were receiving. |
| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| 1. Je recevais. | 1. Nous recevions. |
| 2. Tu recevais. | 2. Vous receviez. |
| 3. Il recevait. | 3. Ils recevaient. |

SECOND, OR SIMPLE PAST TENSE.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. Recepi. | 1. Recepimus. |
| 2. Recepisti. | 2. Recepistis. |
| 3. Recepit. | 3. Receperunt. |

* See Appendix.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I received. | 1. We received. |
| 2. Thou receivedst. | 2. Ye or you received. |
| 3. He received. | 3. They received. |
| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| 1. Je reçus. | 1. Nous reçûmes. |
| 2. Tu reçus. | 2. Vous reçûtes. |
| 3. Il reçut. | 3. Ils reçurent. |

FIRST COMPOUND, OR PERFECT TENSE.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. Recepi. | 1. Recepimus. |
| 2. Recepisti. | 2. Recepistis, |
| 3. Recepit. | 3. Receperunt. |
| *Singular.* | *Plural* |
| 1. I have received. | 1. We have received. |
| 2. Thou hast received. | 2. Ye or you have received. |
| 3. He has received, | 3. They have received. |
| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| 1. Je reçus, or J'ai reçu. | 1. Nous reçûmes, &c. |
| 2. Tu reçus, or Tu as reçu. | 2. Vous reçutes. |
| 3. Il reçut, or Il a reçu. | 3. Ils reçurent. |

SECOND COMPOUND, OR PLUPERFECT TENSE.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. Receperam. | 1. Receperamus. |
| 2. Receperas. | 2. Receperatis. |
| 3. Receperat. | 3. Receperant. |
| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| 1. I had received. | 1. We had received. |
| 2. Thou hadst received. | 2. Ye or you had received. |
| 3. He had received, | 3. They had received. |

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. J'avais reçu, ou J'eus reçu. | 1. Nous avions reçu. |
| 2. Tu avais reçu, &c. | 2. Vous aviez reçu. |
| 3. Il avait reçu. | 3. Ils avaient reçu. |

FIRST, OR SIMPLE FUTURE.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. Ego recipiam. | 1. Nos recipiemus. |
| 2. Tu recipies. | 2. Vos recipietis. |
| 3. Ille recipiet. | 3. Illi recipient. |

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall or will receive. | 1. We shall or will receive. |
| 2. Thou shalt receive. | 2. Ye or you shall receive |
| 3. He shall receive. | 3. They shall receive. |

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. Je recevrai. | 1. Nous recevrons. |
| 2. Tu recevras. | 2. Vous recevrez. |
| 3. Il recevra. | 3. Ils recevront. |

SECOND FUTURE.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. Ego receperim. | 1. Nos receperimus. |
| 2. Tu receperis. | 2. Vos receperitis. |
| 3. Ille receperit. | 3. Illi receperint. |

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall have received. | 1. We shall have received |
| 2. Thou shalt have received. | 2. Ye or you shall have received. |
| 3. He shall have received. | 3. They shall have received. |

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. J'aurai reçu. | 1. Nous aurons reçu. |
| 2. Tu auras reçu. | 2. Vous aurez reçu. |
| 3. Il aura reçu. | 3. Ils auront reçu. |

"Which of these verbs has the greatest number of variations? It is always at the end or termination of the word you must look; for it is there that in regular verbs the change is made. Now which has the most?"

"Yes; the Latin has no two persons exactly alike?"

"Has the French any that are spelt exactly alike. Look in the present tense. Yes it has two alike. In the past how many?"

"How many are there now that exactly resemble each other in English?"

"Now I have never before asked you, but I am sure you can tell me, how, when we speak of more than one person or thing, we change the noun from the singular to the plural? Here is a match; but that is not enough; I want a dozen of——Yes, of matches. You changed the termination of the noun by adding *es*. Here is a book, and there are other three——Yes, books. Here you only added *s*."

"Do we add any letter to change the verb from singular to plural?"

"No; on the contrary, there are fewer letters in the plural than in some of the persons of the singular."

"How many persons are alike in the first or simple past of the English verb?"

"All except one. What does that one end in?"

"What person is it?"

"Look at the present now; what does the second person singular end in there? Go now to the compound tenses—hast—hadst. Can you find any other person of the verb ending in that way? Then the termination *st* belongs to the 2d person singular. What other difference do you observe between the Latin verb and the English?"

"You are right. There are two words in English in several places where there is but one in Latin. In Latin, all the different tenses in this mode are formed by the variations in termination of the principal verb; in English, we have fewer of these changes in termination, and must use what are called auxiliary or helping verbs."

"Try now if you can go through the present tense of the English verb."

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I receive. | 1. We* receive. |
| 2. Thou | 2. You |
| 3. He | 3. They |

"You will have to study this at home. We have time for a few lines of exercises."

I drew near with that reverence which is due to a superior nature; and, as my heart was entirely subdued by the captivating strains I had heard, I fell down at his feet and wept.

"The first verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Is the verb present, past, or future? Is it in the active or passive voice?"

"What person?"

"Give the plural?"

"The second person singular?"

"The plural?"

"The second verb?" [Here, if necessary, read the first section.]

"That expresses being, and is a neuter verb, is it not?"

"The nominative?"

* Give the pronouns in their own order, I, we, and wait after each for the verb.

"It is a relative pronoun. To what word then does it relate? It cannot represent a person. What is it? What thing is it which is said to be due?"

"Yes; *which* relates to *reverence*—and *reverence* is the antecedent to *which*."

"The third verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Is the verb in the active or passive voice?"

"Is it in the present or past tense?"

"The fourth verb?" [Here repeat the former questions.]

"The fifth verb?" &c. &c.

"Are there any adjectives in that passage?"

"You cannot compare superior. It is in itself a comparative; and the meaning of the expression is a nature of a higher order than our nature—a nature superior to ours."

"Any other adjective?"

"To what noun does captivating belong?"

"Compare it?" &c.

The genius smiled upon me with a look of compassion and affability, that familiarized him to my imagination, and, at once, dispelled all the fears and apprehensions with which I approached him.

"Supply the ellipsis that immediately precedes affability. What word is it that is wanting there?"

"The first verb?" &c. &c.

"Can you tell me the present of that verb? If the genius were here now smiling on us, would we say, he smiled? What then?"

"Yes, smiles. In all regular verbs, the third person singular in the present of the indicative, active ends in *s*—that is, the termination which belongs to it."

"The second verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Yes, *that* is a relative pronoun here. Is it who or which that it stands instead of?"

"What noun does it relate to? What was it that familiarized?"

"The third verb? The nominative?"

"Yes; *that*, understood."

"The fourth verb?"

"The nominative?"

Now they dipped their noble limbs in your sedgy lakes, and now they paddled the light canoe along your rocky shores. Here they warred; and when the tiger strife was over, here curled the smoke of peace. Here, too, they worshipped; and, from many a dark bosom, went up a pure prayer to the Great Spirit.

"The first verb?" &c. Is it past or present?" &c. Do you know what *tiger* means there? It means tiger-like—strife resembling that of tigers, and is, of course, an adjective.

## DIFFERENT TENSES.

When first speaking of Time, we reckoned only three periods—Present, past, and future; but in the verb which you have just gone over, you find four past tenses and two future. These are subdivisions of the period they respectively belong to.

The first, past, or imperfect tense represents the action as going on and unfinished at a certain past time, and is generally expressed by the past tense of the verb to be, and the present or active participle of the principal verb. He was building a house last year. He was speaking when I entered the room.

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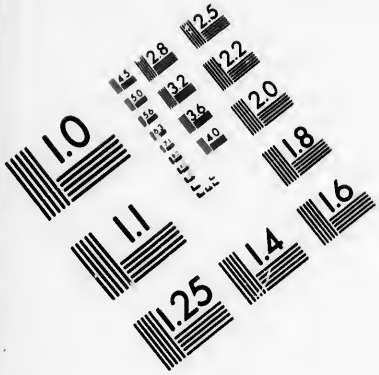


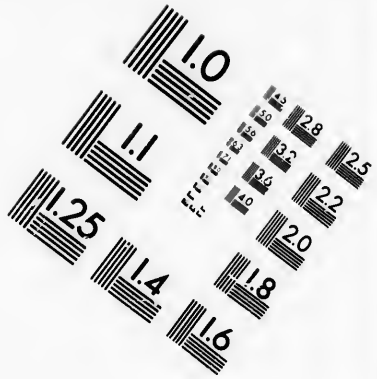


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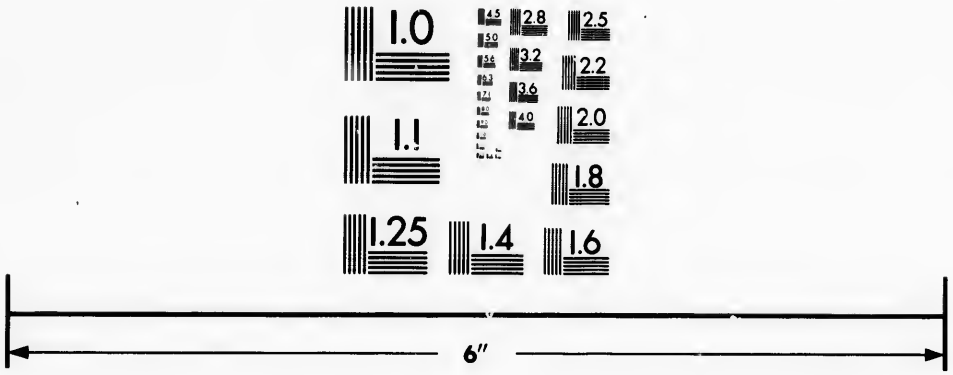


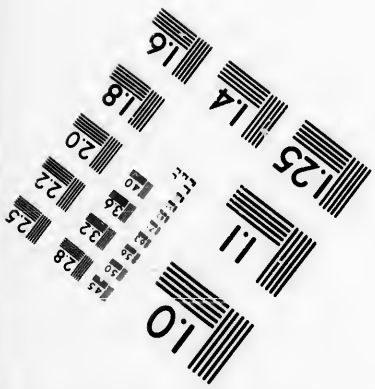


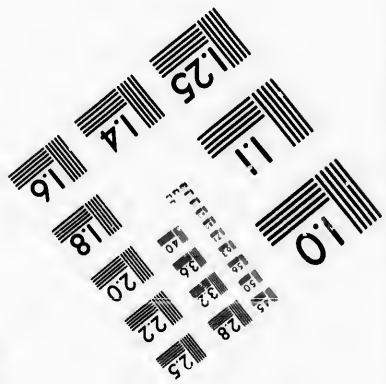


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The second or simple past merely represents the action as past and finished, without reference to any particular time. He spake of you—he built a house on the ground his father gave him. It can, however, by the addition of other words, such as adverbs of time, &c., be made to express continuity of action. He spake from seven o'clock till nine, without interruption.

The Perfect, or Preterite, which you observe is in English a compound tense, represents the action either as just finished—I have written my letter; finished within a particular period—I have planted fruit trees this year; or it speaks of action done and completed in a past, perhaps a distant period of time—I have written both exercises and letters in that language, but several years have elapsed since then.

The Pluperfect represents the action as past and finished before another action or event took place, as—I had heard of her illness before I saw my uncle.

The First Future merely represents the action as yet to come, without respect to the preceding time—I shall see them again.

The Second Future intimates that the action will be completed before the time of another future action or event—I shall have got out of the woods before sunset.

## VARIATIONS OF VERBS.

In a former lesson we considered the different variations of the verb, and the causes of them, just as they chanced to appear. We will now put them in the order in which they generally stand in what has been termed conjugation.

Voice is the first variation; it arises from the consideration of whether the action is done *by* or *to* the nominative; and we place the active voice be-

fore the passive. Neuter verbs, it has already been said, have no change of voice, and the distinctions of person and number run through the whole verb, except the Infinitive Mood and Participles.

Mode comes next to voice, and signifies the manner in which the action or being is represented.

Certain—as in the Indicative, the mode always used in affirming; commanding, or entreating, as in that termed the Imperative; contingent, as in the Subjunctive. Besides these, there is a mode called the Potential, which cannot be so well explained to you in any other way as by pointing out the auxiliary verbs, by the aid of which it is formed.

The time of the action or event is another cause of variation, and the different tenses of the verb denote the different periods of time—past, present, and future, with the subdivisions of the future and the past.

It has been said, that the Indicative is the mode of affirmation. It indicates or declares a thing—as, They arrived yesterday; or it asks a question—as, Did they arrive yesterday? He received your letter. Did he receive your letter? He did not receive your letter. These sentences are all in the Indicative—that same mode of the verb to *receive* which you have already gone over. The Subjunctive Mode represents the action or event as uncertain and contingent. We would not say: 'If my brother *goes* to town tomorrow, he will bring it;' but, 'If my brother *go*.' Nor: 'If the bank gives way, the whole building will fall;' but, 'If the bank should give way.'

The Imperative is a very brief mode. It is used in commanding and in entreating; and, as we must speak *to* the person we command or entreat, it has only the second person.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 2. Receive thou, or do thou receive. | 2. Receive ye or you, or do ye or you receive. |

"You found, in the Indicative present of *receive*, a variation—'I am receiving.' This is sometimes used to give emphasis, and sometimes to express continuation of the action: do receive, dost receive, &c., in the present, and did receive, &c., in the past, are likewise forms of the Indicative, which give emphasis to the assertion—and we also use *do* in asking and in answering questions."

The teacher would do well, before going farther, to exercise the pupils on the Indicative Mode,* in affirming, denying, and interrogating.

"The past is no longer within the sphere of contingency: it is fixed and certain; but there may be uncertainty with regard to it on the mind of the speaker. This uncertainty of the speaker influences, in some languages, the mode in which he speaks; but in English it seldom does.† Not only is the Indicative Mode used in surmising, when there is doubt on the mind of the speaker, but even when, knowing what has been done, he gives utterance to a supposition of the action or event having been different."‡

* The best way of explaining the distinctions of Mode, is to give a variety of examples in which their different significations are contrasted. See Appendix.

† Thus, in the tragedy of King John, Falconbridge, seeing the dead body of Prince Arthur, yet uncertain whether Hubert had killed him, speaks in the Indicative: "There is not yet so ugly a fiend of hell as thou shalt be, if thou *didst* kill this child—if thou *didst* but consent to this most cruel act."

‡ "If thou *hadst* been here, my brother had not died."

"If thou hadst known, even thou, in this thy day."

"Some writers express themselves in the Perfect Tense as follows: 'If thou have determined, we must submit.' 'Unless he

You observed that in some places where the sense was expressed by one word in Latin, there were two in English, and I then told you that instead of changes of termination we were obliged to use what are called auxiliary or helping verbs.

These, with the exception of *have* and *be*, are defective—that is, they want some modes or tenses.

Have, when standing as a principal verb, signifies possession. 'I have a horse; he has a dog; Mary has a parasol.' The horse, the dog, the parasol, are respectively in the possession of the different individuals mentioned.

As an auxiliary, *have* expresses the accomplishment of an action.

### TO HAVE.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I have. | 1. We have. |
| 2. Thou hast. | 2. Ye or you have. |
| 3. He has or hath. | 3. They have. |

#### PAST TENSES.

*Imperfect, or Simple Past.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I had. | 1. We had. |
| 2. Thou hadst. | 2. Ye or you had. |
| 3. He had. | 3. They had. |

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have consented, the writing will be void.' But we believe that few authors of critical sagacity write in this manner. The proper form seems to be, 'If thou *hast* determined;' 'Unless he *has* consented;' conformably to what we meet with in the Bible: 'I have sirnamed thee though thou hast not known me.' "—*Murray, on Rule* 19.

*Preterite.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I have had. | 1. We have had. |
| 2. Thou hast had. | 2. Ye or you have had. |
| 3. He has had. | 3. They have had. |

*Pluperfect.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I had had. | 1. We had had. |
| 2. Thou hadst had. | 2. Ye or you had had. |
| 3. He had had. | 3. They had had. |

FUTURE TENSES.

*First or Simple Future.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall or will have. | 1. We shall or will have. |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt have. | 2. Ye or you shall or will have. |
| 3. He shall or will have. | 3. They shall or will have. |

*Second, or Compound Future.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall or will have had. | 1. We shall have had. |
| 2. Thou wilt have had. | 2. Ye or you shall have had. |
| 3. He will have had. | 3. They shall have had. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 2. Have, or have thou, or do thou have. | 2. Have ye or you, or do ye have. |

We come now to those Modes which represent the action or event under some doubt or uncertainty. Before going through them, we will consider the verbs by the aid of which those Modes are formed, and also the other defective verbs, which have been termed auxiliaries.

## AUXILIARY VERBS.

From the verb *to will*, signifying to desire or to determine, is derived the auxiliary and defective verb *will*, which, either promising or foretelling, indicates a future event.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I will. | 1. We will. |
| 2. Thou wilt. | 2. Ye or you will. |
| 3. He will. | 3. They will. |

*Would* has been termed the preterite of *will*; it is, however, used both in the present and future, as well as in the past; and, though generally an auxiliary, it is sometimes an independent verb, signifying to desire.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I would. | 1. We would. |
| 2. Thou wouldst. | 2. Ye or you would. |
| 3. He would. | 3. They would. |

As an auxiliary, it denotes either past or future time, according to the connection in which it is placed.

*Shall* is another defective auxiliary, belonging to the future. It is sometimes used to express a command; sometimes to threaten or to foretell; sometimes merely to indicate the plans of the speaker.†

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* And as ye would that men should do unto you, do ye also unto them likewise.

† If thy brother be waxen poor and fallen into decay with thee, then thou *shalt* relieve him.

And I will set my face against you, and ye *shall* be slain before your enemies: they that hate you *shall* reign over you, and ye *shall* flee when none pursueth you.

But soon the last dim morn shall rise,—
The lamp of life burns feebly now;
When stranger hands shall close my eyes,
And smooth my cold and dewy brow.

"Mark Antony, here, take you Cæsar's body; you *shall* not in your funeral speech blame us."

"And you *shall* speak in the same pulpit whereto I am going after my speech is ended."

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall. | 1. We shall. |
| 2. Thou shalt. | 2. Ye or you shall. |
| 3. He shall. | 3. They shall. |

*Should*, when used without a conjunction, a conjunctive clause, or an adverb of time, denotes obligation or duty: as, 'He *should* write to his father immediately.' With a conjunction or conjunctive clause, it assists in representing the action or event as doubtful or contingent. 'Unless they *should* agree to it, nothing can be done.' 'If he *should* find them here, he would be much displeased.' It implies futurity, except when coupled with the auxiliary *have*.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I should. | 1. We should. |
| 2. Thou shouldst. | 2. Ye or you should. |
| 3. He should. | 3. They should. |

*May* has two significations.* In the first, it expresses liberty or permission: 'I *may* go,'—that is, 'I have liberty to go;' 'You *may* go,'—'you have my permission to go.' In this sense, *may* is used to express

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"I'll not endure him."

"He *shall* be endured! What good man, boy? I say, he *shall*."

I *shall* go from Liverpool to London.

*Will*, except when applied to inanimate objects, denotes intention; either the intention of the speaker, as in the first person—I *will* go, we *will* come; or the opinion of the speaker relative to the intentions of another.

They *will* not consent. He *will* proceed immediately. Yet, in speaking of a future event as probable, or of the expected movements of inanimate matter, *will* is generally used in preference to *shall*. "The next gale that sweeps from the north *will* bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms." "The tide *will* begin to ebb in an hour.

* This also tendeth to no more but what the king *may* do; for what he *may* do is of two kinds—what he *may* do as just, and what he *may* do as possible.

present or future time; and *might*, with the auxiliary *have*, for the past. In the second, it implies probability or possibility.* In this sense, it cannot correctly be said that *may* is present, and *might* past; *might* of itself, if it has any reference to time, conveys an idea of the future. 'We *might* go,' coupled with the auxiliary *have*, forms a past tense; so likewise does *may*. *May* and *might*, when signifying possibility, express either past or future time, according to the different connections in which they stand.

*First Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I may. | 1. We may. |
| 2. Thou mayst. | 2. Ye or you. |
| 3. He may. | 3. They may. |

*Second Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I might. | 1. We might. |
| 2. Thou mightst. | 2. Ye or you might. |
| 3. He might. | 3. They might. |

---

*May* my cousin ride to town with me to-day? No; yesterday he *might* have done so; he had my permission; but he did not avail himself of it; and now I have particular reasons for his remaining at home.

Under your guard, these holy maids
Shall safe return to cloister shades;
And, while they at Tantallon stay,
Requiem for Cochrane's soul *may* say.

In these there is none of the darkness or sadness of the tomb; but in many, so elevated and picturesque is the situation that a traveller *may* pass hours with a book in his hand, while hill and valley are beneath and around him.

* As he had fixed on a place of residence in Spain, hoping that the dryness and the warmth of the climate in that country *might* mitigate the violence of his disease.

But now, when I voluntarily resign to you what I *might have* still retained.

If he could set out immediately for a warmer climate, he *might* recover.

*Can* denotes present, but may also be used in speaking of future time: as, 'I *can* give you the book now.' 'I *can* go to the country with you next week.' But it has no part in the formation of past tenses, and ought not to be joined in affirmation to the perfect of the Infinitive.

We never read in any good author, nor do we ever hear in conversation, such expressions as these:—'The minister *can* have surmounted the difficulty.' 'He *can* have gained favourable terms for his allies.' 'We *can* have paid that visit yesterday.' 'The troops *can* have taken possession of the fortress.' In all those instances, *could* is the proper word; yet *cannot*, the compound of *can*, with the negative adverb, is sometimes thus used: 'He *cannot* have consented to this.' And *can*, though rarely, is used interrogatively with *have*. For the reasons of this seeming inconsistency, see Appendix.

*Could*, with the present of the Infinitive, is used in speaking both of the present and future, as well as the past,—the connection generally determining to which period it belongs.* It is only with the perfect of the Infinitive that it forms a tense decidedly past.

We have now gone through all the auxiliary verbs required to form the Subjunctive or Potential, and *can* has been retained among them out of deference to ancient usage. In succeeding pages, teachers will find the conjugation of the verb To Be, and the Subjunc-

* "O! I *could* divide myself and go to buffets for moving such a dish of skimmed milk, with so honourable an action."

"I cannot set out to-day; but if the letters I am expecting should arrive this morning, I *could* accompany you tomorrow."

"Sybilla, who had supported, with such undaunted fortitude, her husband's misfortunes, while she imagined that they *could* reach no farther than to diminish his power and territories, felt all her resolution fail as his life was threatened."

tive and Potential Modes and Passive Voice of the verb To Receive. So they are quite at liberty to carry on their pupils from the Imperative to these, or to lead them through the auxiliary and defective verbs to the conjunction, and then to those modes in the order in which they are here placed. I can, however, assure them, that the latter plan will give the scholars clearer ideas of the use of the auxiliaries, and enable such of them as may study other languages, to translate with much more ease.*

## NEUTER, ACTIVE, AND PASSIVE VERBS.

Neuter verbs are those which, from their nature, can have neither active nor passive voice. All verbs that signify Being, or a state of Being, come under this denomination; but of these, there are comparatively few. The greater part of neuter verbs denote Action.

Verbs have likewise been divided into Transitive and Intransitive. Transitive, when the Action passes from the agent to another person or thing; Intransi-

* This may seem rather a desultory manner of teaching; but let us look through the apparent regularity of other Grammars, to the plans which teachers are advised to follow.

"It may not, however, be generally proper for young persons beginning the study of Grammar, to commit to memory all the tenses of the verbs. If the *simple* tenses, namely the present and the imperfect, together with the future, should, in the first instance, be committed to memory, and the rest carefully perused and explained, the business will not be tedious to the scholars, and their progress will be rendered more obvious."—*Murray.*

"Explanations of the moods and tenses of verbs are inserted here for the sake of order; but it would be highly improper to detain the learner so long as to commit them to memory; he ought, therefore, after getting the definition of a verb, to proceed to the inflection of it without delay, and when he comes to the exercises of the verbs, he can look back to the definition of a verb active, &c."—*Lennie.*

These quotations are merely inserted to show that the *order* in which knowledge can be most easily communicated to the pupil is that which must at first be preferred.

tive, when it does not. But it is very difficult to class* verbs by this distinction; so we will not at present ask you to attempt it, but merely to consider whether the action, in the passages you are parsing, centres in the agent or passes to an object.†

EXERCISES.

Ross, Montague, and Manley, came.

* * * *

Pembroke, De Vere, and Argentine,
Brought up the rearward battle-line;
With caution o'er the ground they tread,
Slippery with blood, and piled with dead;
Till hand to hand in battle set,
The bills with spears and axes met,
And closing dark on every side,
Raged the full contest far and wide.
Then was the strength of Douglas tried,
Then proved was Randolph's generous pride,
And well did Stewart's actions grace
The sire of Scotland's royal race!
Firmly they kept their ground;
As firmly England onward press'd,
And down went many a noble crest,
And rent was many a valiant breast,
And slaughter revell'd round.

Unflinching, foot 'gainst foot was set,
Unceasing, blow by blow was met;
The groans of those who fell
Were drown'd amid the shriller clang,
That from the blades and harness rang,
And in the battle-yell.

* See Appendix.
† We have as yet nothing to do with the *case* of the object.

Pembroke, De Vere, and Argentine,
Brought up the rearward battle-line.

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Does the action rest with Pembroke, De Vere, and Argentine?"

"Are they said to bring, or to have brought, any thing?"

"Yes, the battle-line. The action, then, is said to pass from the agents to an object; it is transitive; and battle-line is the object on which the action falls."

"What is up?——Can you tell me an adverb which has a signification exactly opposite to up?"

"Are these adverbs of time, place, or manner?"

"Do you know what rearward means, or can you tell me what rear means? It is used in speaking of a troop or army. The front is generally called the van. Are those who are closest to the enemy in a battle in the rear?"

"You are right; those who are farthest off, or farthest back rather, are in the rear; and rearward battle-line means the last division of the army."

"What class of words does rearward belong to?"

With caution o'er the ground they tread,
Slippery with blood and piled with dead.

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Instead of whom does it stand? If they had been said to tread the ground, the action would have been transitive; here, as it does not fall directly on ground, it is not so."

"That battle was fought three hundred years ago; why, then, does Scott, in describing it, use the present

tense, and say, 'they tread?' Do you know? This is frequently done in animated descriptions, in prose as well as in verse. It is done to bring the past event nearer, as it were, and make it in a manner present to the imagination."

"What sort of participle is *piled?* Is it what is called the present or active, or is it the past?"

"The present is *piling*, the past *piled*. What is the compound?"

And closing dark, &c.

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Has the verb *to rage* any passive? Could you say, 'The contest was raged?'"

"Then it is a neuter verb, is it not?"

"What participle is *closing?*——Give the past or passive?"

Go on with the usual questions.

And well did Stewart's actions grace
The sire of Scotland's royal race.

"The verb?" &c.

"Does the action remain with the nominative *actions*, or does it pass to an object? Did *actions* grace any person or thing? Then the action is transitive? Name the object?" &c.

Here darkness began to encircle me. On one side, the black cliff stretched itself into a gigantic arch, far above my head, and on the other the dense and hissing torrent formed an impenetrable sheet of foam, with which I was drenched in a moment. The rocks were so slippery, that I could hardly keep my feet, or hold securely by them, while the horrid din made me think the precipices above were tumbling down in colossal fragments upon my head.

## CONJUNCTIONS.

"In considering the auxiliary verbs, we spoke of conjunctive clauses and conjunctions. You do not yet know what conjunctions are, or what purpose they serve."

"Many of them stand instead of short sentences, which indeed they originally were. 'I stayed last night, because it rained.' *Because*, means by the cause. 'If he has bought the animal, I will keep it. *If* is derived from *give*; and in some parts of Britain, *gif* is used by uneducated people instead of if, give, or allow,—let it be allowed,—let it be provided. Give, or allow, that he has bought, &c. *Since*, means as it is so. *But*, sometimes means contrary to expectation—contrary to, or different from what preceded it; regardless of, or in opposition to, objections or obstacles; and sometimes, excepting."

I then turned again to the vision which I had been so long contemplating; *but*, instead of the rolling tide, the arched bridge, and the happy islands, I saw nothing *but* the long, hollow valley of Bagdat.

We can find nothing to explain *and* by—no words that exactly express its meaning; *also* and *likewise* come the nearest to it. Conjunctions do not claim connection with any particular order of words. A verb must have its nominative noun or pronoun; a pronoun, a noun instead of which it stands; an adjective must belong to some noun; an adverb is attached either to a verb, to an adjective, or to another adverb; but conjunctions are not thus limited. Some of them are used to connect sentences, and some for either sentences or words—words of any class. Many of those which connect sentences, have, as was already observed, originally been short sentences, and are so understood that

they supply what those sentences contained. 'Either John or Charles has taken the horse again.' John has taken the horse, or (otherwise—if John has not taken the horse, Charles has taken him."

EXAMPLES.

Here Obidah paused for a time, *and* began to consider.

Go on with the usual questions.

" What sort of words does *and* connect there?"

1. Paused *and* began.

Having thus calmed his solicitude, he renewed his pace, though he suspected.

2. He renewed, *though* he suspected.

The uneasiness of his mind inclined him to lay hold on every new object, and give way.

3. To lay hold *and to* give way.

The beasts of the desert were in motion, and on every hand were heard.

4. *Were* in motion *and* were heard.

The mingled howls of rage, and of fear, and revenge, and expiration.

5. *Of* (expressed) *and of* (understood.)

His deviations had perplexed his memory and he knew not.

6. Deviations *had* perplexed *and* he knew.

His deviations had perplexed *and* he knew not. Here *and* connects two parts of a sentence; but the verbs are not, nor is it necessary that they should be, in the same tense, though they are so generally; here the meaning is clear, and the expression correct, and the verbs harmonize, though they are in different tenses. We could not say, 'his deviations *have* perplexed his memory, and he knew not,' because *have*

*perplexed* is a tense which, there, would touch on the verge of the present; and *knew*, which, being evidently a consequence of *have perplexed*, ought to follow, would thus be made to precede it; 'But, could imagination give us a glimpse of Obidah; just as he is described by Dr. Johnson, at the moment when, after trying in vain to beguile his uneasiness by listening to every echo, and climbing every hill, for a fresh prospect, and turning to gaze on every cascade, he read in the sinking sun that the time for loitering was now past; yet, unable to recollect in what direction he had come, or ought to proceed, stood pensive and confused.' We might say, 'His deviations *have* perplexed his memory, and he *knows* not towards what point to travel.' The present there would immediately follow that tense of the past which touches on it. For similar reasons, we may say, 'He knew his duty, and has done it; he knows his duty, and will do it.'

Conjunctions have been divided into Copulative and Disjunctive; and that division is retained here, though we never refer to it.

*Copulative.*—And, if, that, both, because, therefore, wherefore, then, (signifying in consequence of what has been said or admitted),—for,* (signifying because, on account),—since, (signifying as it is so, it being so), as, (the meaning similar to that of since),—and when, (though containing an adverbial sense, it likewise serves to connect and continue a sentence); in this latter signification, we have no other word by which to express its meaning. 'He is as generous as brave.' We could explain the *first* 'as' by equally, but not the

* The word by which the reason is introduced of something advanced before.

*second.* 'He is equally generous *as* he is brave.' The second *as* connects the first with the second part of the sentence.

*Disjunctive.*—But, or, nor, than, lest, though, although, unless, either, neither, yet, notwithstanding.

## VERB TO RECEIVE.

We come now to the Subjunctive—a mode which represents the action or event as uncertain or contingent, and which consequently does not refer to the past. There is always a conjunction or conjunctive clause with it.

### SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

*First Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. If I receive (or should* receive.) | 1. If we receive (or should receive.) |
| 2. If thou receive (or shouldst receive.) | 2. If ye or you receive (or should receive.) |
| 3. If he receive (or should receive.) | 3. If they receive (or should receive.) |

*Second Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. If I received. | 1. If we received. |
| 2. If thou received. | 2. If ye or you received. |
| 3. If he received. | 3. If they received. |

The Potential Mode, as at present arranged, includes forms of the verb which represent the action as possible, probable, under a condition, &c., and likewise some which might be considered as comprehending two verbs. Thus, 'I *dare* do it,'—that is, 'I have the courage to do it,' would be considered as two

* This, like some of the tenses of the Indicative, may be thrown into another and more comprehensive form—Were I to receive. See Appendix.

verbs—the latter in the Infinitive, as *dare* is one of those verbs which do not require the sign *to* between them and the verb in the Infinitive immediately following. But, 'I *can* do it,' 'I have the skill,' or 'I have the power to do it,' (which is an expression similar to 'I *dare*,') has been taken into the Potential, and passes now for part of that mode.

POTENTIAL MODE.

*Present Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I may or can receive. | 1. We may or can receive. |
| 2. Thou mayst or canst receive. | 2. Ye or you may or can receive. |
| 3. He may or can receive. | 3. They may or can receive. |

*Second Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, or should receive. | 1. We might, could, would, or should receive. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst receive. | 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should receive. |
| 3. He might, could, would, or should receive. | 3. They might, could, would, or should receive. |

*Perfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I may have received. | 1. We may have received. |
| 2. Thou mayst have received. | 2. Ye or you may have received. |
| 3. He may have received. | 3. They may have received. |

*Pluperfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, or should have received. | 1. We might, could, would or should have received. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have received. | 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should have received. |
| 3. He might, could, would, or should have received. | 3. They might, could, would, or should have received. |

INFINITIVE MODE.

| *Present.* | *Perfect.* |
|---|---|
| To receive. | To have received. |

*Participles.*

| *Present.* | *Perfect.* | *Compound Perfect.* |
|---|---|---|
| Receiving. | Received. | Having received. |

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## IRREGULAR VERB TO BE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I am. | 1. We are. |
| 2. Thou art. | 2. Ye or you are. |
| 3. He, she, or it is. | 3. They are. |

*Past Tense.**

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I was. | 1. We were. |
| 2. Thou wast or wert. | 2. Ye or you were. |
| 3. He was. | 3. They were. |

---

* See Appendix.

*Perfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I have been. | 1. We have been. |
| 2. Thou hast been. | 2. Ye or you have been. |
| 3. He hath or has been. | 3. They have been. |

*Pluperfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I had been. | 1. We had been. |
| 2. Thou hadst been. | 2. Ye or you had been. |
| 3. He had been. | 3. They had been. |

*First Future Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall or will be. | 1. We shall or will be. |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt be. | 2. Ye or you shall or will be. |
| 3. He shall or will be, | 3. They shall or will be. |

*Second Future Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural* |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall have been. | 1. We shall have been. |
| 2. Thou wilt have been. | 2. Ye or you will have been. |
| 3. He shall have been. | 3. They will have been. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 2. Be thou, or do thou be. | 2. Be ye or you, or do ye be. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I may or can be. | 1. We may or can be. |
| 2. Thou mayst or canst be. | 2. Ye or you may or can be. |
| 3. He may or can be. | 3. They may or can be. |

*Second Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, or should be. | 1. We might, could, would or should be. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be. | 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should be. |
| 3. He might, could, would, or should be. | 3. They might, could, would, or should be. |

*Perfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I may have been. | 1. We may have been. |
| 2. Thou mayest have been. | 2. Ye or you may have been. |
| 3. He may have been. | 3. They may have been. |

*Pluperfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, or should have been. | 1. We might, could, would or should have been. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been. | 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should have been. |
| 3. He might, could, would, or should have been. | 3. They might, could, would, or should have been. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. If I be. | 1. If we be. |
| 2. If thou be. | 2. If ye or you be. |
| 3. If he be. | 3. If they be. |

*Second Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. If I were. | 1. If we were. |
| 2. If thou wert. | 2. If ye or you were. |
| 3. If he were. | 3. If they were.* |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

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

PARTICIPLES.

*Present,* Being. *Perfect,* Been.

*Compound Perfect,* Having been.

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## REGULAR VERB TO RECEIVE.

### PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I am received. | 1. We are received. |
| 2. Thou art received. | 2. Ye or you are received. |
| 3. He is received. | 3. They are received. |

*Past Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I was received. | 1. We were received. |
| 2. Thou wast received. | 2. Ye or you were received. |
| 3. He was received. | 3. They were received. |

*Perfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I have been received. | 1. We have been received. |
| 2. Thou hast been received. | 2. Ye or you have been received. |
| 3. He has been received. | 3. They have been received. |

---

* See Appendix.

*Pluperfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I had been received. | 1. We had been received. |
| 2. Thou hadst been received. | 2. Ye or you had been received. |
| 3. He had been received. | 3. They had been received |

*First Future Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall or will be received. | 1. We shall or will be received. |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt be received. | 2. Ye or you shall or will be received. |
| 3. He shall or will be received. | 3. They shall or will be received. |

*Second Future Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall have been received. | 1. We will have been received. |
| 2. Thou wilt have been received. | 2. Ye or you will have been received. |
| 3. They will have been received. | 3. They will have been received. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 2. Be thou received. | 2. Be ye or you received. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*First or Present Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. If I be received. | 1. If we be received. |
| 2. If thou be received. | 2. If ye or you be received. |
| 3. If he be received. | 3. If they be received. |

*Second Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. If I were received.* | 1. If we were received. |
| 2. If thou wert received. | 2. If ye or you were received. |
| 3. If he were received. | 3. If they were received. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I may or can be received. | 1. We may or can be received. |
| 2. Thou mayst or canst be received. | 2. Ye or you may or can be received. |
| 3. He may or can be received. | 3. They may or can be received. |

*Second Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, or should be received. | 1. We might, could, would, or should be received. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be received. | 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should be received. |
| 3. He might, could, would, or should be received. | 3. They might, could, would, or should be received. |

* This, likewise, is often and elegantly thrown into another form, with the ellipsis of the conjunction—'Were I to be received.'

*Perfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I may have been received. | 1. We may have been received. |
| 2. Thou mayst have been received. | 2. Ye or you may have been received. |
| 3. He may have been received. | 3. They may have been received. |

*Second Past, or Pluperfect Tense.*

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, or should have been received. | 1. We might, could, would, or should have been received. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been received. | 2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should have been received. |
| 3. He might, could, would, or should have been received. | 3. They might, could, would, or should have been received. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

| *Present.* | *Perfect.* |
|---|---|
| To be received. | To have been been received. |

*Participles.*

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect.* |
|---|---|---|
| Being received. | Been received. | Having been received. |

---

Regular verbs are those which form their past tense and past or passive participle by the addition of *d* or *ed.*

Receive is a regular verb: its different variations are formed in the usual and regular manner, *d* being

added to the final *e* to form its past tense, and past or passive participle. The Infinitive of a regular verb not ending in *e* has *ed* added to it to form those variations: as, to obtain, he obtained, it was obtained.

There are in English many verbs which do not form their past tense and past participle thus; these are termed irregular. A list of them is subjoined.

IRREGULAR VERBS ARE OF VARIOUS SORTS.

1. Such as have the present and past tenses, and perfect participle, the same: as,

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Cost, | cost. | cost. |
| Put, | put, | put. |

2. Such as have the past tense, and perfect participle, the same: as,

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Abide, | abode, | abode. |
| Sell, | sold, | sold. |

3. Such as have the past tense, and perfect participle, different: as,

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Arise, | arose, | arisen. |
| Blow, | blew, | blown. |

Many verbs become irregular by contraction; as, feed, fed; leave, left: others, by a material change in the form of the word, besides the change of termination; as, am, was, been; buy, bought, &c.

---

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perf. or Pass. Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Abide, | abode, | abode. |
| Am, | was, | been. |
| Arise, | arose, | arisen. |

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perf. or Pass. Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Awake, | awoke, R.* | awaked. |
| Bear, *to bring forth*, | bore, or bare, | born. |
| Bear, *to carry*, | bore, | borne. |
| Beat, | beat, | beaten, beat. |
| Begin, | began, | begun. |
| Bend, | bent, | bent. |
| Bereave, | bereft, R. | bereft, R. |
| Beseech, | besought, | besought. |
| Bid, | bid, bade, | bidden, bid. |
| Bind, | bound, | bound. |
| Bite, | bit, | bitten, bit. |
| Bleed, | bled, | bled. |
| Blow, | blew, | blown. |
| Break, | broke, | broken. |
| Breed, | bred, | bred. |
| Bring, | brought, | brought. |
| Build, | built, | built. |
| Burst, | burst, | burst. |
| Buy, | bought, | bought. |
| Cast, | cast, | cast. |
| Catch, | caught, R. | caught, R. |
| Chide, | chid, | chidden, chid. |
| Choose, | chose, | chosen. |
| Cleave, *to stick, or adhere*,† | REGULAR. | |
| Cleave, *to split*, | clove, or cleft, | cleft, cloven. |
| Cling, | clung, | clung. |
| Clothe, | clothed, | clad, R. |
| Come, | came, | come. |
| Cost, | cost, | cost. |

* Some of the verbs in this list may be conjugated regularly as well as irregularly, and those which admit of the regular form are marked with an R.

† This verb has 'clave' in the past in Scripture.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perf. or Pass. Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Crow, | crew, R. | crowed. |
| Creep, | crept, | crept. |
| Cut, | cut, | cut. |
| Dare, *to venture*, | durst, | dared. |
| Dare, R. *to challenge*, | | |
| Deal, | dealt, R. | dealt, R. |
| Dig, | dug, R. | dug, R. |
| Do, | did, | done. |
| Draw, | drew, | drawn. |
| Drive, | drove, | driven. |
| Drink, | drank, | drunk. |
| Dwell, | dwelt, R. | dwelt, R. |
| Eat, | eat, or ate, | eaten. |
| Fall, | fell, | fallen. |
| Feed, | fed, | fed. |
| Feel, | felt, | felt. |
| Fight, | fought, | fought. |
| Find, | found, | found. |
| Flee, | fled, | fled, |
| Fling, | flung, | flung. |
| Fly, | flew, | flown. |
| Forget, | forgot, | forgotten, forgot. |
| Forsake, | forsook, | forsaken. |
| Freeze, | froze, | frozen. |
| Get, | got, | got.* |
| Gild, | gilt, R. | gilt, R. |
| Gird, | girt, R. | girt, R. |
| Give, | gave, | given. |
| Go, | went, | gone. |
| Grave, | graved, | graven, R. |
| Grind, | ground, | ground. |

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

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perf. or Pass. Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Grow, | grew, | grown. |
| Have, | had, | had. |
| Hang, | hung, R. | hung, R. |
| Hear, | heard, | heard. |
| Hew, | hewed, | hewn, R. |
| Hide, | hid, | hidden, hid. |
| Hit, | hit, | hit. |
| Hold, | held, | held. |
| Hurt, | hurt, | hurt. |
| Keep, | kept, | kept. |
| Knit, | knit, R. | knit, R. |
| Know, | knew, | known. |
| Lade, | laded, | laden. |
| Lay, | laid, | laid. |
| Lead, | led, | led. |
| Leave, | left, | left. |
| Lend, | lent, | lent. |
| Let, *to permit,** | let, | let. |
| Lie, *to lie down.* | lay, | lain. |
| Load, | loaded, | laden, R. |
| Lose, | lost, | lost. |
| Make, | made, | made. |
| Meet, | met, | met. |
| Mow, | mowed, | mown, R. |
| Pay, | paid, | paid. |
| Put, | put, | put. |
| Read, | read, | read. |
| Rend, | rent, | rent. |
| Rid, | rid, | rid. |
| Ride, | rode, | rode, ridden.† |

* The verb *let, to hinder*, though opposite in signification, is exactly the same in form as this—'I will work, and who shall let it?'

† *Ridden* is nearly obsolete.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perf. or Pass. Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Ring, | rung, rang, | rung. |
| Rise, | rose, | risen. |
| Rive, | rived. | riven. |
| Run, | ran, | run. |
| Saw, | sawed, | sawn, R. |
| Say, | said, | said. |
| See, | saw, | seen. |
| Seek, | sought, | sought. |
| Sell, | sold, | sold. |
| Send, | sent, | sent. |
| Set, | set, | set. |
| Shake, | shook, | shaken. |
| Shape, | shaped, | shaped, shapen. |
| Shave, | shaved, | shaven, R. |
| Shear, | sheared, | shorn. |
| Shed, | shed, | shed. |
| Shine, | shone, R. | shone, R. |
| Show, | showed, | shown. |
| Shoe, | shod, | shod. |
| Shoot, | shot, | shot. |
| Shrink, | shrunk, | shrunk. |
| Shred, | shred, | shred. |
| Shut, | shut, | shut. |
| Sing, | sung, sang, | sung. |
| Sink, | sunk, sank, | sunk. |
| Sit, | sat, | sat. |
| Slay, | slew, | slain. |
| Sleep, | slept, | slept. |
| Slide, | slid, | slidden. |
| Sling, | slung, | slung. |
| Slink, | slunk, | slunk. |
| Slit, | slit, R. | slit or slitted. |
| Smite, | smote, | smitten. |

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perf. or Pass. Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Sow, | sowed, | sown, R. |
| Speak, | spoke, | spoken. |
| Speed, | sped, | sped. |
| Spend, | spent, | spent. |
| Spill, | spilt, R. | spilt, R. |
| Spin, | spun, | spun. |
| Spit, | spit, spat, | spit, spitten.* |
| Split, | split, | split. |
| Spread, | spread, | spread. |
| Spring, | sprung, sprang, | sprung. |
| Stand, | stood, | stood. |
| Steal, | stole, | stolen. |
| Stick, | stuck, | stuck. |
| Sting, | stung, | stung. |
| Stink, | stunk, | stunk. |
| Stride, | strode or strid, | stridden. |
| Strike, | struck, | struck or stricken. |
| String, | strung, | strung. |
| Strive, | strove, | striven. |
| Strow or strew, | strowed or strewed, | strown, strowed, strewed. |
| Swear, | swore, | sworn. |
| Sweat, | swet, R. | swet, R. |
| Swell, | swelled, | swollen, R. |
| Swim, | swum, swam, | swum. |
| Swing, | swung, | swung. |
| Take, | took, | taken. |
| Teach, | taught, | taught. |
| Tear, | tore, | torn. |
| Tell, | told, | told. |
| Think, | thought, | thought. |

* *Spitten* is nearly obsolete.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perf. or Pass. Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| Thrive, | throve, R. | thriven. |
| Throw, | threw, | thrown. |
| Thrust, | thrust, | thrust. |
| Tread, | trod, | trodden. |
| Wax, | waxed, | waxen, R. |
| Wear, | wore, | worn. |
| Weave, | wove, | woven. |
| Weep, | wept, | wept. |
| Win, | won, | won. |
| Wind, | wound, | wound. |
| Work, | wrought, | wrought or worked |
| Wring, | wrung. | wrung. |
| Write, | wrote, | written. |

## DEFECTIVE VERBS.

There are several defective verbs besides those entitled auxiliaries ; *must*, implying necessity, and *ought*, obligation,—which are in frequent use ; and *quoth*,* *wist*, and *wot*, which are almost obsolete.

We use *must* both in speaking of past and future, as well as of present time, the connection in which it is placed determining to which of these periods it belongs : as, 'I *must* go immediately.' 'They *must* have left town yesterday.' 'Before this time tomorrow, the cause *must* be decided.' It has no variation in person.

*Ought* is only varied in the second person singular.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| 1. I ought. | 1. We ought. |
| 2. Thou oughtst. | 2. Ye or you ought. |
| 3. He ought. | 3. They ought. |

* *Quoth*, said ; *wis*, present, to imagine ; *wist*, past ; *wot*, to be aware of.

It is the same both in the present and past; as, 'He *ought* to remove immediately.' 'Yesterday he *ought* to have given up the papers, if they had been demanded; but the letter received this morning alters the case: he is now under no obligation to do so.'

*Ought* requires *to* between it and the verb immediately following; *must* does not admit it.

Verbs in the Infinitive immediately following the neuter verbs *dare* and *need** may or may not have *to* the usual sign of the Infinitive, prefixed to them: as, 'How incoherent, and how little conformable to the perfection of a rational being, those who are acquainted with dreams *need not be told*.' 'Do those plants *need to* be often watered?'

The following verbs—*hear*, *see*, *behold*, *make*, *bid*, *let* (to permit), *feel*, and *observe*—when in the Active voice—do not admit *to* between them and the Infinitive; though they require it when in the Passive: as, 'I *heard* him *say* it.' 'He *was heard to* say it.' 'We *observed* him *change* colour and appear uneasy.'—He *was observed to change* colour and *to appear* uneasy. *Perceive* might be added to these; but, when in the Active voice, it is generally followed by the participle, seldom by the Infinitive. *Forbade*, the compound of *bade*, requires *to*—'I *bade* him do it;' I *forbade* him *to* do it.'

## EXERCISES.

Some days afterwards, when the buds on the trees had grown much larger, his mamma gathered some of them, to show Willy the little leaves and flowers inside.

* The verb *to have*, in some of its significations, likewise dispenses with *to* between it and the Infinitive: as, I would have any one name to me that tongue that one can speak.

"How sticky it feels," said he, as he took into his hand one of these large buds; "I think it is dirty." "No," replied his mother, "this sticky stuff comes from the inside of the buds, and covers the inside all over, to prevent the rain from touching the bud, for the rain would hurt it." "Now let us see what there is inside, mamma," said Willy.

Like a spirit it came, in the van of a storm.
And the eye and the heart hailed its beautiful form.

On my saying, we could not do too much: that heaven was a blessed place——"So much the worse.—'Tis lost! 'tis lost!—Heaven is to me the severest part of hell?" Soon after, I proposed prayer——"Pray you that can; I never prayed. I cannot pray—nor need I. Is not heaven on my side already? It closes with my conscience. Its severest strokes but second my own."

Observing that his friend was much touched at this, even to tears—(who could forbear? I could not)—with a most affectionate look, he said, "Keep those tears for thyself. I have undone thee.—Dost thou weep for me? That is cruel. What can pain me more?"

Here his friend, too much affected, would have left him.—"No, stay—thou still mayst hope; therefore hear me. How madly have I talked! How madly hast thou listened and believed! but look on my present state, as a full answer to thee, and to myself. This body is all weakness and pain; but my soul, as if stung up by torment to greater strength and spirit, is full powerful to reason; full mighty to suffer. And that which thus triumphs within the jaws of mortality, is, doubtless, immortal—And, as for a Deity, nothing less than an Almighty could inflict what I feel,"

Slaves cannot breathe in England; if their lungs
Receive our air, that moment they are free;
They touch our country, and their shackles fall.

## PRONOUNS—THIS AND THAT.

"The islands," said[1] he, "that lie[2] so fresh and green before thee, and with which the whole face of the ocean appears[3] to be spotted,[4] as far as thou canst see,[5] are[6] more in number than the sands on the sea shore. These are the mansions* of good men after death, who, according to the degrees and kinds of virtue in which they excelled,[2] are distributed[3] among these several islands, which abound[4] with pleasures of different kinds and degrees, suitable to the relishes and perfections of those who are settled in them.

"The first verb?"

"The nominative?"

"The second verb?"

"The nominative?"

"Whether would you put *who* or *which* instead of the relative *that*?"

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* The following questions on this exercise are put in a note, that they may not interrupt this lesson on the pronouns *this* and *that*. Islands are mansions. "What sort of verb is *are*?" "What person and number?" "What mode and tense?" "The second verb in that passage?" "The third verb?" "The nominative?" "To what noun does *who* relate?" "Is *are distributed*, active or passive?" "The fourth verb?" "The nominative?" "What is the antecedent to *which*? You must supply the ellipsis." "To what noun does the demonstrative adjective *those* belong?" "Yes, *men*; and *men* is the antecedent to *who*." "The first adjective in that passage?" "Compare *good*?" "Do you know what *several* signifies here?" "We have other adjectives that express a similar, but not exactly the same idea—*diverse*, *distinct*, *different*. The last of these comes nearest the meaning here." "To what noun does *several* belong?" "Any other adjective?" "To what noun does *suitable* belong?" "Compare it?"

"So if there were no *that* to put in its place, there would be an unpleasant repetition of *which*."

"The third verb?"

"The nominative?"

"The fourth verb?"

"The fifth verb?"

"The nominative?"

"What sort of pronoun is *thou?*"

"Of what person?"

"The sixth verb?"

"The nominative?" If there be any pause, add:

"*What* are more in number than the sands, &c.?"

(The reply will be, "Islands.")

"Observe now how many words are sometimes placed between the nominative and the verb."——are more in number than the sands on the sea shore.

"Supply the ellipsis there?"

"This makes the seventh verb. Now give the nominative?"

"That is right,—'more in number than the sands on the sea shore *are*."

"These are the mansions of good men after death."

"The nominative?"

"Yes, you are right—islands understood. Now can you tell me what *these* is? *These* islands. Do you know what *these* is?" It is one of those words which are called adjective pronouns. This, to you, must seem a strange name. You have been told that the name of a quality is called, in the language of Grammar, an adjective, because qualities belong to and are added to names or nouns. You know, likewise, that pronoun signifies for or instead of a noun. Now it does really seem strange that the same word should be supposed to be added to a noun and to stand instead of one; but it is merely the

*name* that has been given them, not the definition, of which we are now speaking. There are different kinds of them. The particular class to which this word belongs might sometimes be called adjectives of circumstance. They are joined or added to nouns, but they do not imply any inherent quality."

"Try if you can tell me what you understand by *these*, as applied to islands—*these* islands. When first spoken of, in a passage preceding this, they are not called *these*. I will read it to you: 'The clouds still rested upon one half of it, so that I could discover nothing; but the other appeared to me a vast ocean, planted with innumerable islands.' Why, in speaking of them the second time, are they called *these?* Shall I tell you? To denote that they are the same islands which have been just before spoken of. I said *these* belonged to a class of words called adjective pronouns. It is farther distinguished as one of the demonstrative pronouns. They are words of very frequent occurrence. I used one of them when saying, *this word belongs*. Had I been speaking of more words than one, I would have said *these*. *This* is singular, and *these* is the plural of it. I said they were adjectives of circumstance. 'Hand me that book. Yes, that one. This book has a blue cover, has it not? And let me put it in any part of the room I will, the cover will still be blue.' Blue is an adjective, and belongs to the cover or boards of the book. In speaking of the book first, I said, *that* book, and you understood me; but if I had said, hand me *this* book, you would have been puzzled; yet now, when I have it here, I call it *this* book, and you understand it is the same book. If I had said, what size or what colour is *that* book, you would have looked round for another. The colour, the size of the

book, are properties or qualities belonging to it in every situation; but it is *this* in one place, and *that* in another; so these adjectives merely express the situation or place of an object, with regard to the person speaking: *this*, when it is near, or in the hand of the speaker —*that*, when it is at a distance. In the same manner, because what was last spoken of is considered as nearer —in time—than that which was spoken of before it, *this* is applied to the person or thing last mentioned, and *that* to the first.

EXAMPLES.

See, then, the acting and comparing powers,
One in their nature, which are two in ours!
And reason raise o'er instinct as you can;
In *this*, 'tis God directs; in *that*, 'tis man.

Wealth and poverty are both temptations: *that* tends to excite pride, *this* discontent.

"It has been already observed that *these* is the plural of *this*; the plural of *that* is *those*."

"These words are often used as nominatives to verbs, without the nouns to which they belong."

"This demonstrative pronoun is the third *that* which we have met with. We had *that*, a relative pronoun, sometimes taking the place of *who*,—sometimes of *which*. We had *that*, a conjunction, as in the following examples: 'In order *that*.' 'They said *that* the vessel was arrived.' And now we have got *that*, a demonstrative pronoun, with its plural *those*. Let us see how well you can distinguish one from another."

"Are not these, O Mirza, habitations, worth contending for? Does life appear miserable that gives thee opportunities of earning such a reward? Is death

to be feared, that will convey thee to so happy an existence? Think not man was made in vain, who has such an eternity reserved for him." "I gazed with inexpressible pleasure on those happy islands. 'At length,' said I, 'show me now, I beseech thee, the secrets that lie under those dark clouds that cover the ocean on the other side of the rock of adamant."*

## THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

"Edward came to town to-day; I will take he to the country to-morrow." Is there any thing wrong in that sentence?—Why can we not put *he* there instead of Edward? Is not *he* a pronoun—a word that may stand instead of a noun? Edward is singular, and I put the pronoun in the singular. Edward is masculine, so is *he*. What, then, is the matter with it†? Would you have me repeat Edward?—You tell me we can say, take *him*. Very well, what is the difference between *him* and *he?*—The difference is in position, situation, or case—whichever we choose to call it. I must conclude the sentence: 'Edward came to town to-day; I will take him back to-morrow, and he will ride in with his uncle on Saturday next.' In the first clause, Edward is the nominative; the subject of

* "The first verb?" "Supply the ellipsis, and then you will find it has two nominatives. We must go back to the preceding passage: 'Mansions are habitations.'" "What part of speech is *contending?*" "Give the past and the compound participles?" "Is there any adjective in the sentence?" "To what noun does *worth* belong?" "Recollect that *worth* has not exactly the same meaning as *worthy*. We say, *worth* the exertion, *worth* the price; but, *worthy* of honour, *worthy* of esteem. *Worth* is generally used in speaking of things—*worthy* in speaking of persons." "Is this an affirmative sentence, or does it ask a question?" "Then it is interrogative," &c. "Is the action in *convey* confined to the nominative *that*?" "To what object does it pass?" The usual questions to the close of the lesson.

† See Appendix.

the verb, Edward came. In the third clause, *he*, standing instead of Edward, is the subject of the verb ; but in the second clause, the pronoun, which stands instead of Edward, is *not* the subject of the verb. '*I* will take him.' *I* is the nominative to take, and *him* is the object of it.

| | |
|---|---|
| I will send him. | I will assist him. |
| I will carry him. | I will advise him. |

In all these instances, *him*, being the object, stands in a different position or case to what it would if the nominative of a verb. It is, when in this position, said to be in the objective case, and the termination is altered, to distinguish that case from the nominative ; *e* is taken away, and *im* is put instead of it. Pronouns are altered in various ways ; the objective, however, varies from the nominative in all those that we have already had, except *you, it,* and *which*. Nouns are not thus varied ; in them there is no difference in termination between the nominative case and the objective.

"Edward chased George ; George chased Edward." In the first sentence, Edward is the subject ; in the second, the object ; yet you see it is exactly the same in both,—so is George, which is the subject in the first, and the object in the second. Now tell me, can we say, 'I got this flower from he ?'—'No.'—Can we then say, 'I gave that book to he,' or 'I sent the letter by he ?' What then ? You are right ; we must say, from him, to him, by him. Each of these little words—from, to, by, refers to the pronoun. Wherever any one of them appears, it refers to some particular noun or pronoun, and has the same influence on a noun or pronoun that an active verb has. There are many more short words, such as these, all belonging to the same class. They

are called prepositions ; and, though they do not seem very important, we could not do without them. ' Here is a book that is merely stitched ; the stitches seem to be of very little importance compared to the leaves ; but suppose I should cut them, what would happen then ?' ' Yes, the book would fall to pieces ; and, unless the stitches were replaced, the leaves would get all into confusion. Let us see, then, if taking these little words, that are called prepositions, out of a sentence, would not lead to confusion too. We will take another passage from the vision of Mirza, for a trial :

As I looked more attentively, I saw several the passengers dropping the bridge the great tide that flowed it ; and further examination, perceived there were innumerable trap-doors that lay concealed the bridge, which the passengers no sooner trod but they fell them the tide.

" Do you understand this ? Well, we will restore the prepositions" :—

As I looked more attentinely, I saw several* *of* the passengers dropping *through* the bridge *into* the great tide that flowed *underneath* it, and *upon* farther examination, perceived there were innumerable trap-doors that lay concealed *in* the bridge, which the passengers no sooner trod *upon* but they fell *through* them *into* the tide.

* Here the import of the adjective *several* is different from what it was in a former passage ; in the sense in which it is used here, it expresses something between *few* and *many*. We say, there were but *few* children there ; there were *several* children there ; there were *many* children—according as the number (not being counted) seems small or great.

" To what noun does *several* belong ?" " Yes, to *passengers*, but not to the word following *the*. Mirza does not say, 'I saw several passengers,' but, having previously said, ' I see multitudes of people passing over,' he now says, 'I saw several of——that is, several *passengers* of—(out of or from among) the passengers ——dropping.' "

"You understand it now. Well, let us see to what particular noun or pronoun each of those little words refers."

As I looked more attentively, I saw several of the passengers dropping through the bridge.

"*Through* what?"

"What case then is *bridge* in?"

"Yes, the objective."

*Into* the tide that flowed *underneath* it.

"Into what?"

"What case is *tide* in?" [Go on with the rest—*underneath*, *upon*, &c.]

"*Through* them.—What case is *them* in?"

"What does it stand instead of?"

"What pronoun is it?"

"Can you tell me the nominative case of that pronoun?"

## LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| of, | into, | athwart, | along, |
| to, | unto, | amid, | down, |
| for, | towards, | amidst, | off, |
| by, | beneath, | besides, | up, |
| with, | underneath, | betwixt, | touching, |
| from, | beyond, | over, | till, |
| through, | upon, | throughout, | until, |
| against, | among, | respecting, | near, |
| behind, | between, | regarding, | nigh, |
| beside, | within, | since, | during, |
| around, | about, | concerning, | out of. |
| above, | before, | except, | |
| below, | across, | excepting, | |

EXAMPLES.

Our ships are laden with the harvests of every climate. Our tables are stored with spices and oils, and wines. Our morning's draught comes to us from the remotest corners of the earth. We repair our bodies with the drugs of America.

THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

"Whose pencil is this, Henry*?" "George Clifton's, you say. His name is George Clifton; why do you put an *s* to it? Would you make me believe there are two George Cliftons?" "Whose dictionary is this, George?" "It is Henry Martin's; and you have put an *s* to Henry's name. Why do you do so?" "Because, It is Henry Martin, would not be sense." "Not the sense you mean to express; but you have not told me why; tell me, however, whose fine horses those are that drew the carriage in which you rode yesterday." "Your uncle's, you say?" "Which uncle? Your uncle William's?" "Can you not tell me now, why you add *s* both to uncle and to uncle William?" "Do you not think that the horses have something to do with it?" "The horses—the dictionary—the pencil—these respectively belong to the different individuals mentioned. Whatever belongs to any one is a possession, and puts its owner in the situation of a possessor.—What is amusing you?" "A slate pencil is such a little thing to be a possession." "True; nevertheless it is one; and puts George's name in what is termed the possessive case as certainly and as well as your uncle William's fine horses do his; and, what is more, a mere idea of the mind, a thought, an opinion—provided it be said to

* Some such questions as these must be asked; not at the possessor, for then they would be answered by "mine."

belong to the person spoken of—does the same. We say, your father's house; and we must likewise say, your father's idea of the matter,—your mother's opinion on that point. You may observe that the possessive *'s* is not exactly the same as the simple *s* which forms the plural; it has a little space with a comma, called an apostrophe, over that, between it and the last letter. Now what is it that puts a noun in the possessive case?" "Yes, any thing that belongs to the person—any possession, no matter what, large or small, real or ideal, belonging or attributed to the individual the noun represents."

I appeal to any white man to say, if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat.

"The first verb?"

"The nominative?"

"What person is the verb in?"

"The second verb?"

"No nominative?"

"The third verb?"

"The nominative?"

"What person is the verb in?"

"What noun does *he* stand instead of?"

"What case is *Logan's* in?"

"What puts it in the possessive?"

At last they came to a shop, which appeared far more beautiful than the rest. It was a chemist's shop.

"Take the last sentence—'It was a chemist's shop.'"

"The verb?"

"The nominative?"

"What person is the verb?"

"And singular number, because *it* and *shop* mean one thing."

" What case is *chemist's* in ?"

" Oh mother?" cried she, pulling her mother s hand.

[Ask the usual questions.]

" Yes, it is *hand* that puts mother's in the possessive. Hitherto we have only had PERSONS in that case ; but as we often attribute possession to THINGS, we find nouns representing them in it."

Low in the dim and sultry west,
  Sinks the fierce sun of Syria's sky ;
The evening's grateful hour of rest,
  Its hour of feast and joy is nigh.

[Ask the usual questions.]

" *Syria's* sky—that is, the sky above Syria, which is thus considered as belonging to it."

" There is another form of the possessive which we often find in what is called the lofty, and at times even in the familiar style of writing."

The sons of Jacob. Gehazi, the servant of Elisha. The daughter of the emperor. The mansion of the duke. The eyes of the panther.

" Turn these into the more common form. Jacob's sons, &c."

" There is another way of expressing property or possession. When, instead of saying, 'This is William's book,' I say, 'This book belongs to William,'—or, 'I saw your cousin on a handsome poney yesterday; does it belong to him ?' In these instances, the noun and pronoun are not in the possessive case ; they are referred to by the preposition *to*—to William—to him. What case are they in ? What case is a noun in when referred to by a preposition ?"

## THE VARIATIONS OF NOUNS.

We will now place the variations of nouns as we did those of verbs—in their usual order.

### NUMBER.

First comes Number—the singular being one, the plural more than one. We form the plural from the singular of nouns; sometimes by adding *s*,—as flower, flowers; sometimes *es*,—as watch, watches; sometimes by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves*,—as knife, knives; sometimes by changing *y* into *ies*. In the greater part of nouns, the plural is formed by adding only *s;* but nouns which end in *ch*, *s*, *sh*, *x*, or *o*, require *es*,—as, church, churches; wish, wishes; miss, misses; motto, mottoes; box, boxes. Nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change these letters into *ves*,—as, life, lives; and nouns ending in *y* following a consonant, change it into *ies*,—as, fly, flies.

There are some irregular plurals,—as man, men; woman, women; ox, oxen; and nouns borrowed from other languages generally form their plurals according to the rules of the languages they are taken from.

Some English nouns are the same in both numbers,—as sheep, deer, and some are naturally plural; as, scissors, riches, lungs.

### GENDER.

"You can tell me how many genders there are?"

"Yes, three; the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter. The masculine denotes animals of the male kind. Do you recollect the examples? A man—a boy—a lion. The feminine denotes animals of the female kind,—as, a woman, a girl, a lioness. The neuter denotes things without life,—as a ball, a book, a tree."

There are three different ways in which our language marks the distinctions of Gender.

1. By different words: as—

| *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* | *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| King, | Queen. | Stag, | Hind. |
| Earl, | Countess. | Colt, | Filly. |
| Father, | Mother. | Buck, | Doe. |
| Son, | Daughter. | Bull, | Cow. |
| Brother, | Sister. | Horse, | Mare. |
| Husband, | Wife. | Duck, | Drake. |
| Uncle, | Aunt. | Gander, | Goose. |
| Nephew, | Niece. | Hart, | Roe. |
| Lord, | Lady. | Ram, | Ewe. |
| Friar, | Nun. | Steer, | Heifer. |
| Bachelor, | Maid. | Hart, | Roe. |
| Wizzard, | Witch. | Singer, | Songstress. |

2. By a change of termination: as—

| *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* |
|---|---|
| Abbot, | Abbess. |
| Actor, | Actress. |
| Administrator, | Administratrix. |
| Ambassador, | Ambassadress. |
| Arbiter, | Arbitress. |
| Author, | Authoress, or Author. |
| Baron, | Baroness. |
| Duke, | Duchess. |
| Bridegroom, | Bride. |
| Benefactor, | Benefactress. |
| Elector, | Electress. |
| Emperor, | Empress. |
| Enchanter, | Enchantress. |
| Hero, | Heroine. |
| Hunter, | Huntress. |
| Peer, | Peeress. |

3. By prefixing another word: as—

| | |
|---|---|
| A man-servant, | A maid-servant. |
| A male-child, | A female-child. |
| A cock-sparrow, | A hen-sparrow. |

Some nouns belong to what has been called Common Gender; as, parents, relations, inhabitants, friends, &c.

## THE VOCATIVE CASE.

We have already considered the distinctions of Case, or Position, in the Nominative—the Possessive and Objective. The *Nominative* is the subject of the verb; the *Objective*, the object of a verb, or referred to by a preposition; and a noun is said to be in the *Possessive* case when a possession—any thing, no matter what—is attributed to the person or thing it represents.

"George Bolton! What did I just now say? I pronounced your name, did I not? But I did not speak in such a tone as to make you suppose I was calling you, did I? You merely looked up.—You thought I was going to speak to you.—Well, I was addressing you. Can you tell me what case I put your name in when I spoke it? Was it the *subject* of a verb? Was it the *object* of one then? I am sure it was not put in the *possessive*? *I* must tell *you*. Your name spoken in that manner is in the *Vocative* Case. The name of this Case comes from the Latin—from *voco*, to call. A person that calls, or speaks the name of another, may either mean to ask where the other is, or to make him come nearer, or merely to call his attention to what is to be said. The person thus spoken to is always addressed, sometimes summoned,—and we say his name is in the *Vocative* Case."

EXAMPLES.

O! mamma, see what a curious bird I have got!
"What is that for, Ann?" said Willy.
O! mother, mother! how long my soul will live.
Negro woman, who sittest pining in captivity!
Monarch, who rulest over a hundred states.

Nations of the earth, fear the Lord; families of men, call upon his name.

O thou of little faith! wherefore didst thou doubt?
Jesus said, "Woman! why weepest thou?"

Men, brethren, and fathers! hear ye my defence.——At mid-day, O King, I saw in the way a light from heaven.——King Agrippa, believest thou the prophets?——I am not mad, most noble Festus; but speak forth the words of truth and soberness.

"Alexander, I am your captive! I must hear what you please to say, and endure what you please to inflict, but my soul is unconquered: and if I reply at all to your reproaches, I will reply like a free man."

"Son of night, retire; call thy winds and fly! Why dost thou come to my presence with thy shadowy arms? Do I fear thy gloomy form, dismal spirit of Loda? Weak is thy shield of clouds; feeble is that meteor, thy sword."

"My dwelling is calm above the clouds; the fields of my rest are pleasant."

"Dwell then in thy calm field, and let Comhal's son be forgot. Do my steps ascend from my hills into thy peaceful plains? Do I meet thee with a spear in thy cloud, spirit of dismal Loda? Hunter! leave the mountain chase.

## THE ARTICLES.

The orderly arrangement of the variations of nouns, arising from number and case, is termed declension. Before proceeding to this, we will consider the Articles —words which are often prefixed to nouns, and of which we have as yet taken no notice.

The articles are *a* or *an* and *the.*

When I say, '*The* ship sailed this morning for Liverpool,' you suppose that I am speaking of some particular ship, that had been previously mentioned, do you not? But if I say, '*A* ship sailed this morning for Liverpool,' that may mean any ship. '*The* boy has brought a basket of strawberries'—*the* boy, in like manner, indicates some particular boy. But, '*A* boy has brought a basket of strawberries,' may mean any boy; it does not point out a particular individual. '*An* hour has elapsed.' This simply says, that a certain period of time—an hour—has elapsed; but '*the* hour has elapsed,' indicates that an hour appointed, or previously spoken of, in some manner, is now past. *An* has a meaning similar to *one*,* from which it is derived, so that it can only be used in the singular. *A* or *an* is called the indefinite article, because it does not define or point out any particular object. *An* is used (with a few exceptions) before words beginning with a vowel, or silent *h*, and *a* before those which begin with a consonant. *The* is called the definite article, because it points out what particular person or thing is meant. There is some resemblance between its signification and that of *this* or *these.* It is used both in the singular and plural.

* Formerly *ane*. *The*, with a noun in the singular, sometimes means a whole class or species: as, 'The sailor and the soldier are exposed to dangers of different kinds;' 'The horse is a noble animal.'

## DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

### THE QUEEN.

| | *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|---|
| Nominative— | The Queen. | The Queens. |
| Possessive— | The Queen's, or of the Queen. | The Queens', or of the Queens. |
| Objective— | The Queen, to the Queen. | The Queens, to the Queens. |
| Vocative— | Queen! O Queen. | Queens! O Queens. |

### EXAMPLES.

| | *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|---|
| Nom.— | The Queen entered Edinburgh. | The Queens met. |
| Poss.— | The Queen's Consort; the sons of the Queen. | The ancestor of the Queens. |
| Obj.— | They paid homage to the Queen. | They conducted the Queens. |
| Voc.— | Queen of the Isles! o'er earth and sea, Rings once again the peal of joy. | Ye Queens, whose consorts rule these spacious realms, Hear what the fates ordain. |

### A VIOLET.

| | *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|---|
| Nom.— | A violet. | Violets. |
| Poss.— | A violet's, or of a violet. | Violets', or of violets. |
| Obj.— | A violet, by a violet. | The violets, from the violets. |
| Voc.— | Violet. O violet! | Violets. O violets! |

EXAMPLES.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| A violet smells sweet. | Violets remain long in blossom. |
| A violet's petals—the roots of the violets. | The buds of the violets. |
| Bring water for the violet. | She is going to gather violets. |
| O, earliest violets of the year! | Violets and roses, come! |

MAN.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| Nom.—Man. | Men. |
| Poss.—Man's, of man. | Men's, of men. |
| Obj.—Man, with man. | Men, by men. |
| Voc.—O man! Man! | Men! O men! |

EXAMPLES.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| Man had his path assigned him. | Men have reason. |
| Man's place in creation—the rank of man. | Men's heads. |
| Look at man in every different situation. | They sent men to help. |
| Thus shall it be with thee, O man! | Men! stand firm. |

HENRY.

| | EXAMPLES. *Singular.* |
|---|---|
| Nom.—Henry. | Henry took the book. |
| Poss.—Henry's, of Henry. | Henry's hat fell off. |
| Obj.—Henry, for Henry. | A present for Henry. |
| Voc.—Henry. O Henry! | Henry! guard the wicket. |

"We have put no plural* to Henry; do you know why? Because Henry is the name of *one* single individual. There is a distinction in nouns, between particular names given to individuals, and those which denote a class—order—or species. Your two brothers are boys. Boy is a common name or noun—a noun which is common to all the individuals of the same class; but each of your brothers has a name—a *distinguishing* name; one is called Charles, and the other Richard. Charles and Richard are proper names. Your three sisters are girls; girl is a common name; but one is called Catherine, another Louisa, and the third Flora. These also are proper names. We sometimes distinguish inanimate things in this way. Ships are always named; and in speaking of them, the pronoun of the feminine gender is generally used. The sun is spoken of as masculine, and the moon as feminine."

## DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

| PRONOUN OF THE FIRST PERSON. | | PRONOUN OF THE SECOND PERSON. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Sing.* | *Plu.* | *Sing.* | *Plu.* |
| Nom.—I. | We. | Thou. | Ye or you. |
| Poss.—Mine. | Ours. | Thine. | Yours. |
| Obj.—-Me. | Us. | Thee. | You. |
| Voc.— | | O thou! | O ye! |

PRONOUN OF THE THIRD PERSON.

| | *Singular.* | | | *Plural.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Mas.* | *Fem.* | *Neut.* | *Mas. Fem. Neut.* |
| Nom.—He. | | She. | It. | They. |
| Poss.—His. | | Hers. | Its. | Theirs. |
| Obj.—-Him. | | Her. | It. | Them. |

* There is an exception to this, when proper names are used to denote several individuals of the same name, or when persons of the same race have been successively rulers of the same realm: as, 'The Ptolemies; the Cæsars.'

### RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

WHO.

| *Sing. & Plu. Mas. & Fem.* | *Neut. Sing. & Plu.* |
|---|---|
| Nom.—Who. | Which. |
| Poss.—Whose. | |
| Obj.—Whom. | Which. |

*That* and *what* have no variation. *What* is a kind of compound relative, and is used instead of *that which;* as, He found what he had lost, (*that which* he had lost,) except when it is used interrogatively. *What* ship is *that?* *Who* and *which* are used in the same manner in asking questions. *Who* is she? *Which* seat do you take?* *Who, which,* and *what* are sometimes compounded with *ever—whoever, whichever, whatever.*

### INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

*One,*—not the numeral adjective, qualifying a noun or pronoun, expressed or understood,—but one standing as the nominative to a verb, or as its object, or representing the possessor of some expressed possession,—is an indefinite pronoun: '*One* cannot help getting interested in the contest.' '*One's* own country.' '*One's* own relations.' 'It annoys *one.*' In these examples, *one* could be supplied by *a person,* to which it is equivalent; it has the advantage of being more concise, and is more frequently used.

*Other* is likewise of this class,—not *other* qualifying a noun, expressed or understood,—but *other,* compounded with, or preceded by, the indefinite, or the definite article, or when it stands as the nominative to, or the object of, a verb, or assumes the possessive or plural termination. '*Another* may find, may cherish, and

* When thus used, they are termed interrogatives.

prize what you have so heedlessly thrown away.' 'We have no right to take that which is *another's*.' '*Others* have done so; why should not he?'

*None*, derived from *no one*, though supposed to have been originally used only in the singular, is now used in both numbers, both in the nominative and in the objective case, without variation. 'Ye shall flee when *none* pursueth.' 'He expects reinforcements; but if he should receive *none*, he will advance without them.

| | *Sing.* | *Plu.* | *Sing.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Nom.— | An, or the, other. | Others. | Nom.—One. |
| Poss.— | An, or the, other's. | Others'. | Poss.—One's. |
| Obj.— | An, or the, other. | Others. | Obj.—One. |

*One* is sometimes used in the plural, but only with an adjective; as, 'The great *ones* of the earth;' 'the young *ones*;' 'the old *ones*;' it has no possessive plural.

Besides the compounds of the relative, *whatever*, &c., there are pronouns formed by the union of possessive or personal pronouns with self. They are sometimes used to give emphasis: 'He did this *himself*. Sometimes, to express the action affecting the agent: 'You will benefit *yourself* by it;' 'They will injure *themselves*;' '*Himself*, &c.,' though formed from the objective case, are now used both in the nominative and objective.

## ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

There are four sorts of adjective pronouns.

1. The *Possessive* are those which express possession or relation—'*My*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *their*; 'My book;' 'Your father's; 'His ancestors.'*

* *Mine* and *thine* are sometimes used instead of *my* and *thy*, before words beginning with a vowel,

2. The *Distributive* are those which denote the persons or things that make up a number taken separately and singly. They are—*Each*,* *every*, *either*, *neither*. *Every* relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them taken separately. 'He furnished amusement during the whole voyage for *every* one on board the vessel.' *Either* relates to two persons or things, taken separately. 'I have not seen *either* of them.' *Neither* implies *not either* as '*Neither* of his brothers was there.'

3. The *Demonstrative* are those which precisely point out the subjects to which they relate. It has been already said that *this* and *that*, with their plurals, *these* *those*, are demonstrative pronouns. *Former* and *latter* also come under this denomination.

4. The *Indefinite* are those which we use in connection with nouns, when speaking of persons or things in a general manner, and without expressly pointing out what individuals are meant. *Some*, *any*, *other*, (when belonging to a noun expressed or understood,) *all*, *such;* &c., are of this class.

EXAMPLES.

Some of the Rabbins tell us that the cherubim are a set of angels who know most, and the seraphim a set of angels who love most.

As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him.
O what a fall was there, my countrymen!
Then I and you, and all of us, fell down,
Whilst bloody treason flourished over us.

* *Each* relates to two or more persons or things, and signifies either of the two, or every one taken separately: as, '*Each* of the party watched with silent interest his proceeding.'

Look ye here! Here is himself marred, as you see, by traitors.

And each proud galley, as she past,
To the wild cadence of the blast,
Gave wilder minstrelsy,

Let every man
Follow the fashion of the clan.

## INTERJECTIONS.

In some examples of the Vocative Case, the single letter *O* appeared as a word: it is an exclamation or interjection, expressing a sudden emotion of the mind. There are several of the same class—*O or Oh! Ah! Alas! Woe is me! Ho! Hark! Behold! Fie! Shame! Possible!* &c. Some of these are brief sentences, and others, though often thrown between the parts of a sentence, are so little connected with them, that their removal, though it would lessen the emphasis, would not affect the construction. When properly introduced, they help to give to written language the pathos of earnest speech.

In the lofty and pathetic style of writing, the absent, the dead, and even inanimate objects are often addressed, or (as this is termed) apostrophized.

### EXAMPLES.

Oh, cruel reverse of fortune! Oh, father Micipsa! is this the consequence of thy generosity?

Ye mountains of Gilboa, let there be no dew, neither let there be rain on you, nor fields of offerings, for there the shield of the mighty is vilely cast away.

The sky is changed, and such a change! Oh night and storm, and darkness, ye are wondrous strong!

And this is in the night: most glorious night!
Thou wert not made for slumber! let me be
A sharer in thy fierce and fair delight—
A portion of the tempest and of thee.

Yet thus it shall be once—once more! my spirit shall awake!
And through the mists of death shine out, my country! for thy sake,
Oh! many-toned and changeless wind!
Thou art a wanderer free.

If I forget thee, O Jerusalem! let my right hand forget her cunning.

O spirit land! Thou land of dreams,
A world thou art of mysterious gleams.

Thou'rt bearing hence thy roses,
Glad summer, fare thee well!

Sweet summer, to the captive
Thou hast flown in burning dreams
Of the woods, with all their whispering leaves,
And the blue rejoicing streams.

Thou glorious sea! more pleasing far,
When all thy waters are at rest,
And noonday sun, or midnight star,
Is shining on thy waveless breast.
More pleasing far, than when the wings
Of stormy winds are o'er thee spread;
And every billowy mountain flings
Aloft to heaven its foaming head.

## SYNTAX.

We have classed all the different sorts of words, and have found that, with the exception of interjections and the adverbs of affirmation and negation—*yes, yea, no, nay**—no word in a sentence stands unconnected; each is linked to one or two of the others. We will take the following sentence as an example:

The bashas, ignorant of his fraudulent intention, and eager to pay court to their sovereign at such an easy price, filled their letters with studied but fatal panegyrics of Mustapha, representing him as a prince worthy to succeed such an illustrious father, and as endowed with talents which might enable him to emulate, perhaps to equal his father.

The first and most obvious connection is between the verb—the word expressing action, being, or suffering,—and its nominative—the name of the person or thing said to be acting, existing, or suffering,—or the pronoun, which stands instead of the name.

—— *bashas filled*——*which might enable.*

The second connection is between the name or noun and the pronoun that stands instead of it—*Mustapha him,—talents which.*

The third, between the adjective or adjective pronoun, and the noun to which it belongs; for every adjective and every adjective pronoun must belong to some substantive, expressed or understood—*ignorant,*†

* And even these may be said to be always connected with a verb understood, if not expressed.

† Here the first of these adjectives is limited; *being* is understood, and the clause does not imply that the bashas were ignorant in any other respect, but that they were ignorant of the fraudulent intention of the vizier.

*eager, bashas,—his fraudulent intention,—their sovereign,—such easy price,—their letters,—studied, fatal, panegyrics,—prince, worthy, endowed,—such, illustrious, father,—his father.*

The fourth is between the verbs *to be* or *to become*, or other neuter verbs, or their participles with nouns immediately following them—*him*, (being) *prince.*

The fifth is between the verb in the Infinitive and the verb which it follows or depends upon. A verb in the Infinitive can never be the only verb in a sentence, and generally depends upon another verb or participle; sometimes, however, its connection is with an adjective. sometimes with a noun. Sometimes, as has been already observed, it is itself the nominative to a verb.—*Eager to pay,—worthy to succeed,—enable to emulate,—enable* (understood) *to equal.*

The sixth is between the verb or participle expressing transitive action, and the noun or pronoun on which that action falls—*pay court,—filled letters,—representing him,—succeed father,—enable him,—emulate,* (father,) *—equal, father.*

The seventh is between a noun in the possessive case and the noun which puts it in that case.

The eighth, between prepositions and the nouns or pronouns to which they refer, (for a preposition always brings along with it a noun or pronoun in the objective case,)—of *intention,* to *sovereign,* at *price,* with *panegyrics,* of *Mustapha,* with *talents.*

The ninth, between adverbs and the verbs or adjectives to which they are joined, or, as is sometimes the case, between them and the other adverbs which they compare or qualify—*perhaps* to *equal.*

The tenth, between conjunctions and the words or sentences which they connect; for conjunctions are

connected with the words or sentences between which they stand and connect them with each other—*ignorant* and *eager*,—*studied* but *fatal*,—*him* as *prince*,—*worthy* and *endowed*.

Lastly, each of the articles, definite or indefinite, belongs to some particular noun, and a noun in the nominative absolute, though apparently independent, is generally connected either with a participle or with some part of the verb *to be* (understood.)

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The study of Language has usually been divided into four distinct parts: Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody. Of these, your attention has been confined to two*—Etymology and Syntax; and between these we have hitherto drawn no line of distinction,—for while studying Etymology, which classes the different sorts of words and exhibits their variations, your attention has been led to the principles of Syntax, which treats of the proper arrangement of words in sentences, and of the influence which, when connected in a sentence, some words have over others,—and you have given me, in your own words, several of the most important rules. We will now compare what you said with the rules generally made use of, to regulate the arrangement and variations of words.

* Etymology and Syntax are the only portions of Grammar of which this work professes to treat. Etymology is usually considered first, and as distinct from Syntax. It is obvious that no such distinction has as yet been introduced here; for while studying Etymology, which classes the different sorts of words, and exhibits their variations, pupils have been led to consider the causes of those variations, and these, as has been already observed, form the basis of Syntax, and now, though the distinction is of little importance, and would at the outset have tended only to perplex, it is but right to place before them the generally received terms and divisions of what they have been studying.

You told me that we could not say, I receivedst, because *I* is the pronoun of the first person, and *st* is the termination which belongs to only the second. Nor They receives, because *s* is the termination which, in regular verbs in that mode and tense, belongs to the third person singular, and *they* is the pronoun of the third person plural. You understand, then, that a verb must be of the same number and person with its nominative. This is what is meant by the rule.

RULE 1.—A verb must agree, or be in the same person and number, with its nominative.

You told me, too, that we could not say, when speaking of the same person, 'My brother went to town yesterday, and *she* is coming back to-day,' because *brother* is a noun of the masculine gender, and *she* is the pronoun of the feminine; nor, 'My *sister* went out to walk, and *they* will be home to dinner,' because *sister* signifies only one person, and *they* stands for more than one; *sister* is singular, and *they* plural; and that we could not say, '*Henry* went out to fly his kite, and *you* will stay out till sunset,' because *Henry*, being spoken *of*, is in the third person, and *you* is the pronoun of the second. You understand, then, that personal pronouns must be of the same gender, person, and number as the nouns which they represent are. This is what is expressed in the following Rule:

RULE 2.—Personal Pronouns must agree in person and number, with the nouns they stand instead of.

You likewise told me we could not say, 'The man *which* treads mount Ætna,' because *man* is a person, and *who*, not *which*, is the relative used for persons: nor, 'The appearance, *who*,' because *which*, not *who*, is the relative used for inanimate things. But that we could say: 'The butterfly, *which*.' Thus you are aware that the relative must agree with its antecedent,—that *who* must be used when we speak of persons, and *which* when we speak of inanimate things, and (with some exceptions) when we speak of animals.

Remember, too, that the relative is always considered to be of the same person as its antecedent, though it has no variation in termination to show it. Thus we would not say: 'The sister who *lovest* you,' but 'the sister who *loves* you,' because sister, being

spoken *of*, is in the third person, the relative must likewise be considered in the third person, and, being nominative to the verb, that verb must also be in the same person—'the sister who *loves*.' We say, 'Thou who *seekest* to avoid danger,' for here *thou* being the antecedent, the relative and verb are both in the second person. We will put this into few words.

RULE 3.—The relative must agree with its antecedent, and be of the same person and number that it is.

You also told me that we ought not to say: 'Edward, Rose, and Frederick *is* cracking nuts,' because the action belongs, or is attributed to more than one, and the verb must be plural. You understand this so thoroughly, that you can always with ease give the reason for it, and have no use for the Rule respecting copulative conjunctions, which has found a place in some Grammars.

So, likewise, when I gave, as an example: 'Either the captain or the mate has given this order,' and asked what was the nominative to the verb, one of you said immediately, that there was a verb wanting, and supplied the ellipsis thus—'Either the captain has given this order, or the mate has given it. *Captain* is the nominative of the first verb, and *mate* of the second.'

Knowing that you understand this so well, I omit the Rule which relates to nouns connected by disjunctive conjunctions; because, to supply the ellipsis is a more certain method of finding the right construction of a sentence, than to refer to the conjunction. We will go on to nouns of multitude, or collective nouns,—words which sometimes mean one united body, though composed of several individuals, and sometimes the individuals of which that body is composed.

RULE 4.—Collective nouns are those which express a collected number of individuals, persons, or things: as, An army, a multitude, the people, the meeting, the parliament, a row, a group. In using them, the meaning of the word, in its actual connection, must always be considered, that the verbs and pronouns belonging to it may be put either in the singular or plural, to correspond to that.

'His army *was* worn out and disheartened,' (his whole army *was*) 'The meeting *was* well attended.' 'I have compassion on

the multitude, because *they have been* with me now three days, and *have* nothing to eat.' Here the persons composing the multitude are spoken of as being each and all in want of food.

'A group of peasants surrounded the body, *their* lowering looks and muttered words strongly expressing grief and indignation.' 'That group of flowers *is* elegantly designed.' 'I think that the row of houses with the terrace and lofty trees in front *is* the handsomest in the street.' 'The whole row of little buttons set up their sharp voices,'—(not the *voice* of a *row*, but the *voices* of buttons.)

Sentences occur in which several different appellations are given to the same individual; it follows, of course, that the verb or pronoun must then be in the singular; as, 'Mrs. Bloomfield, Henry's mother, is coming here this afternoon.' 'The brig Mary, the first vessel that was built on this part of the coast, was stranded last week.' 'Charles the Fifth, King of Spain, and Emperor of Germany, was a powerful and ambitious monarch.' You have often found one nominative preceding, and another following the verb *to be*. It has sometimes an objective case before and after. Here follow the Rules respecting it:

RULE 5.—The verbs *to be* and *to become* have the same case after that they have before them: as, Thou art she; I believe it to be him; she has become a very amiable member of society.

The verb *to be*, instead of the auxiliary *to have*, is sometimes used in conjugating the neuter verbs—*come, go, arrive, depart*, &c.; but these verbs must not on that account be considered as in the passive voice. I *have* come; he *has* gone, &c. These expressions are generally used when we speak of persons coming or going for a particular purpose: as, They *have* come to inquire respecting the truth of that report; I *am* come; They *are* gone, &c., are used when we merely speak of arrival or departure.

RULE 6.—When a noun immediately follows one of those verbs which are not generally used to express transitive action; in determining the case of the noun particular attention must be paid to the meaning of the verb in that sentence.

In such sentences, there is frequently though not always an ellipsis. 'The boy grew a man.' Here there is no ellipsis—(the sense is, the boy, by growing, became a man)—and man is in the nominative. 'She looks a goddess, and she moves a queen.' Here the meaning can go no farther than this—She looks (as a goddess looks); she moves (as a queen moves),—for in whatever way Helen might look, she could not by looking become a goddess. 'He lay down a subject, and arose a king'—he lay down (being) a subject, and (owing to the sudden death of the sovereign whom he was entitled to succeed), arose (being) a king.

> The mystic words were breathed, in height he rose
> A giant towering o'er his pigmy foes.

In rising, he became a giant. Here there is no ellipsis; and giant, following rose, is in the nominative.

You know that one or more qualities, without an object to which we could say they belong, can form no part of a sentence. There is a rule relating to this, and one concerning adjective pronouns.

RULE 7.—Every adjective and every adjective pronoun must belong to some substantive, expressed or understood.

RULE 8.—The adjective pronouns *this* and *that* must agree in number with the nouns to which they belong. *This* is used to denote the nearer person or thing, and *that*, the more distant. *This* refers to the person or thing last mentioned, and *that* to the first.

You recollect that, when you were asked to whom any thing belonged, you always, in replying, put the name of the noun in the possessive case. 'Henry Martin's;' 'My uncle's;' &c. The following is the Rule for this:

RULE 9.—When two nouns—one of which signifies an object possessed—stand together in a sentence, the latter governs the other and puts it in the possessive case. When the possessor is spoken of by two or more appellations, the possessive termination is generally affixed to the last—as, My sister, Mrs. Granger's country house.

You told me that we could not say, 'Take *he*,' but 'Take *him*.' You will find the reasons for this repeated in the following Rules;

RULE 10.—When the action is transitive, passing from a verb or participle to a noun or pronoun, that noun or pronoun being the object of the action, is in the objective case: as, Lead him; send her.

Give me the pen. Send him the book. In such sentences a preposition is understood. Lend the book *to* him. Give the pen *to* me.

RULE 11.—The verbs *give, tell, lend,* &c., are sometimes attended by two objective cases immediately following each other; the name of the person receiving is governed by a preposition understood, and that of the gift, &c., by the verb.

He shall be called John. William who was surnamed Rufus. Here are two verbs with two nominatives to each. Verbs of naming, when used passively, have always two, both signifying the same person.

RULE 12. A verb of naming, when used passively, has a nominative preceding and another following it, both signifying the same person.

RULE 13. A verb in the infinitive mode, either follows another verb, which is then said to govern it in that mode, or it is itself the nominative to a verb, or follows, and is governed by, an adjective or a noun. When governed by a noun or an adjective, or when itself the nominative, it is always preceded by *to*, and so it is when following other verbs, with the exception of a very few: *See, hear, let,* &c., which have been already mentioned.

RULE 14. Prepositions govern the noun or pronoun to which they refer in the objective case.

RULE 15. Adverbs are always connected with verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs.

The wind rising, the flames spread rapidly. The native troops

retreating, the invaders overran the country. Harold slain, the English did not long continue the contest. Here are three different instances of nouns which are neither nominatives to verbs, nor objects of an action, nor governed by another noun or preposition. Nouns so situated are said to be in the nominative absolute. They are sometimes connected with active participles, as in the first and second examples,—wind *rising*—troops *retreating*. Sometimes as in the third with the passive participle expressed and *being* understood. Harold (being) slain.

RULE 16. A noun without either verb, preposition, or other noun to govern it, is in the nominative absolute.

RULE 17. Conjunctions are connected with the words or sentences between which they stand, and connect them with each other. Some conjunctions have their correspondent conjunctions: *or* corresponds to *whether* and *either; nor* to *neither; though* to *yet*.

Different associations require different conjunctions. We can say—George applied closely to his studies and gained the prize for mathematics, but not.—Henry exerted himself for a day or two and might have gained the prize for composition, *and* lost it by negligence at last. The latter sentence stands, in some measure, in opposition to the former; the ideas are turned from the course in which they were flowing, and *but* is the proper word. We say "Cæsar conquered, *and* Pompey was defeated," but not Charles, opposing to the designs of those who sought to wrest from him his dominions, invincible courage and inflexible resolution, rolled back the tide of aggression on the territories of the assailants, *and* his inflexibility carried him too far when he persisted in saying, "I will treat with the Czar at moscow;" *but* must mark the change from approval of his resolution in the first instance to disapproval in the second.

RULE 18. The conjunctions *and, also, likewise*, &c., connect sentences, the significations of which are similar or in harmony with each other. When there is any opposition between that which precedes and that which is to follow, the latter should be introduced by *but, nevertheless* or *notwithstanding*.

"Clanronald's whistling a certain tune was to be the signal of their approach." Here the active participle stands as the nominative to *was*, and at the same time governs *tune* in the objective; but, should an article be prefixed to it, it must be considered a noun, and a preposition is required to govern the noun following it, as: The rushing *of* the *stream* wore away the little mound.

RULE 19. When the active participle has an article prefixed to it, it ceases to govern in the objective, and a preposition is required to refer to the noun following it.

"He did not never do it." This might imply, he did it sometimes, and is an awkward and ambiguous phrase. He *never did* it; or, he *did not*, are the proper negative phrases. He *did* it *sometimes*, the correct affirmative.

RULE 20. Two negative adverbs must not be placed in the same clause of a sentence—but a limited affirmative may with great propriety be expressed by a negative adverb and negative syllable prefixed to an adjective.

The path though steep is *not un*inviting. The country, though wild, is *not un*pleasing.

RULE 21. Each article must belong to some substantive.

The passage in which the different connections of nouns was shewn, page 150, may be thus construed:

Bashas filled—which might enable. What rule?

Rule 1. A verb must agree, &c.

What person and number is might enable?

Third person plural agreeing with its nominative which.

Why is which in the third person plural? Because its antecedent talents is plural, and is spoken of.

Mustapha him. What rule?

Rule 2. Personal pronouns, &c.

Talents which. What rule?

Rule 3. The relative must agree, &c.

Ignorant, eager, bashas—fraudulent intention—such, easy, price—their letters—studied, fatal, panegyrics—prince, worthy, endowed—such, illustrious, father—his father. What rule?

Rule 7. Every adjective, and every adjective pronoun, &c.

Eager to pay—worthy to succeed—enable to emulate—enable (understood) to equal. What rule?

Rule 13. A verb in the infinitive mode either follows, &c.

Pay court—filled letters—representing him—enable him—emulate father—equal father. What rule?

Rule 10. When the action is transitive, passing, &c.

Of intention—to sovereign—at price—with panegyrics—of Mustapha—with talents—to* father. What rule?

Rule 14. Prepositions govern, &c.

Perhaps to equal. What rule?

Rule 15. Adverbs are, &c.

Him *being* prince. What rule?

Rule 5. The verbs to be and to become, &c.

Him *as* prince—ignorant *and* eager—studied *but* fatal—worthy *and* endowed—as (being) prince. What rule?

Rule 17. Conjunctions are connected.

The bashas—a prince—an (illustrious) father.

Rule 21. Each article, &c.

Instead of attempting to give rules for the formation of complex sentences, I shall merely say to teachers. "Let your pupils parse in selections from the best authors. In the usual mode of parsing, the spirit of the passage is in a great measure lost: not so in this. The questions *essentially* † are: What is here said to be done? By whom? Does the action rest with the agent? and if not, on whom or what does it fall. Are there any qualities spoken of? and to whom or what are they ascribed? Any possession, and to whom or to what is it attributed?

You cannot perhaps avoid using some histories which are far from being models of style; but your pupils ought never to be left in doubt as to the meaning of a sentence; here follows one in which they might have difficulty in discovering it. "Richard,

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* *To* understood—it cannot well be said that here transitive action is expressed and succeed *to* in this sense, is in accordance with Johnson: "succeed, v. n., to follow in order, and to come into the place of one who has died. If the father had only daughters, they *succeeded to* him equally."

† They are always thus understood by those who have at first been habituated to consider them thus; and who are not taught the grammatical name till they understand the nature of that which it designates.

surnamed Cœur de Lion, upon his coming to the throne was still inflamed with the desire of going upon the crusade; and at length the king having got a sufficient supply for his undertaking, having sold his superiority over the kingdom of Scotland, which had been acquired in the last reign, for a moderate sum; he set out for the holy land."—*Pinnock's Goldsmith's England.*

When a passage so very obscure as this does occur in any of their *reading* lessons, the best way is to alter the arrangement, and then let them compare the two and tell the error.

Richard surnamed Cœur de Lion, upon his coming to the throne, was still inflamed with the desire of going upon the crusade; and at length, having sold for a moderate sum, his superiority over the kingdom of Scotland, which had been acquired in the last reign, and having got a sufficient supply for his undertaking, he set out for the holy land.

## ANOMALIES OF LANGUAGE.

We come now to the anomalies of language, combinations of words, which, though incompatible with its principles and rules, its usage has sanctioned. Of these the most important are impersonal verbs. At the commencement of this study, your pupils are led to observe that whatever is said to be done, there must be some person or thing to do, and that a pronoun is the representative of a noun. But we look in vain for an antecedent noun to support the pronoun *it*, which is always their nominative. Their use seems to be that they express in two words occurrences or ideas, which would otherwise require several. Instead of saying "rain is falling," we say, "*it rains.*" Instead of "lightning is flashing and thunder is rolling," we say, "*it thunders* and *lightens.*" Instead of saying "the statements or the arguments we have heard, or the circumstances we have observed, lead to the conclusion that," we say, "it *seems* that—*it follows* that—or as *it seems.*

*It is*, or *it was*, may likewise be considered as impersonal, being used sometimes before two or more nouns,

sometimes before a noun in the plural. *It was* Helen and Jane that gathered the rose leaves. *It was** the fleets of England, not her fortifications, that protected her shores.

*Methinks—methought,*" are correct as far as the sanction of some of our best writers can make them so.

*This means*—an adjective pronoun in the singular, with a noun, which, at first view, seems plural, has been considered another. The signification of means is, however, singular, here†. When we speak of different expedients being employed, we say: by *these* means. Amends is sometimes used instead of compensation, but it has no plural.

" Argyle he has chosen a hundred of his men."

Here there is a superfluous nominative, the pronoun, which is only required to supply the place of the noun, appears beside it, seeming to claim the verb. This was frequently used in the ancient ballad, and has always been tolerated in modern imitations of it,‡ and in the comic or burlesque style. I *was told,* instead of, it was told to me, likewise pleads the authority of long usage, but if the same license must be extended to deny, promise, offer, &c., it is much to be regretted that from an ellipsis easy to trace, should have sprung so many false forms of speech. When several of these verbs follow close on one another, this form should be avoided.

The following sentence, which I have seen adduced as an example: "John was promised apples, then he

* In stating that *it was* must be thus construed in such passages it is not the intention of the writer to recommend its use. In familiar conversation it cannot well be dispensed with; but in composition it is seldom required.

† Mean is the middle between two extremes.

" He that holds fast the golden mean."

‡ Southey uses it.

was refused them, then he was offered them," might be better and as briefly expressed thus: Apples were first promised to John, then refused, then offered to him.

"I did send for certain sums of gold which you *denied* me."*

From such expressions as these, and disregard of the ellipsis, have come, *I was denied, I was promised,* &c., and some or all of them, though really *false* Syntax, are tolerated.†

Teachers will observe that this work contains fewer rules of Syntax than other grammars. Rules corresponding to Murray's 2d and 3d, and Lennie's 4th, 17th and 18th, are unnecessary here, owing to reasons which are stated in the 154th page. Indeed, they would rather perplex than instruct those who have studied the principles of language, for they substitute the effect for the cause—and the difference between supplying the ellipsis and construing by the conjunction, may be thus illustrated:

Suppose you have to go through a dark and winding passage; at the entrance one person says to you: "Feel on your right hand for a rail and go so many paces, then turn to the left you will find another, keep along by it so much farther, you will then have to ascend some steps—take care not to stumble." Another advances and offers you a lamp. If you carry the light, you have no need to grope your way. If your pupils supply the ellipsis, they will seek no aid from the conjunction.

* See Appendix.

† With respect to some doubtful phrases—*and* instead of *with*, as follows, &c.—as I cannot advance my own opinions without stating those of others, and wish to keep every thing that has the semblance of controversy out of the body of the work, I must refer to the Appendix.

For example: A singular and a plural nominative, separated by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the plural; as "neither the captain nor the sailors *were* saved." Lennie, 18th Rule.

My pupils would supply the ellipsis thus: "Neither was the captain saved nor were the sailors saved," and give each nominative its proper verb.

As to Murray's 18th and Lennie's 5th rule, they are at best unnecessary. Conjunctions may with strict propriety connect different tenses, provided that they harmonize with each other, nor is there any necessity for the nominative being always repeated in such cases, see pages 106 and 107. Such sentences as, "he and me might go," may be corrected by other rules. My pupils would correct the example thus: "me is the objective case of the pronoun and cannot stand as the nominative to a verb; it must be 'He and I.'" As to Murray's 6th, it is not from the *position* of the word, but from the *meaning* of the sentence, that we judge of the relative nominative. No rule respecting the article *a* or *an* being used only in the singular, is necessary for those who have learned its original signification; even setting this aside, where is the child who can read that would say, "an apples?"

Lest it should be supposed that in this work any useful rules have been omitted, I subjoin (from Murray and Lennie) copies of those relating to other points, on which I have inserted none.

MURRAY.

Rule 7. When the relative is preceded by two nominatives of different persons, the relative and verb may agree in person with either, according to the sense; as, "I am the man *who command* you," or "I am the *man who commands* you."

LENNIE.

Rule 16. When the relative is preceded by two antecedents of

different persons, it and the verb generally agree in person with the last; as, Thou art the *boy that* was *dux* yesterday.*

EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

I am the man who command you. Thou art he that driedst up the Red Sea before thy people.†

Rule 13. The past participle is used after the verbs *have* and *be;* as, I have written a letter. He was chosen.—*Lennie.*

Would not this rule, to prevent it from excluding the *present* participle, require another?

The *present* participle is used after the verbs *have* and *be;* as, I *have been writing* a letter. He *was choosing* a seal.

To say nothing of the time wasted in learning them, useless rules have a bad effect. They tend to bewilder.

Rule 13, and Observations from Murray. In the use of words and phrases, which, in point of time, relate to each other, a due regard to that relation ought to be observed.

"It is not easy to give particular rules, for the management of moods and tenses of verbs, with respect to one another, so that they may be proper and consistent. The best rule that can be given, is the very general one, 'to observe what the sense necessarily requires.'"

Those who have been all along accusomed to consider in the first place the sense or *meaning* in sentences correctly arranged, will, when they come to composition naturally think first of the meaning they wish to convey and arrange their sentences accordingly.

Teachers will likewise observe that there are few examples of false syntax, most of them occurring in the questions proposed to the children. These I have invariably found them able to correct without reference to any rule, for they had learned none. What purpose

* Sometimes the relative agrees with the former antecedent; as, I am verily a man *who* am a Jew. Acts xxii. 3.—*Lennie.*

† When we address the Divine Being, it is, in my opinion, more direct and solemn to make the relative agree with the second person. In the Scriptures this is generally done. See Neh. ix. 7. This sentence may, therefore, stand as it is.—*Ib.*

then does it serve to keep them toiling over incorrect forms of expression which they have never heard and would never employ? I may be told that all children do not speak correctly. They do not; there are very few whose language is faultless; but the incorrect expressions used by any of them are those belonging to particular localities, and are, when thus respectively considered comparatively few, though in the aggregate they swell to a great number. It is obviously better then, that faultless models should be exhibited to all, and that the individual teachers should bring general rules to bear on local errors, than that the grammarian should attempt * to trace every deviation that has been or that may be made from purity of diction, and the pupils be thus kept contemplating and correcting fancied or real errors into which they ran no risk of falling.

I know Mr. Lennie compares with seeming exultation, his "more than sixty pages of *bad* grammar with Murray's only seven," while at the same time he has but a third of that number of *good:* but to me it seems that it would be as rational for a student of painting to expect to acquire just ideas of proportion by spending a large portion of his time in correcting, by anatomical rules designs, exhibiting deformity, as for teachers to think of making correct writers and eloquent speakers by confining the attention of their pupils to the amendment of defective forms of language. They should first lead them to contemplate it in its beauty and perfection. It may be said we have correct and eloquent

* It can be but an attempt after all; knowledge of what is correct may be attained and communicated, but who can follow error through all its various forms? Nine tenths of Lennie's *improper* expressions are such as we in this country seldom hear, at the same time we have some peculiar to ourselves, which have found no place in his catalogue.

speakers, who have gone through Lennie's Syntax. True, and others who have toiled through Murray's Exercises—and writers and speakers equally correct who never studied either.

Certainly the idea of numerous examples of false Syntax did not originate with Mr. Lennie; but to me it seems he has more in proportion than any other writer on Grammar, while I have given so few, that I feel obliged to state my reasons for what some might think an omission.

Teachers who have seen children often bewildered in their grammar lessons, will scarcely think it possible that they can supply the ellipsis without difficulty, even in simple sentences. Try them. You know not how much something in those very lessons may have been to blame for their bewilderment; but make the first trial with those who have not previously studied grammar. Children who had, would not have given such answers as those on pages 153 and 154.

And now, is there any teacher who, after having perused the preceding pages, will feel disposed to say—"What advantages does this mode of instruction proffer in return for the energy and vigilance requisite to carry it properly on?

The rapid improvement of your pupils—the pleasure they feel in learning—and the satisfaction which, especially after the first few lessons are over, you will feel in directing their course—and even while they are repeating, and you listening to, the lesson they have committed to memory—as the conjugation of verbs—that exercise, from their clear ideas of the reasons for the variations must be different—very different both to them and to you.

Compared to that which has been styled the unintel-

lectual system, it is as if, instead of leading them on by a hard-beaten road, walled in so that you could only get occasional glimpses, through loop holes, of the surrounding scenery, you should step at once into the open country, and travel on, over meadows covered with verdure and besprinkled with flowers. You do—for the whole field of English Literature is open before you. Instead of unconnected and uninteresting sentences from a book of Exercises, to be gone over twice, perhaps three times, you may turn to any page, the composition of any good English author—you may lead them from the verse of Miss Taylor and the flowing prose of Mrs. Barbauld to the narrative of Miss Edgeworth—to the allegories of Addison or of Johnson—to the poetry of Scott, of Mrs. Hemans, or of Campbell—nothing need be excepted but that which is above their comprehension or unsuited to their years; and you never need to retrace your steps; never require to return to the same passage.

If then this mode of teaching requires vigilance and energy, there is in it much to rouse and cherish both, much to excite, to interest, and to delight teacher as well as pupil.

THE END.

# APPENDIX.

# APPENDIX.

**First, in this kind, the first and most palpable abuse is the using of words without clear and distinct ideas; or, which is worse, signs without any thing signified.—*Locke on the abuse of words.***

THE variety of opinions entertained respecting some points of construction must be apparent to every one whose attention has been particularly directed to English Grammar.

In the list of English Grammarians stand the names of several whose minds were peculiarly fitted for laborious research, and patient investigation. Some of them, too, correct and elegant writers, yet we have Johnson, Lowth and Priestly, each holding a different opinion respecting the extent of the subjunctive mood, Murray and his successors deviating from Johnson's arrangement of *can* and *could*. We have Dr. Crombie opposed to Dr. Campbell and Mr. Murray respecting the construction of *as follows*; besides writers of less note offering their various suggestions on these and other points in dispute; and we have Mr. Lennie, in one page proclaiming *which* to be the latter half of *as*, and in another, comparing notes and contrasting rules with Murray, and exulting in the excellence of his own.

Nothing was further from the original intention of the author of this work than to venture amid this formidable array of disputants. Obvious reasons may suggest themselves to the reader for her feeling inclined to shun it; and, setting these aside, no path in literature is less inviting than discussions respecting words. But the principle of her method of teaching made it absolutely necessary that every definition should be simple, clear, and consistent with the import of the examples by which it was introduced, and with the general usage of the language; and this, as it was her sole reason, is her only plea for examining what seemed contradictory, and rejecting what appeared incorrect.

Those who have perused the preceding pages may have observed that the work was originally the production, not of the closet, but of the school-room. Never in advance of my pupils, but leading them along with me, looking occasionally at Murray, if I may be permitted to use a metaphor, as a traveller might at a pocket map of the country through which he was passing, and surveying from time to time the ground which we were next to traverse; when we arrived at the confines of the subjunctive mode, I found that the map no longer corresponded with the face of the country, and that we could no farther proceed according to the directions it contained.

How were children to whom everything relative to language had been exhibited in a simple and natural manner, and who had been habituated to consider first, the meaning of the sentence, and to trace from that the grammatical arrangement of its parts, —to consider first, to which of the natural divisions of time past, present or future, the action or event belonged, and then to find the appropriate subdivision of tense,—to be taught that, "If he were to come we would ride out together to-morrow;" an expression so evidently denoting future time belonged to a past tense?*

On the other hand, how could an individual think of setting

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* Mr. Murray's remark, quoted below, is not sufficient to hide the incongruity exhibited in the example, for if the tense be only occasionally used when speaking of the future, it is the province of the grammarian to state the exceptions, or to mention on what circumstances they generally occur, and if indiscriminately used for the past and future, it should be introduced like the verb *ought*, as having its signification with regard to time determined by the connection in which it is placed:—

"It is to be observed, that in the subjunctive mood, the event being spoken of under a condition or supposition, or in the form of a wish, and therefore, as doubtful and contingent, the verb itself in the present, and the auxiliary, both of the present and past imperfect tenses, often carry with them somewhat of a fuller sense: as, 'If he come to-morrow, I may speak to him;' 'If he should, or would come to-morrow, I might, would, could, or should speak to him.' Observe also that the auxiliaries *should*, *would*, and *were*, in the imperfect tenses, are used to express the present and future as well as the past: as, 'It is my desire that he should, or would, come now, or to-morrow;' as well as, 'It was my desire, that he should or would come yesterday.' 'If I were hungry, I would eat.' So that, in this mood, the precise time of the verb is very much determined, by the nature and drift of the sentence."

aside the authority of a writer whose compilations had been applauded by so many British Critics,* and of which, one of them, touching on the very matter in question, had said: "The difficult subject of the tenses is clearly explained: and with less encumbrance of technical phraseology than in most other grammars?"

But no authority can establish contradictory positions, and the more I considered all Mr. Murray had written on the subject, the stronger became my conviction that in *part* of it he must have erred. The natural course for any one to take in such circumstances was to consult those who, from their education or profession, might be supposed qualified to judge. This I accordingly did. Some took a lively interest in the subject, proffered and gave all the assistance circumstances would permit: others took very little; but not one of the classical scholars or practical teachers to whom I applied ever said, "I think we may reconcile what to you seems contradictory," or "thus and thus I understand Murray, and to me his meaning seems clear."

Subjoined are extracts from Murray, comprising the most important of those passages which seem to me contradictory. They relate to the subjunctive mode and the imperfect tense of the indicative. There are also some from Lennie, that the reader may be enabled to judge whether he has thrown any additional light on the subject. The extracts are copious that they may have all the advantages of the context, but the words particularly alluded to are marked in Italics:—

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*"MURRAY'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR.—This is the most complete Grammar of our language. My opinion is confirmed by that of the public, as this work now appears in the fourteenth edition."—*Kitt's Elements of General Knowledge. Sixth edition.*

"Murray's Grammar, together with his English Exercises and Key, have nearly superseded every thing else of the kind, by concentrating the remarks of the best authors on the subject. They are pieces of inestimable utility."—*Evans' Essay on the Education of Youth.*

"The best English Grammar now extant, is that written by Mr. Lindley Murray: who, by this publication, and by several others connected with it, and designed as auxiliaries to its principal purpose, has become entitled to the gratitude of every friend to English literature, and to true virtue."—*Dr. Miller's Retrospect of the Eighteenth Century.*

Much of the confusion and perplexity, which we meet with in the writings of some English grammarians, on the subject of verbs, moods, and conjugations, has arisen from the misapplication of names. We are apt to think that the old names must always be attached to the identical forms and things to which they were anciently attached. But if we rectify this mistake, and *properly adjust* the names to the *peculiar* forms and *nature* of the things in our own language, we shall be clear and consistent in our ideas, and, consequently, better able to represent them intelligibly to those whom we wish to inform. —*Murray*, page 109.

The terms which we have adopted, to designate the three past tenses, may not be exactly significant of their *nature* and *distinction*. But as they are used by grammarians in general, and have an established authority; and, especially, as the meaning attached to each of them, and their different significations, have been carefully explained, we presume that no solid objection can be made to the use of terms so generally approved, and so explicitly defined.—*Murray*, page 87.

The different tenses also represent an action as *complete* or *perfect*, or as *incomplete* or *imperfect*. In the phrases, "I am writing," "I was writing," "I shall be writing," imperfect, unfinished actions are signified. But the following examples, "I *wrote*," "I have written," "I had written," "I shall have written," all denote *complete*, *perfect action*.

From the preceding representation of the different tenses, it appears, that each of them has its *distinct* and *peculiar* province.—*Ibid.* page 84.

The imperfect tense represents the action or event, *either* as *past* and *finished*, or as remaining *unfinished* at a certain time past: as, "I loved her for her modesty and virtue." "They were travelling post when he met them."—*Ibid.* page 81.

Why then is this form, "I *wrote*," denoting *complete*, *perfect action*; this *tense* which ought to have its own *distinct* and *peculiar* province, confounded with, and placed under the denomination of the imperfect in the definition of that tense, and substituted for it in the conjugation of the verb?

That the potential mood should be separated from the subjunctive, is evident, from the intricacy and confusion which are produced by their being blended together, and from the

We shall conclude these detached observations, with one remark which may be useful to the young scholar, namely, that as the indicative mood is converted into the subjunctive, by

distinct nature of the two moods; the former of which may be expressed without any condition, supposition, &c., as will appear from the following instances: "They *might* have done better;" "We *may* always act uprightly; "He was generous, and *would* not take revenge;" "We *should* resist the allurements of vice;" "I *could* formerly indulge myself in things, of which I *cannot* now think but with pain."—*Murray*, page 78.

the expression of a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c., being superadded to it; so the potential mood may in like manner be turned into the subjunctive, as will be seen in the following examples: "If I could deceive him, I should abhor it;" "Though he should increase in wealth, he would not be charitable;" "Even in prosperity he would gain no esteem, unless he should conduct himself better."—*Murray*, page 92.

After perusing what has been advanced on this subject, it will be natural for the student to inquire, what is the extent of the subjunctive mood. Some grammarians think it only extends to what is termed the present tense of verbs generally, under the circumstances of contingency and futurity; and to the imperfect tense of the verb to be, when it denotes contingency, &c.; because in these tenses only the form of the verb admits of variation; and they suppose that it is variation which constitutes the distinction of moods. It is the opinion of other grammarians (in which opinion we concur,) that besides the two tenses just mentioned, all verbs in the three past, and the two future tenses, are in the subjunctive mood, when they denote contingency or uncertainty, though they have not any change of termination, and that when contingency is not signified, the verb, through all these *five tenses*, belongs to the indicative mood, whatever conjunction may attend it. They think that the definition and nature of the subjunctive mood have no reference to change of termination, but that they refer merely to the manner of the being, action, or passion, signified by the verb; and that the subjunctive mood may as properly exist without a variation of the verb, as the infinitive mood, which has no terminations different from those of the indicative.—*Ibid.* (202.)

*If*, with *but* following it, when futurity is denoted, requires the subjunctive mood: as, "if he *do but* touch the hills, they shall smoke." "If he *be* but discreet, he will succeed." But the indicative ought to be used on this occasion when future time is not *signified*: as, "If in this expression he *does but* jest, no offence should be taken." "If she *is but* sincere, I am happy." The same distinction applies to the following forms of expression: "If he *do* submit, it will be from necessity." "Though he *does* submit, he is not convinced." "If thou *do* not reward this service, he will be discouraged." "If thou *dost* heartily forgive him, endeavour to forget the offence."—*Ibid.* page 197.

## DEFINITIONS OF THE INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE MOODS.

MURRAY.

The indicative mood simply indicates or declares a thing, or it asks a question.

The subjunctive mode represents a thing under a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c., and is preceded by a conjunction expressed or understood, and attended by another verb ; as, I will respect him *though* he chide me.

LENNIE.

The indicative mood simply declares a thing* or it asks a question.

The subjunctive mode represents a thing under a condition, supposition, motive, wish, &c., and is preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, and followed by another verb ; as, If thy presence go not with us, carry us not up.

## RULES RESPECTING THE MOODS.

Some conjunctions require the indicative, some the subjunctive mood after them. It is a general rule, that when something contingent or doubtful is implied, the subjunctive ought to be used : as, *If* I were to write, he would not regard it, &c. Conjunctions that are of a positive and absolute nature require the indicative mood : as, He is healthy because he is temperate.

Conjunctions that imply contingency and futurity, require the subjunctive mood : as, *If* he be alone, give him the letter. When *contingency* and *futurity* are *not* implied, the indicative ought to be used : as, *If* he speaks as he thinks, he may be trusted.

*If*, with *but* following it, when futurity is denoted requires the subjunctive mood ; when future time is not expressed, the indicative ought to be used.

*Note.*—From Lennie, comparing the above rules—It is easy to explain *contingency* and *futurity*, but what is a *positive* and *absolute* conjunction ?"

## MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS.

It is improper to vary the second person singular in the *past* subjunctive (except the verb *to be* ;) thus, if thou *came* not in time, &c. If thou *did* not submit, &c., *should be*, If thou *comest* not in time ; if thou *didst* not submit.

The following phrases, selected from the Scriptures, are strictly grammatical : *If* thou *knowest* the gift. *If* thou *didst* receive it. *If* thou *hadst* known. *If* thou *wilt* save Israel. *Though* he *hath** escaped the sea. *That* thou *mayest* be feared. We also properly say. *If* thou *mayst*, *mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst* or *shouldst* love.—*Lennie.*

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* No doubt this man is a murderer, whom, though he hath escaped the sea, yet vengeance suffereth not to live. Acts xxvii. c. 4.

It may be easy to explain contingency and futurity; but perhaps Mr. Lennie will not find it quite so easy to name *conjunctions* that *imply contingency* and *futurity*. The whole tenor of his examples goes to shew that the conjunction has no influence on the mode. "If he *be*, if he *speaks*;" and, with the exception of *lest*, every conjunction mentioned in his list can be used with the indicative mood as well as with the subjunctive.

Conjunctions which (according to Murray's definition,) are of "a *positive* and *absolute* nature," which "require the indicative mode," and cannot be used with the subjunctive, are, *because*, *therefore*, *since* and *as*, but these can all be used with the potential.

Lennie, in his rule explicitly and positively limits the subjunctive to contingency and futurity; yet in his observations he speaks of the *past* subjunctive, and gives, as examples of it, sentences which are really indicative, and which, according to his own rule, should be considered so. If thou *didst* not submit. If thou *didst* receive it. Though he *hath* escaped.

Murray's more diffidently, or more cautiously, expressed rule, rather seems to imply than to assert; but it does imply a similar limitation of the mode, unless its sole import be, that "conjunctions of a positive and absolute nature require the indicative." The observation "but the indicative ought to be used on this occasion, when futurity is not signified," seems to favor the former conclusion, yet he too speaks of the "three *past* tenses" of the subjunctive mood.

Murray repeatedly gives "contingency and uncertainty" as distinguishing characteristics of the subjunctive, yet never says whether by uncertainty he means real uncertainty attached to the action itself, or the mere uncertainty of the speaker concerning it. Finally, both grammarians assign to the subjunctive the use of five out of their six tenses of the indicative, together with all the forms of the potential.

The remaining tenses or forms of the subjunctive are, in general similar to the correspondent tenses of the indicative mood, with the addition, &c.—*Murray.*

SUBJUNCTIVE: Present, if I love, &c. The remaining tenses of the subjunctive mood are exactly similar to the corresponding tenses of the indicative, with the addition of a conjunction, &c. But some say that the future perfect, when used with a conjunction, has *shall* in all the persons.—*Lennie.*

Enough has been quoted to show that there is contradiction in both ; and now instead of wandering in the maze of controversy, let us turn to the works of approved English writers, and seek the subjunctive there.

It will not be disputed that "Mood or mode is a particular form of the verb," a particular manner of representing the being, action, or passion. Two modes, then, the same in form and signification, cannot exist. If we have a subjunctive mood it must be different from every other.

The imperative commands or entreats. The potential asserts the possibility of an action or event, or the will or power of an agent. The indicative affirms or declares. Its signification is generally, though not always, affirmative ; it interrogates, (as does also the potential,) and it sometimes expresses a wish or states a condition.* Its most obvious feature is the certain and positive character of its terms, in which it is rivalled only by the imperative.

The subjunctive is a mood which, without affirming, describes an action or event, representing it as doubtful or uncertain.† It neither affirms the action, like the indicative, nor the possibility of it, like the potential, nor does it, like the imperative, command. or entreat.

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*"If thou wilt redeem it, redeem it; but if thou wilt not redeem it, then tell me, that I may know ; for there is none to redeem it besides thee ; and I am after thee." And he said, "I will redeem it."—*Ruth* iv. 4.

† There are two sorts of uncertainty, the one real uncertainty attaching to the action or event itself ; which, in that case, must be in the future, and is termed contingent, the other, merely the uncertainty of the speaker, who, ignorant or doubtful himself, speaks of the event, although past, as unascertained. An action, however, though unascertained, may be spoken of in a positive manner, and a supposition respecting it may be put in the same terms that a question would. Speak'st thou false ?

"If thou speak'st false,
Upon the next tree shalt thou hang alive,
Till famine cling thee"***

"If that which he avouches, does appear,
There is nor flying hence nor tarrying here."

Each alternative is here spoken of in turn and with its consequence annexed to it, in the indicative.

The one, the only simple form we have, which is undoubtedly and exclusively subjunctive, is WERE. I *were*, &c. It cannot be used in affirmation, we cannot say I *were here*, nor he *were* there. *Wert*, having in the infancy of the language, been confounded with *wast*, and used in affirmation, has lost its distinctive character, and the plural of this tense and of the indicative imperfect are literally the same : still it is a complete tense, and each of its persons, recognizable by their standing in similar connexions to those which *he were* or *I were* could fill, are undoubtedly subjunctive.

Oh that I *were* as in months past,
As in the days when God preserved me.

*Job* xxix. 2.

*Were* I Brutus and Brutus Antony.

Oh that I *were* a Roman, for I cannot, being a Volsci, be that which I am.

*Shakespeare.*

Oh! that the Saracen *were* in St. Marks,
Thus would I do him homage!

No other word or form of words in our language can give the meaning of *were* in any of these examples. Oh that I *could be*, "Oh that I *might be*," come near it in the first, but in *were* there is a completeness which they have not. Their inability to fill its place is still more apparent in the fourth. "Oh that the

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*There is an exception to this when "'Twere" is used in the sense of *it would be*. This occurs frequently in the compositions of some ancient, and sometimes in those of modern authors, when imitating the ancient style.

"But trust me Percy, pity *'twere*
And great offence to kill,
Any of these our harmless men,
For they have done no ill."

*Chevy Chase.*

"There *were* an Anthony would set a tongue
In every wound of Cæsar." *Shakespeare.*

A foul disgrace *were* it to all right worthy professors of chivalry if such a blot on knighthood should pass unchastised.—*Speech of Don Beliono.* *Tatler.*

*'Twere* dangerous. *Byron's Manfred.*

fourth, "Oh! that the Saracen might be," &c. *Were* images forth the event in the instant of its accomplishment. In the second. "Could I become Brutus, and Brutus become Anthony," falls far short of the original form, but no other expression can shadow forth the meaning.

We have no example of the subjunctive *were* being used in the past, nor can we have any. We cannot say, "If I *were* here when they arrived, I would have introduced them to your uncle." Nor, "If he *were* here last spring he would have got the situation." It seems incompatible with any expression denoting time decidedly past. It can extend, while touching on the *future*, through the *present* to the *past*, embracing the whole period of the existence of an individual or of a nation. "If he *were* yonr father you might reasonably expect him to sacrifice something to promote your interest; but as he is only your uncle, and has a family of his own," &c. "If Mexico *were* a powerful nation." "If the French *were* a cool and calculating people." But remove from the first example, the present and future, by supposing the life of the individual terminated, and *were* can no longer be used; but must give place to *had been*. "If he *had been* your father," &c. Add to the second, "no such insult would then have been offered to her flag," and the same change must take place; "If Mexico *had been*, &c.

To rank amongst past tenses one which cannot be coupled with any imaginable expression denoting the past, must certainly be a strange misapplication of terms. Its signification is either present or future, and it either supposes or desires a complete change of existence, of circumstances, or of disposition, that change to be instantly accomplished. "O that his heart *were* tender," not that it *were* in the process of becoming tender, but that it had hitherto been and were so now; or that it could instantly become so. "Oh! that my head *were* waters and mine eyes a fountain of tears." Let any one who may think that too much time is given to the consideration of this tense, reflect on its importance. Every part of the verb *to Be* ought to be clearly exhibited, because on it depends the formation of the passive. And *were* gives to the passive voice, a tense which we have not in the active, and which we attempt to supply by *were*, with the present of the infinitive. "If I *were* to go." "If I *were* to wish for a proper person to preside over the public councils."—*Addison.*

"Should" does not, perhaps, give the exact meaning of these expressions. "If I *should* go," "If we *should* win," seem to place the event at a greater distance, or represent it as more doubtful.

*Were*, as an auxilliary, coupled with the active participle, expresses action going on, and unfinished, but not *past*.

INDICATIVE.—He was reading when I went to show him the picture. *Was* he *reading*? If he *was reading* you should not have interrupted him. This represents action unfinished at a past time. "If you were reading I would not interrupt you. If I were reading I would not like to be interrupted." Here action going on and unfinished is spoken of, not as past and certain, but as future and contingent; this is the imperfect subjunctive. With the past or passive participle, *were* represents a future event not in the process, but at the time of its accomplishment. "If the sun himself *were* extinguished, and all the host of planetary worlds which move about him were annihiliated, they would not be missed by an eye that could take in the whole compass of nature."—*Addison.*

*Be—If I be*, &c., should have preceded *were*, but there is no proof of its having been originally a simple subjunctive tense. If ever it was so, it has, like *wert*, at a very early period been confounded with the indicative and used in affirmation,* and it is so still at times in poetry—it also very frequently occurs in cases where *if* is used, though no doubt exists.

"Give this letter to Frederick to carry to town." "He is this moment gone out." "Well, if he *be* gone out, you must carry it."

In some passages of Milton and Shakspeare the second person singular has its usual termination *st*.

"If thou *beest* he, but oh how fallen! how changed!"

"If thou *be'st* Death I'll give thee Englands's treasure;"

and in the dialect of the peasantry in some counties of England the termination which generally marks the third is retained, "he *bes*."

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* "Which laws ben right good under good princes.—*Fortescue on the difference between a limited and an absolute Monarchy.*"

"Lo! in this pond be fish and frogges both,
Cast in your nette: but be you liefe or lothe.
Hold you content as fortune list assygne,
For it is your own fishing and not myne."

Address of Edward IV., in his last illness, to the relatives of his children:—"That we be all men, that we be christen men;

This however has long been regarded as obsolete, and abandoned by all good writers. Though *I be* &c., cannot be proved to have been originally a simple subjunctive tense, neither can it be proved elliptical—for *be'st* is repeatedly used by Shakspeare where the tense is evidently subjunctive.

"Tyrant, show thy face,
If thou *be'st* slain, and with no stroke of mine,
My wife and children's ghosts will haunt me still,
By this great clatter, one of greatest note seems bruised,
Let me find him, Fortune—and more I beg not."

We must then consider this tense merely as it now is—having the form of the Infinitive through all the persons, without inflection, for no writer of the present day uses *be'st* as in the passage above quoted.

"*Should'st* thou *be* slain, and by no stroke of mine," would be the expression now. As the present of the Subjunctive of *Be* does not differ from that of other verbs—the next consideration is whether in other verbs we have any tense correspondent to *were*. *Have* is, excepting *Be*, the most important auxiliary in our language. Let us consider it first in its primitive sense, as a principal. I *have*, thou *hast*, is the present of the Indicative. With a conjunction prefixed, If thou *have*, and If I *have*, &c. standing in the connection in which, If Thou *have*, may stand, is the present subjunctive. I *had* is the Indicative past. "I *had* him here." This signifies possession, though no period of time is specified we know that the past is spoken of, and, unless some expression modifying the meaning, follows, we suppose that it is exclusively past, and the person or animal no longer in the possession of the speaker.

"Oh! that I *had* him,
With six Amfidiuses, or more, his tribe
To use my lawful sword."—*Shakspeare.*

Here *had* has a very different meaning; it does not express *possession*, but the *desire* of it; nor *past* time, but *present* or *future*, the future verging on the passing moment; the expression that comes nearest its meaning is could have. Oh! that I *could have*

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this shall I leave for preachers to tel you, (and yet I wote nere whether any preacher's words ought more to move you than his who is by and by going to the place they all preach of.")—*Sir Thomas More.*

him. The very same shade of difference that exists between *were* and *could be* is discernable between *had* and *could have*.

"I *had* it, but I gave it away."
"If I *had* it I would give it to you."

Here we have an example of two words literally the same, both component parts of the same verb, each in its own peculiar connection giving a different idea of possession, which is the import of the verb, the one, as certain and past, the other, as desired and future.

*Had* in the first person, then forms a second subjunctive tense of the verb *to have*.

The question is whether it is or is not inflected, and as it is only in the second person it can be, so it is only by that we can ascertain.

"Thou *had'st* deep cause, then who could chide thy grieving."

This is the indicative with its usual termination *st*.

"O that thou *had'st* as deep a cause of grief,
Then mighty woe might teach thee sympathy!"

The same difference in meaning that there was in the former examples, between *had* in the one connection, and in the other, is obvious between *hadst* in the first connection and in the second. The one is *past* and *certain*; the other *future* and *uncertain*. To substitute for *hadst*. "O, that thou *had* as deep a cause of grief," &c., would be neither more nor less, than turning good English into bad, and if this latter form of the verb has ever been generally adopted by grammarians,* it has received the sanction of very few authors.

We will next consider *have* as an auxiliary.

I *have* given it to him, and he has it. If I *have* given it to him he has it.

Here, though the meaning of the sentence is changed from assertion to supposition, the meaning of the verb considered individually remains the same: neither can it be altered by associating with it interjections or conjunctions.

"O, that I have given it to him." If any meaning can be attri-

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"* In conformity to the general practice of grammarians."
*Murray.*

This is omitted in some late editions.

buted to this sentence, it can only be by supposing that O is an expression of regret equivalent to, "Alas! that I have given it!" for *have given* retains its past and affirmative sense, and cannot be made to express a wish for the future.

This is likewise the case with *had*.

O, that I *had* given it, is past; and though the meaning of the sentence is changed, that of the verb is no more changed than it is in denial. I had not given it to him.

It is sufficiently obvious that in languages where the verb is regularly inflected, difference in termination is at once a consequence and a proof of difference in meaning. In a language that has few inflections, difference in meaning may be proved to exist even where there is no correspondent modification of termination. This has been exemplified with regard to *had*. To say that the conjunction or the interjection changes the meaning of *had* from that which it has in the indicative, is incorrect. The idea of the speaker is different; he uses different words to express it; *had*, in the sense it has in that connection, is one of these, the conjunction is another; the verb, though *literally* the same, is *essentially* different, because expressing in a different *manner*, the *action*, *possession* or *event*, and it can, when thus used, with propriety, be said to belong to a different mode; but will any one argue from this that a word or combination of words, such as that of the auxiliary and verb, undergoing no change either in form or signification, but retaining in every connection one sole meaning, can belong to two different modes? The meaning of the *sentence* may be changed, while that of the *verb*, considered individually, remains unaltered.

He *has read* his father's letter.
*Has* he *read* his father's letter?
He *has* not *read* his father's letter.
If he *has read* his father's letter.
"Why, yet he *doth deny* his prisoners."
*Doth* he *deny* his prisoners?
He *doth* not *deny* his prisoners.
If he *doth deny* his prisoners.

In all these examples, in assertion, in interrogation, in denial, and in supposition, the verb retains the sense and force of the indicative.

We have then two tenses of the subjunctive. If I *read*, or, *should read*. If I *were reading*; both expressing either *present*,

as we generally understand it, or *future* time, and the question occurs: do we never use the subjunctive when speaking of *past* time.

The past action being no longer really uncertain, the speaker may with as much propriety use the indicative in supposition* as in interrogation respecting it, he may as correctly say: "If thou hast done it," as "hast thou done it," and thus we generally do speak. This mode of expression seems to suit the genius of the language, forcible, but at times abrupt.

We do, however, use a subjunctive form to express a momentary supposition of something improbable having taken place: "Even if he *shoul have* gained their applause, what advantage would it have been to him."

"Even if thou *shouldst have won* the gem,
'Twas not for thee to wear."

And we use the same form when speaking of a past and mysterious event, and doubting the truth of the account given of it.

"It seems strange that he *should have ordered* arms to be given to men who had so recently evinced a disposition to mutiny."

This same form likewise serves to express a completive future. "Though they *should have left* the house before we get there, we can soon overtake them."

Instances of *were* with the infinitive have already been given, and, on a review of the whole, the subjunctive seems, except in the case of *had*, to be formed by combinations of *were* and *should* with the principal verb alone, or with it and an auxiliary.

Murray has touched on the probability of the subjunctive having been originally formed by the aid of an auxiliary. Let us see if there be any evidence of this—we shall find that the proofs, though partly of a presumptive nature, are such as cannot be easily set aside.

1*st.* In every regular, and even in all irregular verbs, with the

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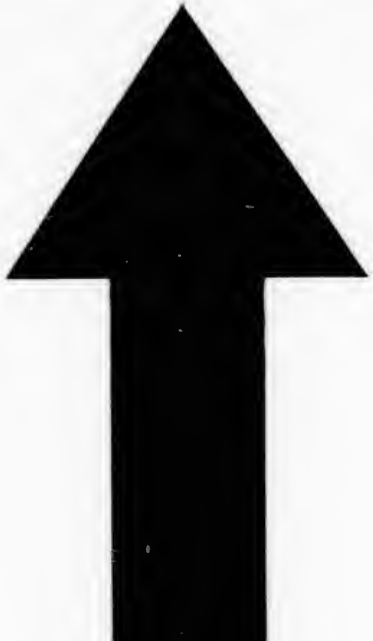
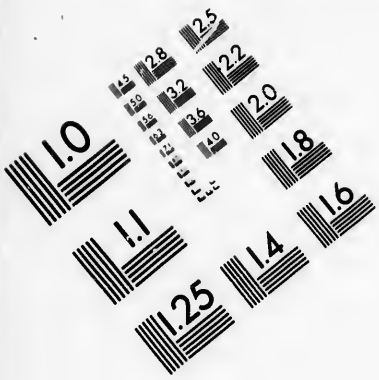
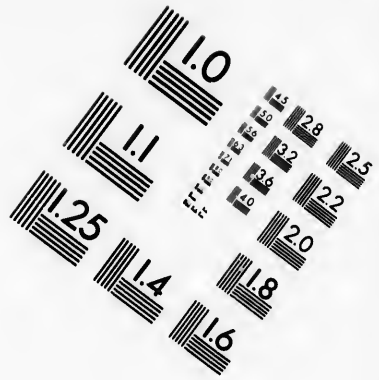
* A motive or an inference is sometimes introduced by a supposition, while at the same time there is not the slightest doubt of the truth, which instead of asserting it implies.

If ye then, being evil, know how to give good gifts to your children how much more shall your heavenly father give the Holy Spirit to them that ask him. Luke xi. 13.

If ye then be risen with Christ, seek those things which are above. 1 Collossian iii. 1. Here the verbs *know* and *be risen* are both in the indicative.



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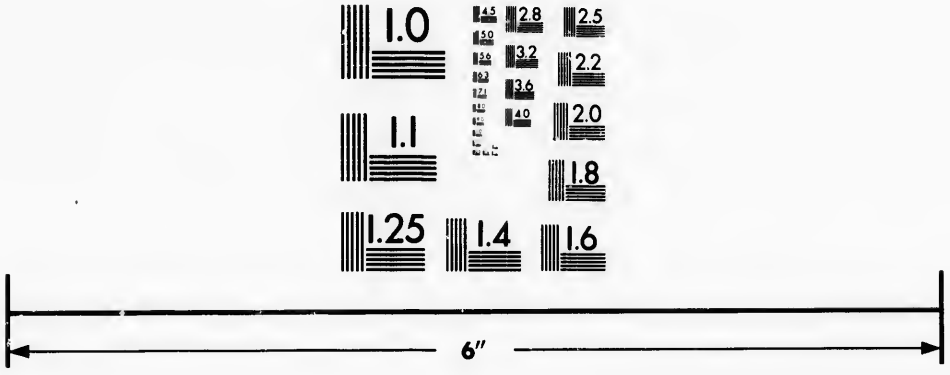


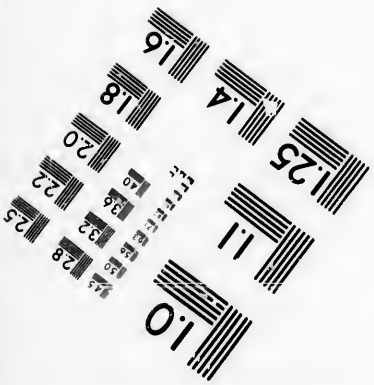


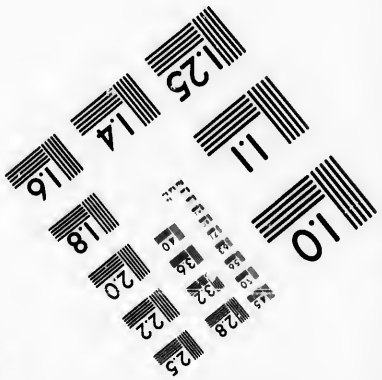


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exception of *must*, which ends in *st*, and never varies, and the auxiliary *wilt* and *wert*, which have only the final *t*, without the *s*—the seccond person singular is always inflected, and has its own peculiar termination *st*, except in the present subjunctive. Why has it not that there? It is incorrect to speak of the subjunctive *termination*. A total want of inflection, proof of its infinitive origin, distinguishes that tense of the subjunctive. Admit that it is formed by an auxiliary and the infinitive, this inconsistency vanishes, for it is on the auxiliary that the inflection falls.

2*d*. The Subjunctive, formed by *should*, with the infinitive of the principal verb, makes its appearance at an early period, when the Syntax of the language seems in a measure fixed, though the Orthography is very different from ours, and is visibly wanting in uniformity. "If the lordes of her kindred *shold* assemble in "the kinge's name, much people, they should give the lordes, "atwixte whom and them, hadde bene sometimme debate, to fear "and suspecte lest they *shoulde* gather thys people, not for the "king's savegarde, whom no man impugned, but for theyr destruc-"tion."—*Sir Thomas More*.

3*d*. This is not a form which was once used but is now obsolete.

In the compositions both of ancient and modern English authors, when this tense of the subjunctive occurs, iis auxiliary *should* seems to be inserted or omitted just as the flow of the writer's periods, or the measure of his verse demand.

"And turned away lest anger of his smarte,
*Should cause* revenger hand deale baleful blows."

"If by misfortune a right wise man *offende*,"
"He gladly suffereth a wise correction."
*Barclay*.

"If it *assume* my noble father's person,
I'll speak to it though hell itself *should gape*,
And *bid* me hold my peace."

If on the tenth day following,
Thy hated trunk *be* found in our dominions."

It is impossible that I *should die*,
By such a lowly vassal as thyself."

Though you *untie* the winds and *let* them fight,*
Against the churches though the yesty waves,
*Confound* and *swallow* navigation up."

They say in case of your most royal person,
That if your highness *should intend* to sleep,
And *charge* that no man *should disturb* your rest."

*Shakspeare.*

*Should* we set our hearts only upon these things, and be able to taste no pleasure but what is sensual, we must be extremely miserable when we come into the other world.—*Tillotson.*

"If an academy *should be* established for the cultivation of our style."—*Johnson.*

"And I do at the same time give this public notice to all madmen about this great city, that they may return to their senses with all imaginable expedition, lest, if they *should come* into my hands, &c."

"It is humbly proposed that a proper receptacle or habitation *be* forthwith *erected* for all such persons as upon due trial and examination shall appear to be out of their wits."—*Addison.*

"Just is your vengeance, my good Lord,
'Tis meet and right our daughter *die.*
But trust the ruthless deed to me,
I have a phial potent, good;
Unmeet that all the Scots *should see,*
A daughter's corpse embalm'd in blood!
Unmeet her gallant kinsmen *know*
The guilt of one so fair and young;
No cup should to her memory flow,
No requiem o'er her grave be sung. *Hogg.*

Thou who art bearing my buckler and bow,
*Should* the soldiers of Saul *look* away from the foe.

*Byron.*

But as *should* has been hitherto reckoned among the forms of the potential, before removing it we must examine that mode. A mode unrivalled, if we consider the number of significations belonging to its auxiliaries, and the variety of connections in which they may stand.

We have *may*, which, according to Bacon, is of two kinds. "What the king *may* do as just," (what equity and the laws of the realm permit.) "And what he *may* do as possible." Of which

* When several subjunctives follow in close succession ellipsis is necessary to prevent the too frequent iteration of the same word.

one kind, *may* signifying *permission* or *liberty*, has but three tenses, while *may*, *signifying possibility*, has four.

We have *can*, denoting both power and skill to execute. We have *should*, the signification of which Johnson acknowledges "is difficult to fix," denoting in some connexions *obligation*, in * others *contingency*, the characteristic of the subjunctive—*would*, expressing sometimes will or intention, sometimes assisting to express in a qualified manner a future action or event. And to these Mr. Lennie insists upon adding *must*.†

Thus to translate this *mode*, the aid of five different independent verbs would be required in one language, and of four in the other. Crowding together, under the name of a *mode*, forms and verbs so different and so easily distinguishable, cannot facilitate the study of language; and it is very desirable that an arrangement, better deserving the name than this does, should be made.

Let *may*, signifying *permission*, be separated from *may*, signifying

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* "I should go; it is my duty and business to go.
If I should go. If it happens that I go."
*Johnson.*

† "*Must*, although it belongs as properly to the present and perfect potential as may or can, has been omitted for want of room, but after the pupil is *expert* in going over the tenses of the verbs, as they are, he may be taught to omit all the auxiliaries but one, and go over the verb thus : I may love, and then with must: I must love.—*Lennie's Grammar.*"

The same writer when observing that these are in reality separate verbs, joined to the infinitive or participle, and that parsing them thus would be a simpler way, supposes they may have been put in their present order "in compliment to the Greek and Latin." This is a compliment which these languages hardly know how to acknowledge. Our potential would, as a mode, make almost as strange a figure in Latin as in French.

I might swim—Je serais libre de nager. Que je nageasse. Je pourrais nager.
I could swim—Je saurais nager. Je pourrais nager.
I would swim—Je nagerais. Je voudrais nager.
I should swim—Je dois nager. Que je nageasse.

I might swim—Mihi liceret natare, Natarem.
I could swim—Natare scirem, Natare possem, Natandi peritus essem.
I would swim—Natarem, Natare vellem.
I should swim—Natarem, Debeo natare.

*possibility*, and permit the first to retain its place as an independent verb.

"I *may* go, for my father has given me permission."
I *might* have let alone th'insulting hand of Douglas over you."

The preceding are examples of the first, and the following of the second. Is it possible they could have gone out without our knowing it? They *might* have done so when we were by the river bank last night.

The storm *may* cease in time for us to go.

In like manner let *should*, in the sense of *ought to*, be considered independent.

Examples: I *should*, or *ought to*, take the same care of her's as of my own. I *should*, or *ought to*, have paid more attention to the advice of my friend. I *should*, or *ought to*, be there by ten o'clock tomorrow.

Contingency: "If Jupiter *should* from yon cloud speak divine things, and say, 'Tis true." If they *should* grieve.

*May*, signifying permission, has three tenses. *May*, signifying possibility, has four.

I *may* go. I *might* have gone. I *might* go.

*Should*, expressing obligation, is seldom used with a conjunction.

I *should* or *ought* to go.
I *should* or *ought* to have gone.

I *may* go. I *may* have gone. I *might* have gone. I *might* go.

*Should*, expressing contingency, is never used without one.

*Though* I *should* go.
Even *if* I *should* have gone.

Subjoined is a verb, in which those modes are arranged in the manner proposed, and teachers can choose between this and that in the body of the work. I exhibit the active voice fully, that it may fairly stand the test of examination, and that teachers may have no difficulty in comparing it with the other.

*Active Voice of the Verb* TO SEEK.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

| Singular. | Plural. |
|---|---|
| 1. I seek | 1. We seek |
| 2. Thou seekest | 2. Ye or you seek |
| 3. He seeks or seeketh | 2. They seek |

## Past Tenses.

### Imperfect.

1. I was seeking
2. Thou wast seeking
3. He was seeking

1. We were seeking.
2. Ye or you were seeking
3. They were seeking.

### Perfect.

1. I have sought
2. Thou hast sought
3. He has sought

1. We have sought
2. Ye or you have sought.
3. They have sought

### Indefinite Past.

1. I sought
2. Thou soughtest
3. He sought

1. We sought
2. Ye or you sought
3. They sought.

### Pluperfect.

1. I had sought
2. Thou hadst sought
3. He had sought

1. We had sought
2. Ye or you had sought
3. They had sought

## Future Tenses.

### First or Simple Future.

1. I shall or will seek
2. Thou shalt or will seek
3. He shall or wilt seek

1. We shall or will seek.
2. Ye or you shall or will seek
3. They shall or will seek.

### Second Future.

1. I shall or will have sought.
2. Thou shalt or wilt have sought
3. He shall or will have sought

1. We shall or will have sought
2. Ye or you shall or will have sought
3. Theyshall or will have sought

### Imperative Mode.

2. Seek thou or do thou seek

2. Seek ye or you or do ye or you seek

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

### First Tense Present or Future.

1. If I seek or if I should seek
2. If thou seek or shouldst seek
3. If he seek or if he should seek

1. If we seek or if we should seek
2. If ye or you seek or if ye should seek
3. If they seek or if they should seek

*Prompter, page* 85.—The past tenses of the English verb, not corresponding exactly to those of the French, or the Latin, repetition is necessary in conjugating *to receive*, where the three are exhibited; but, in *to seek*, these tenses appear in their own proper order, without reference to those of any other language.

### Second or Imperfect Tense.

1. If I were seeking
2. If thou wert seeking
3. If he were seeking

1. If we were seeking
2. If ye were seeking
3. If they were seeking

### Past or Completive Future.

1. If I should have sought
2. If thou shouldst have sought
3. If he should have sought

1. If he should have sought
2. If ye or you should have sought
3. If they should have sought

"If I should have been seeking," I can neither find an example of this form, nor think of any circumstance that would require its use—if used, it would be a past imperfect tense.

## POTENTIAL MODE.

### Present Tense.

1. I may or can seek
2. Thou mayst or canst seek
3. He may or can seek

1. We may or can seek
2. Ye or you may or can seek
3. They may or can seek

### Perfect.

1. I may have sought
2. Thou mayst have sought
3. He may have sought

1. We may have sought
2. Ye or you may have sought
3. They may have sought

### Pluperfect.

1. I might, could, or would have sought
2. Thou mightst, couldst, or wouldst have sought
3. He might, could, or would have sought

1. We might, could, or would have sought
2. Ye might, could, or would have sought
3. They might, could, or would have sought

### Future, and in some connexions, Past,

1. I might, could, or would seek
2. Thou mightst, couldst, or wouldst seek
3. He might, could, or would seek

1. We might, could, or would seek
2. Ye might, could, or would seek
3. They might, could, or would seek

### Conditional Mode.

We would thus have *should* expressing obligation or duty, an independent verb. *Should* with a conjunction, expressing contingency, subjunctive. *May*, denoting possibility, *can* and *would*, denoting power and will, potential. *Should* and *would* used conditionally as in the subjoined examples, are still to be disposed of, as not belonging to either of the foregoing. They are really con-

ditional, and are distinguished by being either preceded or followed by a conjunctive clause.*

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. I should or would seek | 1. We should or would seek |
| 2. Thou shouldst or wouldst seek | 2. Ye should or would seek |
| 3. He should or would seek | 3. They should or would seek |

This arrangement of the modes claims examination; it may yet require some alteration.

With respect to the potential, as at present constituted, three questions naturally arise.

Does it answer to any definition of *mode*?

Does it accomplish any of the ends for which the distinction of mode was instituted?

Does it tend to elucidate or to obscure.?†

VERB THE MOST IMPORTANT.

I am aware that an eminent writer has said—"Nouns are the most important parts of speech." The world, and its component parts, including its various tenants of every species, may in themselves be more important than the actions which proceed from or affect them; but in as far as regards language the words that express action, are the most important, that being the subject and the end of speech; and could we imagine a motionless creation, we would naturally suppose it mute. If there are any still disposed to claim precedence for the noun, I have no wish to carry the discussion farther. But from experience and reflection am convinced that were a teacher to begin with the noun (without regard to case) the pupils would know little more at the close than at the commencement of the lesson; and should they be told to give nouns in the nominative, they could not do so without first finding the verb,

* Were I to expose any vice in a good and great man, it *should* certainly be by correcting it in some one where that crime was the most distinguishing part of the character.—*Steele.*

If I should remove this prop the tree *would* fall—or, The tree *would* fall if I should remove this prop.

I would seek it, if there were any chance of finding it. If we had any hope of finding him, we would seek him still.

† Descending to detail, I would ask any one versed in grammar whether, in parsing, the meaning of "you may go if you wish it" is as clearly kept in view by both verbs being termed the potential of one (while "possibly he may go," likewise gets exactly the same term) as by their being thus divided; *May*, present of the verb *may*, signifying liberty or permission, *go* infinitive of the verb *to go.*

nor would they succeed in this nearly so well as if the verb, distinct from every other word, had been first presented to them.

It has been said that we have no eases in English, because, except in the possessive, we have no variation in termination, and the Latin word *casus*, from which our *case* draws its origin, is derived from the verb *cado*. This is taking rather a superficial view of the subject. The causes of those variations lie in the different positions of the persons or things spoken of, the difference between the agent and the object of an action, the giver and the gift, the possessor and the possession.

To mark more distinctly their different positions, the Latin has varied the termination of its nouns, and grammarians have given to each variation a distinguishing term, and to all, the title of *case;* but these different positions exist, and are distinguishable in our own,* and it is not to the mere termination, but to the word as a whole, that the term and title are given. As to the derivation of case, that is of little moment ; it was used as an English word, expressing condition, state, position,† before any English grammar was written.

"Some writers think, that the relations signified by the addition of articles and prepositions to the noun, may properly be denominated cases, in English : and that, on this principle, there are, in our language, as many cases as in the Latin tongue."—*Murray.*

### THE VOCATIVE.

Let it not be said that to insert the vocative is to encumber the language with an additional case. That state or position of the noun exists whether grammarians confound it with another or consider it as separate, and it does not merely exist in a few ob-

*The *Dative* and *Ablative* cases are not here included. In Latin, the relations they signify are principally indicated by change of termination. In English, they are expressed by different prepositions.

†These that have it attained were in like *case,*
Quoth he, as wretched and lived in like pain.
*Spenser.*

It must be admitted that the prepositions *to* and *from* have very different significations, but they differ not farther than do the verbs *to attack* and *to defend,* and *we* have no more occasion to say the *prepositions* govern different cases than that the verbs do so. We *translate* the Latin *dative* and *ablative;* we *have* a case corresponding to the *vocative.*

solete or seldom used expressions, but is constantly occurring; if we admit *case*, we cannot well exclude this, which naturally stands distinct from every other. The name is merely restored, for the *vocative* formerly held a place in some English grammars, though it does not appear in Murray's. Nouns in the position here designated by that title occur frequently in his READER and SEQUEL, yet two examples only are to be found in his EXERCISES; but neither can the omission in the grammar of remark concerning nouns addressed, alter their position, nor the exclusion of them from the exercises sweep away the examples abounding in Scripture and in the works of our authors.

This case has by some been styled the nominative independent. Naming it thus, we had three different nominative cases—and teachers who distinguish the nominative following, from that preceding, the verbs *be*, *become*, &c., (a real distinction, for the nominative following describes or names the first,) were obliged to admit four. Finding that my pupils, sometimes paused to recollect the terms distinguishing the *absolute* and *independent* nominative, I exhibited the latter as a distinct case, and restored its former, and certainly appropriate, name. After that there was no hesitation, for natural distinctions are easily pointed out. The name of a person or thing addressed is said to be in the vocative case, and the recognition of it, instead of adding to, lightens, the labour of the teacher.

It has been already said that there are but two instances of this case in Murray's Exercises and that he gives no directions respecting them. Lennie gives several examples and a remark on the first.

"Friend, lend me three loaves. Friend is the nominative case, for he is named."

In one respect all may be said to be *naming* cases, but the *nominative*, as we generally understand it, except in the case absolute, names the subject of the verb. Friend is more than named; he is *addressed*. Admit the vocative, and in parsing that sentence we merely say *Friend*, a noun in the vocative case, being *addressed*. Lennie makes it a nominative, and finds a verb for it; he says, "Supply the ellipsis." "O thou who art my friend, lend me," &c.

In this the verb is only superfluous, in his other examples it would be absurd.

"In thy presence, O health!" "O thou who art health!"

And how would it suit with the following? "As for thee, O king, thy thoughts came into thy mind upon thy bed." "Ye men of Athens, I perceive."

"Brave peers of England, pillars of the state,
To you Duke Humphrey must unload his grief."

MURRAY ON THE DOUBLE GENITIVE.

"In some cases, we use both the genitive termination and the preposition *of*: as, "It is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's." Sometimes, indeed, unless we throw the sentence into another form, this method is absolutely necessary, in order to distinguish the sense, and to give the idea of property, strictly so called, which is the most important of the relations expressed by the genitive case: for the expressions, "This picture of my friend," and "This picture of my friend's," suggest very different ideas. The latter only is that of property in the strictest sense. The idea would, doubtless, be conveyed in a better manner, by saying, "This picture belonging to my friend."

"When this double genitive, as some grammarians term it, is not necessary to distinguish the sense, and especially in a grave style, it is generally omitted. Except to prevent ambiguity, it seems to be allowable only in cases which suppose the existence of a plurality of subjects of the same kind. In the expressions: "A subject of the emperor's;" "A sentiment of my brother's;" more than one subject, and one sentiment, are supposed to belong to the possessor. But when this plurality is neither intimated, nor necessarily supposed, the double genitive, except as before mentioned, should not be used: as, "This house of the governor is very commodious;" "The crown was stolen;" "That privilege of the scholar was never abused." (See page 56.) But after all that can be said for this double genitive, as it is termed, some grammarians think that it would be better to avoid the use of it altogether, and to give the sentiment another form of expression."—*Murray's 6th Note on 10th Rule.*

There is no necessity for supposing a double *genitive* or rather, as that has given place to what is in English a more correct and appropriate term, a double *possessive* here. The semblance of it arises from not paying proper regard to the different meanings of the preposition *of*: *of* signifying appertaining to, and *of*, *out of*, or *from among*. The former marks the possessive; the latter can only govern what we now term the objective case; for no forced construction can give that which does not exist, and which, in English is absolutely necessary to put a noun in the possessive, viz: "a possession, no matter what, real or ideal, something attributed, or belonging to the person or thing represented by

that noun." One *of* the rules. Several *of* the people. Some *of* the books. Three *of* the soldiers. Two *of* the children. In all these sentences *of* simply signifies out *of* or from among. One *out of* or *from among* the rules. Three *out of* or *from among* the soldiers, &c. In each of them, there is an ellipsis of the word, to which the numeral adjective, or adjective pronoun belongs; and in neither of them, would adding to the sentence a noun in the possessive case have any influence on the preposition, which has its distinct object, and extends to no other. The ellipsis may be proved by supplying the verb. One *of* the rulers *spoke* to the assembled multitude. Three *of* the soldiers *went* to demand the body of their comrade.

One *ruler of*, *out of* or *from among*, the rulers spoke.
Three *soldiers of*, *out of* or *from among*, the soldiers went.

Add a possessive case.

Three *soldiers of* Cromwell's soldiers went, &c.
Two *children of* my brother's children chanced to be passing.

Transpose the ellipsis and then we have the exact form of expression instanced by Mr. Murray.

Three soldiers of Cromwell's—went, &c.
Two children of my brother's—chanced, &c.

Some books of their mothers'—were.

This is a form of expression which we do not use when only one individual thing of the kind exists or is attributed to the possessor. We can say. Here is a claw of the animal's; in escaping from the trap it has left that behind. But not: "Though you set no value on the life of the animal's, yet show some pity for its sufferings." So we say: "It is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's," who had the reputation of making several; but do not say: The existence of a transaltantic world was a discovery of Columbus's. His other discoveries are merged and lost in that, and we say: "was the discovery of Columbus."

We might, though it would be less suitable to the dignity of the subject, say: Cato's soliloquy on the soul's immortality; instead of, on the immortality of the soul, but not: Cato's soliloquy on the immortality of the soul's.

The only reason why the ellipsis of the second substantive is sometimes preferred to that of the first, seems to be that it brings the subject of the verb more prominently into view, and it could

be relinquished without any great loss to the language. We do, however, in the familiar style, sometimes use a double possessive linked with this or that. "Certainly this house of your father's is very commodious," "Really these dogs of yours are most unruly animals." That sister of his is so perverse there is no persuading her. "That plan of Henry's was a good one." In all these examples the preposition *of* is attached to the noun or pronoun which has the possessive termination. We may call this the emphatic possessive or rank it among the anomalies of our language, but cannot banish it; because we have no other form exactly equivalent. "This your father's house," &c., has not the same emphasis.

"This picture of my friend's," "cost ten times as much as it is worth:" may be ranked among such phrases.

## CAN AND CANNOT.

*Can* is not used in speaking of the past, but *cannot* sometimes is. The reason of this seems to be, that when, during any period of past time, we had the power of doing what yet we did not do, the possibility of doing it *then*, passed away with that time and can only be spoken of as past, as, "I *could* have spoken to my uncle yesterday about that affair had you mentioned it to me; but he set out on a short tour this morning, and will be absent a fortnight." But that when, on the contrary, it was impossible to act, the impediment in which consisted that impossibility may sometimes remain, and as still existing, be spoken of in the present: as, "Do you think he had opened the letter?" "He *cannot* have done anything so mean;" there is something in his disposition to prevent his doing so. "Do you think he has received my letter?" "He *cannot*, for the post will not arrive there till this evening," Throw the impossibility entirely into the past, and *could* must be used. He might have completed the work in a shorter time, but he *could* not have done it better.

"Who *can have* done that?" "Who *can have* said so?" occur sometimes though rarely, and seem to be exclamatory sentences, signifying who can it be that has done? &c. They are never responded to by *can have*, "Who *can have* said such a thing?" "Your sister herself said it." "Who *can have* witnessed such a scene without interfering?" "The bystanders were people from

a different part of the country, and seemed to think they had no right to interfere."

In placing *can* among past tenses Murray, and Lennie following him, have deviated from Johnson ; but it needs no appeal to any other authority than the usage of the language to settle this. In what English author do we find *can* used in speaking of the past? or what should we think of a sentence such as the following, "Mustapha, *who* was strangled on mere suspicion, and without a hearing, *can* have escaped if he had really been guilty, because, &c., and he *can* have escaped, innocent as he was, had he known in time, the extent of his danger?" *Could*, resuming its place, restores harmony to the passage.

Suppose an educated foreigner soon after his arrival in any part of the British dominions, should say to one of his English friend "I *can* have rode out with you this morning, but Mr. Halde[illegible]d to introduce me to the Commandant of the Garrison. [illegible] have finished my letters for the yesterday's mail ; but my friend, Mr. Mausbergen, arrived in the morning and I had to go through the city with him." The error would be immediately perceived, but, to few would it occur, that he had been *taught it* by approved English grammarians.

Omission of the Imperfect—"*I was walking, I was riding, &c.* This is the only form we have to express action going on and unfinished at the time of another past action.* It may possibly be said, that the want of this form has had no bad effect, for those who have studied Murray or Lennie use it whenever the sense requires it. This would merely prove, that those who have previously learned to speak their mother tongue correctly, continue to do so, notwithstanding its being imperfectly exhibited in the books they study. It is not so with foreigners ;—the manner in which English grammarians speak on this point has in some instances misled them. Murray, diffuse as he is on many less important matters, has said nothing that can remedy the non-appearance of this tense in his conjugation of the verb ; nothing even to indicate that it is oftener required than any of the other tenses formed by the verb *to be* with the active participle.

* The simple past may be made to express action continued *until* another action or event took place but nothing farther: "I studied my lesson *till* the teacher came in."—"I studied my lesson *when* the teacher came in," has a meaning widely different from, "I *was studying* my lesson *when* the teacher came in.

"The active verb may be conjugated differently, by adding its present or active participle to the auxiliary *to be* through all its moods and tenses, &c. This mode of conjugating has on peculiar occasions a peculiar propriety."—*Murray.*

*Do* and *did* are (by the same writer) brought more prominently into view, as auxiliaries, and from this it has probably arisen that in Josse's Spanish and English Grammar,—a work which in 1834 had gone through six American editions, the Spanish imperfect is translated by *did* with the active participle.

Of course in an English and Spanish grammar the corresponding translation is given—so that a Spaniard, after having studied English in the most approved grammars, instead of saying, "Your brother and his friend *were talking* when I entered the room;" "Your sister *was singing* when I passed the window;" would say, "Your brother and his friend *did talk* when I entered the room;" "Your sister *did sing* when I passed the window." Into the same error has Dneoudray Holstein been led. This appears, (in his French and English Grammar), in the translation of the imperfect, and in some of the examples; though his long habits of intercourse with an English speaking population have set him right in others. It may be said:—"What have we to do with the mistakes of foreigners?" Nothing, except what reciprocal courtesy requires, unless they spring from our own; but, when they do originate in our own mistakes or omissions, certainly something;—and besides, errors of that kind naturally recoil on the English student of a foreign language.

## MURRAY AND LENNIE ON *AS.*

"Some grammarians assert, that the phrases, *as follows, as appears*, form what are called impersonal verbs; and should therefore, be confined to the singular number: as, 'The arguments advanced were nearly *as follows*;' 'The positions were as appears incontrovertible:' that is, 'as it appears.' If we give (say they) the sentence a different turn, and instead of *as*, say *such as*, the verb is no longer termed impersonal, put properly agrees with its nominative, in the plural number: as, 'The arguments advanced were nearly *such as follow*;' 'The positions were *such as appear* incontrovertible.' Note—These grammarians are supported by general usage, and by the authority of an eminent critic on language and composition. 'When a verb is used impersonally,' says Mr. Campbell in his Philosophy of Rhetoric, 'it ought undoubtedly to be in the singular number, whether the neuter pronoun be expressed or understood. For this

reason, analogy and usage favour this mode of expression: 'The conditions of the argument were *as follows:*' and not *as follow.* A few late writers have inconsiderately adopted this last form, through a mistake of the construction. For the same reason we ought to say, 'I shall consider his censures so far only *as concerns* my friend's conduct;' and not 'so far as *concern.*'

"The sense of the preceding sentences may be conveyed in the following terms: 'The arguments advanced were nearly those which follow.' 'It appears that the positions were incontrovertible."—*Murray's Grammar, page* 142.

"*As* is often used as a Personal and Relative pronoun, and in both *numbers.* This account of *as,* though in unison with Dr. Crombie's, is at variance with that of Dr. Campbell and Mr. Murray. They explain the following sentences thus, 'The arguments advanced were nearly *as follows;*' 'The positions were *as appears* incontrovertible.' That is, say they, 'as *it follows,*' 'as *it appears.*' What it? The *thing.* What *thing?* *It* or thing, cannot relate to *arguments,* for arguments is *plural,* and must have a plural pronoun and verb. Take the ordinary method of finding out the nominative to a verb, by asking a question with the verb, and the true nominative will be the answer. Thus, 'What follows?' and the answer is, 'The *arguments follow.*' It must be obvious, then, that *it* cannot be substituted for *arguments,* and that *as* is equal to *those which,* and that the verb is not *impersonal,* but the *third person* plural, agreeing with its nominative *which,* the last half of *as.* In the second example, *as appears,* is a mere parenthesis, and does not relate to *positions* at all; but still the *as* is a pronoun. Thus, the positions, *it appears,* were incontrovertible.

"They say, however, if we use *such* before *as,* the verb is no longer impersonal, but agrees with its nominative in the *plural* number; as, 'The arguments advanced were nearly *such* as *follow.*' 'The positions were such as *appear* incontrovertible.' This is, if possible, a greater mistake than the former: for what has *such* to do with the following verb?"—*Lennie, page* 146.

Nothing with the verb, if it can be separated from the nominative; but something with the decision of what the nominative is, for *such* stands much in the same position, with regard to the nominative of the verb, that, of two relatives, the one who could produce substantial evidence of their mutual title to an inheritance, would to the other, who had only been able to bring forward presumptive proofs. I turn to a sentence of exactly similar construction in which the nominative cannot be doubted.—*Rambler,* No. 137: This diffidence, where the attention is not laid asleep by laziness or dissipated by pleasure, can only arise from confused and general views, such as negligence snatches in haste. *Such* is an indefinite adjective pronoun: and even according to Mr. Lennie's

own rule, must be followed by a noun understood, if not expressed —supplying the ellipsis gives *views* from such *views—such* views *as*—as what? is the next question—and the answer, as *those views (or the views)(are)* which negligence snatches in haste.

It is a rule in language, equally natural and just that when the same word occurs in two passages, in one of which its proper construction is doubtful, and in the other clear, the construction of that which is doubtful is to be ascertained and regulated by that respecting which there can be no doubt, and thus in exact conformity to the one we supply the ellipsis of the other. *Such* an adjective pronoun claims its substantive arguments—*such arguments as*—as what ?—as those arguments are *which*—follow. In all this there is no circumlocution—nothing but the supplying of the ellipsis,—and how frequently is ellipsis as extensive found in our language.

*As appears*—In the foregoing quotation seems to be the impersonal verb with the ellipsis of *it.*

"*As*, however, and whenever used in English, means the same as *it*, or *that*, or *which*."—*Horne Tooke.*

I regret that I have been unable to procure the work from which this is an extract, and in which the learned author must have given his reasons for the assertion ; but, whatever its derivation, *as*, when coupled with a verb it marks the time or manner of an action, is certainly an adverb. "And *as* he reasoned of righteousness, temperance and judgment to come, Felix trembled." And—when used as *since* might be, to connect and to continue—a conjunction. "*As* he was not on the spot he can know nothing of the matter but by hearsay."

Verbs difficult to class 102. This difficulty most teachers will readily acknowledge. *To run* is considered intransitive, yet, in to *run* a *race*, it is not so. What is a race but a trial of speed made by running—thus in *to run* a *race*, the action is as clearly transitive as in to *make trial.* To fight against and to *fight* a *battle*, furnish a similar example, and others might be cited. To consider whether the action be transitive or not is a sure and simple method of deciding; for even where, as in to *succeed*, to *improve*, &c., we have two verbs literally the same, and also the same in signification, one active, the other neuter, it is only by the influence of the action that they can be distinguished. Study *to improve*, neuter; to *improve yourself*, active.

DIFFERENT MODES USED IN AN OPTATIVE SENSE.—The only wish that can exist, respecting a past action or event, when known, must be, that it had been otherwise, and this is expressed by the pluperfect of the indicative: "O that my people *had listened* to my voice." A wish respecting the past when unknown is expressed by the perfect of the potential: "I wish they *may have arrived* before that dreadful gale." A wish respecting the present, or rather, the future, following close on the passing moment, is sometimes, as has been already shown, expressed by the subjunctive *were;* sometimes it is signified by *may*, in the first or present tense of the potential. "We wish that he *may succeed* in this undertaking." This form likewise extends through the future, however remote. "O that it *may* never *be obliterated.*" A wish with less of hope or of assurance in it, is expressed by the third tense of *may*, signifying permission. "O that Ishmael *might live* before thee.

LOCAL ERRORS.—Those, which children in this country are most liable to, are, using a verb with the negative adverb before I *dont think;* and substituting *I seen* for *I saw.* Such errors are most effectually corrected when recently made. "He won't come I don't think." "You expect him then." "No I don't expect him." Did you not say, 'I *don't think* he *won't* come;' is not that equivalent to, "I do think he will?" "I meant I didn't think he would,"—"I seen her do it." In which of the tenses do you find, "I seen?"

## *WITH* INSTEAD OF *AND.*

*With*, is sometimes used instead of *and*, as he *with* his brother came to town, instead of he *and* his brother came to town. There is an ambiguity in such phrases, which leads to difficulty in the construction, except when the inflection of the verb determines the sense by marking the number. If *he* is the principal person —the subject of the verb. and his brother merely spoken of as accompanying him, then the verb agrees with *he* in the third person singular. If on the contrary WITH is used merely in the sense of *and*—then both *he* and *brother* are nominatives to it. There can, however, be no necessity for using *with* instead of *and.* If there be no reason for distinguishing one as principal: "He and his brother came to town" is the proper expression. If one must be distinguished "He came accompanied by his brother," if *he* was the principal—and if not: He accompanied his brother,

or he came to town *with* his brother." are modes of expressing these different ideas without ambiguity. "The King with his Life Guard passed through the village." "The King attended by his Life Guard passed," &c. would be preferable. "Prosperity with humility *renders* its possessor truly amiable," says Murray. "This verb should be in the plural," says Lennie. While objecting* to the subordinate position which humility is made to hold, I must agree with Murray in considering prosperity as the sole nominative, humility being only mentioned in the sentence as an accompaniment. "That horse, with a light waggon, would draw them and their luggage." The horse cannot draw without the waggon, but we do not say the waggon draws—nor would we at the end of the journey say the horse and waggon have drawn.

The second tense of the subjunctive, (active) of the verb to receive was inserted when the writer intended that remarks on it, and on the subjunctive in general, should immediately follow. It was found they would occupy too much space in the body of the work, and the tense remains, exhibited as it stands in some other grammars, but not approved of by the writer. In verbs which rather signify habits than actions, expressions such as, "if ye *loved* me," "if he *esteemed* her," generally include both past and and present, and form a subjunctive tense signifying if ye were in the habitual exercise of love or esteem, &c. "If ye *venerated* your Maker ye would not abuse his image in your brethren of mankind," still the verb ought to be inflected, "If thou *loved'st* me, thou wouldst rejoice."

Such verbs are considered active; in one sense they are so; and it is better to make allowance for their signification than to attempt to class them under any separate denomination ; but from their peculiar nature, the distinctions of tense are less obvious in them, than in verbs which do not naturally imply continuity of action, the imperfect is omitted or rather is never required ; we say, I *was dreading*, we *were expecting*, but not, I *was esteeming*, he *was venerating* and these verbs are comparatively speaking, so few in number that to take one of them for the sole example given of the conjugation of a regular active verb, as has been done by some English grammarians, was making rather an injudicious selection.

*Prosperity is a mere circumstance showing to advantage that humility which renders its possessor amiable—but it is with the construction of the sentence not with its truth that we have to do.

*But*; used in the sense of except, before a noun or pronoun, as in the following example: "I saw nobody *but* him," is a preposition and governs the noun or pronoun it refers to in the objective. Murray's construction of it as a conjunction with the elipsis of *I saw*: "I saw nobody; *but I saw* him," is objectionable because it makes one part of the sentence contradict the other. Supplying real ellipsis always leaves the meaning clear. How strangely would such construction alter some sentences in the works of our best authors! "I saw nothing but the long hollow valley of Bagdad, with oxen, sheep and camels grazing upon the sides of it," "I saw nothing; but I saw the long hollow valley of Bagdad," &c.

There may yet, on minor points of construction, be some omissions. It is hoped they will meet with indulgence, at least from those who know how difficult it must be to complete in the first edition, a work of this nature. If one important characteristic of this system, which peculiarly distinguishes it from every other, the taking the verb as the first and leading word, be approved of, a great point will be gained by the publication.

THE END.

# INDEX.

## INDEX TO THE APPENDIX.

## ERRATA.

In Page 13, line 2, for *pats* read *past.*
" 28, " 13, for *on* read *in.*
" 78, " 12, for *where* read *upon.* *
" 77, " 19, for *riple* read *ripple.*

* In the line preceding this, *rearing* being a participle, should have been distinguished by italics. In page 23, line 22, the pronoun *you*—"*You* are your uncle's nephew," has been allowed to appear prematurely, and the participle *dress'd* page 49—"All in his armour *dress'd,*" is liable to the same objection ; so it will be necessary, in reading the exercises, to omit these lines. In page 151, *succeed* is considered the active verb ; in page 160, in the same connection, it is construed as the neuter. This is one of those points that can only be decided by collecting and comparing the authorities on each side, which I have not yet been able to do.

## KEY TO THE EXERCISES IN LANGUAGE.

A.—Words expressing action.
B.—Words expressing being or possession.
C.—Words expressing action, being, or possession—agents, subjects.
D.—Verbs, their nominative nouns expressed.
E.—Verbs, their nominative nouns expressed and understood.
F.—Verbs in the infinitive.
G.—Verbs, their nominative nouns and pronouns.
H.—Verbs, &c. Names of qualities.
I.—Verbs, &c. Names of qualities, adjectives.
J.—Verbs, &c. Adjectives and adverbs..
K.—Verbs, &c. Participles.
L.—Verbs, &c. Variations of verbs.
M.—Verbs, &c. Action, transitive and intransitive.
N.—Verbs, &c. This and that.
O.—Verbs, &c. Objective case.
P.—Verbs, &c. Possessive case.
Q.—Verbs, &c. Vocative case.
R.—Verbs, &c. Variations of Nouns.
S.—Verbs, &c. Variations of pronouns.
T.—Verbs, &c. Apostrophe.

## OPINIONS RESPECTING THE SYSTEM DEVELOPED IN THIS WORK.

*From the Bishop of Toronto. 9th November*, 1836.

I have read with much gratification your Short Conversations on Grammar, and am quite satisfied that the mode you propose of teaching that science will be found a great improvement, and will make it pleasant and agreeable to children, instead of being dull and irksome, as is at present too frequently the case.

JOHN STRACHAN.

*From Miss Easton, Principal of the Female Seminary, Montreal. October* 4, 1836.

Madam,

I think your reasoning upon the nature of the English Subjunctive, and the application of its tenses, conclusive, and it gives me pleasure to assure you, that the change which you purpose making will greatly facilitate the pupil's progress, as it will simplify what has hitherto been almost too complex for explanation. I remain, &c.

E. M. EASTON.

*From Alex. Skakel, A. M., Master of the Royal Grammer School, Montreal. 21st November*, 1836.

I have read with much satisfaction the brief summary of the mode in which you propose to teach English Grammar. I think it a real improvement, as I am convinced that, by that method, a knowledge of the science will be communicated with much more ease to the pupil, than in the tedious, irksome way in which it is now taught.

ALEX. SKAKEL.

*From A. F. Holmes, M. D. Montreal, 24th November*, 1836.

Your method, as explained in the conversation I had with you, appeared to me exceedingly simple, and, as employing the thinking powers of the child, decidedly superior to what I believe is the ordinary method of learning by rote. There may be some difficulty, (which, however, you say, is not great), in getting the child's mind brought to understand how to look for the "doing or being" word, but once that is conquered, it appears clear that

the whole difficulty is surmounted, and the principles of Grammar may be said to be acquired. So far, then, as I am capable of judging, your method appears to me to be excellent; but how far superior to other modes I cannot say, from my want of acquaintance with the present state of education.

A. F. HOLMES.

*William H. Duff, Esq. Albany, 2d October*, 1837.

The perusal of your Elementary work on Language has afforded me sincere pleasure. In this science we have had too much theory, and have too long wanted something practical. Your plan appears to me to accomplish this desirable object. I have as you desired, laid it before General Dix, who, I am happy to say, entertains a very high opinion of it.

W. H. DUFF.

*D. D .Barnard, Advocate. Albany, 9th October*, 1837.

I take this opportunity, in returning the MS. you left with me, to express my hearty approval of the method of instruction which is proposed in these sheets. I am sure it is a great, and certainly it is a greatly needed improvement.

D. D. BARNARD.

To William H. Duff, Esq.

*Rev. Daniel Wilkie, L. L. D. Quebec, 31st October*, 1838.

I have perused the papers which you left with me, on the subject of English Grammar, with much satisfaction. I am also persuaded that the mode of instruction exemplified in them, would, when reduced to practice, have the happiest tendency to arrest the attention of young persons, and to facilitate their progress in this important study.

D. WILKIE.

*Alex. Workman, Esq., Principal of the Union School. Montreal, 26th February*, 1838.

I agree with you in your opinion relative to the Subjunctive Mood, and think you have succeeded in elucidating that hitherto perplexing portion of English Grammar.

A. WORKMAN.

*A. Campbell, W. S., late of Edinburgh. Hamilton, 6th May,* 1843.

I have much pleasure in being able to say that, so far as I can judge, I think highly of your method of teaching English Grammar, for the following reasons: 1. I think you have succeeded in reducing the first principles of the science to their simplest forms, so as to render them more easily understood by young minds. 2. Having so simplified the science, the understanding of the pupil is exercised in a salutary way as well as his memory. * * These, among other considerations, weigh with me in wishing to see your method in full operation in all the schools in the Province. I have the honor to be, etc.,

A. Campbell.

*Mr. William Tassie, Assistant Teacher of the District School. Hamilton, 6th May,* 1843.

Having had ample opportunities of becoming acquainted with Mrs. Fleming's system of English Grammar, I am fully satisfied of the great advantage to be derived from it. By seizing on the most prominent features of the science, and by inducing the child to think and give a reason for every thing, it simplifies and at once brings to the level of the capacity of the pupil its most difficult parts; thus enabling the learner to acquire, in a very short space of time, what has hitherto been the study of years.

W. Tassie.

*Rev. Alex. Gale. Hamilton, 15th May,* 1843.

Having become acquainted with your mode of teaching English Grammar, both in your practical application of it in the process of instructing a class of pupils, and in the very distinct and satisfactory explanation of it contained in the Elementary work which you purpose to publish on the subject, I have no hesitation in saying that, in my opinion it is well worthy the attention of teachers, and that its introduction into our schools would greatly promote the improvement of youthful learners.

A. Gale.

*Rev. Gamble Geddess. Hamilton, 16th May,* 1843.

I have much pleasure in bearing testimony to the success with which you lately instructed a juvenile class in the District School in the principles of English Grammar, on a new system of your own invention, and which, I understnad, you intend to publish. The proficiency which your pupils—most of them boys about

eight years old, and many of whom were perfectly ignorant of Grammar—exhibited, in the short space of six weeks, would have been incredible, had I not witnessed it with my own eyes and ears. I have only to add, that I wish you every success in your praise-worthy endeavour to smooth the path of knowledge to the young beginner, and to render inviting and interesting a branch of education, which has ever been considered one of the driest and most repulsive.

GAMBLE GEDDES.

*Professor Campbell, of Queen's College. Kingston, 5th July,* 1843.

I have felt myself highly gratified by the perusal of the various sketches, which you submitted to me, on the subject of English Grammar, and the conveyance of instruction in that important and difficult branch of the education of the young, as well as by the conversations we have had on these topics. My own experience agrees, with that of many others, in convincing me that of all the tasks which teachers and children have to encounter, lessons in English Grammar are perhaps the greatest; this arises partly, but only partly, from the nature of the subject, the great source of the difficulty is the mode of teaching, which, in an age of educational reform, has as yet received little or no improvement; that you are well qualified to suggest such improvement, I can have no doubt, after observing the depth and originality of your mode of thinking on grammatical questions, and the evident marks of practical knowledge your conversation affords; and I regret extremely that I have not enjoyed an opportunity of witnessing the working of your system. I sincerely desire that you may receive every encouragement in the prosecution of your benevolent views.

P. C. CAMPBELL.

*Extract from a letter from J. B. Meilleur, M. D., Superintendent of Education. Education Office (East,) Kingston, 16th July,* 1843.

I wish to be considered a subscriber for two copies, and if the mentioning my name can be of any service to your undertaking, I readily authorise you to say, that, having examined part of the work, I expressed a desire to see it published, especially as it is my principle to encourage Canadian publications, as much as is consistent with the progress of learning, and the cause of general education in the Province. I have the honour to be, etc. etc.

J. B. MEILLEUR.

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*Superintendent*
*6th July*, 1843.

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