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# English Grammar. FOR THE USE OF SCH00LS. <br> including <br> COPIOUS EXERCISES FOR PARSING, WITH EXAMPLES; AND AN EXPLANATION OF THE LEADING PRINCIPLES OF ANALYSIS, PARAPHRASING, AND PUNCTUATION. 

BY
J. A. MacCABE,

Provincial Normal School, Truro, N. S.

## Third Edition.

Prescribed by the Counchl of Public Instruction for

HALIFAX, N. S.:
A. \& W. MACKINLAY.
1874.

Entered according to Act of Parliament of Canada, in the year 1874, By J. A. MacCabe, In the office of the Minister of Agriculture, at Ottawa.

## PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

The present Edition contains a large amount of matter not found in the first. Practical exercises occur more frequently; and at the request of a large rumber of teachers, words, phrases, and sentences, involving grammatical errors, have been introduced in various parts of the work, to serve as exercises for correction. More extended examples of parsing and analysis, and a section on Derivation, have been added.

The author would here express his sincere gratification at the success of his little work, now passed through a first edition, and the many flattering notices it has received. He hopes that the improvements containcd in the present edition will make it still more useful, and warrant its introduction into all the schools of the Province.

J. A. MacCABE.

Normal School, Truro March, 1874.

## PREFACE 'TO THE FIRST EDITION.

There are few subjects, it any, upon which so many text books have been written as English Grammar. From 1633, the date of the first issued from the press, down to the present time about two hundred and fifty different treatises on this subject have been published; and of these, only sixty were written previous to the present century.

It may, then, be asked what necessity exists for another grammar. The author of the present work, must, of course, have presumed that his addition to the number would not be found superfluous. Ife does not pretend to much originality, but presents the work rather as a compilation. As, hardly anything new can be said about English gram‘»ar, he, by preparing the present treatise, does not thereby find fault so much with what is said in other works on the subject, as with the manner in which it is said. He thinks that the definitions in common use do not accurately define the terms they are intended to explain, that the principles as usually laid down in grammars are involved in much obscurity by being stated in unintelligible language, and that erroneous statements are oiten given as correct theories. He has attempted to give definitions which will convey correct ideas of the things they describe, to set forth old principles in a new and intelligible form ; and where he introduces innovations, in classification, in the use of new terms, or in the meaning which he attaches to old ones, he has endeavoured to be as logical as possible.

A long experience as a teacher of this branch of knowledge leads the author to hope that, he has arrived at a reasonably correct idea of what is practically useful in matter and method. He therefore places the present work before teachers and pupils,
trusting that it will be fonnd worthy to take its place in the Nova Scotia Series of School Books.

The treatise from which selections for this book have, chiefly, been taken, is that by Hunter. The works of Angus, Murray, Crombie, Collier, Morell, and many others, have also been con sulted.

The author would here express his thanks to J. B. Calkin, Esq., M. A., Principal of the Normal and Model Schools, for many useful hints in the revision of the work.

He would also thank his publishers for the kind interest they have taken in bringing out the book, and their exertions to have their purt of it perfect.

Normal Schoot, Truro, N. S., 1873.
J. A. MacCabe.

## ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. Men make known their thoughts to each other by spoken or written language.
2. Language when spoken is composed of elementary sounds ; and when written, of elementary forms called letters, which have been invented to represent those sounds.
3. Grammar is the science which teaches us the correct use of the sounds and forms of language.
4. English Grammar teaches us the correct use of the English language in speaking and writing.
5. It is usually divided into four parts: Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

## ORTHOGRAPHY.

6. Orthography treats of the forms and sounds of the letters and the correct method of spelling words.
7. With it is connected Orthoepy, or the science of correct pronunciation.
8. The elementary sounds of the English language are about forty.
9. The letters, which, all together, are called the Alphabet, are twenty-six.
10. One letter, therefore, must represent two or more sounds.
11. The letters are; $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o$, $p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z$.
12. The letters are in two forms: Capital, and Small letters, as A, a.
13. Capital or head-letters are used (1) at the beginning of every sentence, (2) of every line of poetry, (3) of the namses of persons, placep, monthe, days. (4) The pronoun I and the miterjection O should be written with capital lettess, as also the first letter of any word of particular importance.
14. The letters are divided into yowels and consonants.
15. A vowel is a letter, the sound represented hy which, is full and perfeet and produced by the opes mouth.
16. The vowels are $a, c, i, 0, n, w, y$.
17. A consonant is a letter which represents a sound more or less imperiect, in consequence of the \$reath being intercepted by the tongae, lips, or teeth.
18. The consonants are divided into mutes and semi-gowels.
19. The mutes are those which, when they occur after $\mathfrak{m}$ vowel, completely stop the vowel sound in articulation.
20. They are $b, p, d_{y} t, k, q, c$ bard, and $g$ hard.
21. The semi-vowels, when they occur after a vowel, do nos stop ite sound completely, but allow the voice to escape, though mot fully or openly,
22. They are $\epsilon$ soft, $f, g$ soft, $\lambda, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, x, z$.
23. The sounds are the following:

eginning a word, $w=\infty$ rapidly pronounced.


Some of the eonsonant sounds may bo given in pairs ; one of each pair expressing what is celled a breath sound, the other, $\varepsilon$ weice neund. In the following the breath sounds are putfirct.

$T$ is alwags followed in a word by $u$, and the $q u=k=k$; te

24. A diphthung is the union of two wawals into one sound.
25. When the vowel sounds are blendefi, as in the word house, the diphthong is called proper.
26. When the sound of enly one of the vowels is feard, as in the word road, the diphthong is called improper.
27. A triphthong is the union of three vowels into one sound, as in beat.

## SYLTABLES.

28. A syllable consists of a single somd, or of a unmber of sounds uttered together by a single impulso of the woice: as, $a, a n$, ant

## WORDS.

29. A word is the spoken or writter sign of am idea.
30. In written language, it may consist of one letter only, or of several,-of one syliable, or more than one.
31. A word of one syllable is called a monosyllable; as, noun.
32. A word of two syllables is called a dissyllable; as. pro-noun.
33. A word of three syllables is called a trisyllable; as, ad-ject-ive.
34. A word of more than three syllables is called a polysyllable ; as, in-ter-jec-tion.

## 日XFRCTSE 1.

Teli the voweìs, consonants, diphthongs, triphthongs in the following words, and divide the words into syllables.-Deny, mean, mournful, shoe, mountain, misunderstending, society, ease, gye, adieu, straight, youin, oii, our, beanty, confusion, original, European, !anguage, Russian, repeat, heavy, conquered, followers, Wiliiam, defeated, nobility, business, taught, tongue, conversation, peasantry, impenctrability, unanimity, guide, review, divisibility; aroirdupois, knowledge, young, does, whatever, bronght, parliament.

## ETYMOLOGY.

35. Etymology treats of the crigin, classification, and inflexion of words.
36. Words are arranged in eight classes (commonly called " Parts of Speech") ; namely, Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, Interjection.

3\%. Inflexion is the change which a word under. goes to express varieties of meaning, or relation with other words.
38. Inflexion is now generally used in a wider sense, to mean any pronerty of the noun, adjective, verb, \&c., to sxpress
which the word may, or may not change its form. Person, which will be explained farther on, is called an inflexion of the noun, although to express it, no change takes place in the form of the noun. (See 80).
39. The Parts of Speech are sometimes divided into declinable and indeclinaile. The term declinable is applied to those which have inflexion ; as, Noun, Adjective, Prenoun, Verb, and sometimes, Adverb; indeclinable, to those which have no inflexion; as, Preposition, Conjunction, In terjection.
40. The term declinable, however, is here used in a sense somewhat different from its original meaning. (See 111).

## NOUN.

41. A nown is the Rame of anything; as, John, Lonảon. hause, tree, hope.
42. The things to which we give names may be objects of the exteral senses; as, book, pen, man, noise, smoothness, perfume, sweetness, \&e.; or they may be objects merely of the imagination or the intellect; as, prudence, virtue, courage, excellence, \&c.; but in both cases such names are nount.
43. Whenever a word, syllah'o, letter, or symbol of any kind is made the strbject of eiscourse, it must be regarded as a noun ; as, " $W e$ is a pronoun," "Un is a prefix," $A$ is a vowel," "十 is "sign of addition,"." is a comma."
44. There are three kinds or sub-classes of nouns; Prover, Common, and Participial.
45. A proper noun is a nake given to an individual of a elass to distinguish from the other individuals of the same class; as, George, Kate, Halifax, the St. Laurrence.
46. A Common noun is a name shared in common by each individual of a class; as, man, woman, town, river.
47. A participial noun is the name of an action, that name ending in ing ; as, walking, reading, writing.
48. Proper nouns are used as Common nouns, when they have an adjective annexed to them, or when they are used in the plural; ais; "Some mute, inglorious Milton here may rest"; "Shakespeares are not of every day growth," "It would require a Demosthenes to stir them up."
49. Proper nouns, however, when appearing under such circumstances, are not always to be considered as common.
50. If the name implies the qualities which distinguish am individual, it is to be regarded as common.
51. Thras in the examples given in 48 , Mitten, Shakespeare and Derwosthenes are proper nouns used figuratively (See 502, 532,2 ) for common nouns, indicating individuals with certain qualities which were possessed by Milton, Shakespeare, and Demosthenes.
52. If the name stands for the individual simply, withous reference to qualities, it is to be regarded as proper; as, "He married a Howard,"" The four Geerges;" "Hase you seen any *i the Smithis?"
53. Common nouns are used as proper, when, by personification, or special use, the object named is regarded as an inclividual not belonging to a class; as, "It is thou, Liberty,thrice sweet and gyacious geddess;" The "Common," "The Park."
54. The is used before a singnles noun to represent a class; as, "The oak is harder than the clm." It is prefixed to the names of plaves or of institutions, to inemieate \& profession ir as, "Lowe rules the carap, the court, the prove."
55. The, co or an is never used in English hefore the names of virtues, vices, arts or sciezces, abstract qualities defined not otherwise partieuiaty, or -before tersas strextly limited yy other definite words, or betore titles used as titles; or names as names; as, "Patience is a virtue," "Falsehood is odions." "The eldess son of a duke is called 'Marquis '," "Whazes is derived froms Tamesis," (not The Thames).
56. Some common nouns are ealle Colletive; some $r_{r}$ Abstract nouns.
57. A csllestive noun expresses a collection of indixiduals regarded as forming a whole; as, urmy, anulituele, fivek.
58. An abstract noun is the name of some attribute considered apuat from the object to which it belongs; as, whiteness, kardness, sweetness.
 Gender, Ease.

## EXERCISE IT.

Place ia one column on slate or paper, the souns in the following sentences;-opposite to each in another column write the word noun; and in a third column opposite to eaeh, the subplass: : thus,

| Word | Class | Sub-Class |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| John | noun <br> ma: <br> reading | proper <br> noun <br> common <br> nourticipial |

John goes to school with his sister Mayy, John anver dig
books, slates, pens, and pencils. A map is a picture of the world, or of a part of the world. Charles has broken the pitcher with his whip. Halifax is the eapital of Nova Scotia. Listen to nature's. teaehings. Bees live in hives. We hear nothing of causing the blind to see. Among the bushes and high grass near the water, the swan builds its nest. We see trees, and fields, and houses, and a great sheet of dark water. The nobles of Englard saw the necessity of redressing the wrongs of the people. Napoleon was now master of Europe. Nova Scotia is a peninsula. My soul may not brook recalling. And the foam of his gasping lay white on the turf. June brings tulips, lilies, roses: fills the children's hands with posies. Not a step can we take in any direction withoat perceiving the traces of design. One day George said to his sisters Lucy and Fanny. We heard the bellowing of the Mediterranean. No fantastic carvings show. A grateful mind by owing owes not. Therefore, as iar from granting he, as I from begging peace. And by opposing end them. Robert returned to England with William, and joined him in an expedition against Scotland. Waste their sweetness on the desert air. He was much happier in gfving than in receiving. His was the true goodness of heart. The Atlantic Ucean scparates America from Europe and Africa. America was discovered by Columbus, a native of Genot, in 1492. He was under the patronage of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain.

## NUMBER.

60. Number is an inflexion of the noun derived from its denoting one object, or more objects than one.
61. If the noun denotes one object, it is said to be of the Singular number; as, book, box, man.
62. If the noun denotes more than one, it is said to be of the Plural number ; as, books, boxes, men.
63. The plural is formed from the singular, as a general rule by adding $s$; as, book, books.
64. If, however, the termination of the singular has the sound of $s$, or a sound approaching it, as in words ending in $s$, $s h, x, c h$ soft, $z$; es must be added to form the plural ; as, gas, gases; brush, brushes ; box, boxes ; church, churches; topaz, topuzes.
65. The reason of this is evident. If $s$ only were added, the plural could not be distinguished in conversation from the singular.
66. Nouns ending in $o$ or $y$ preceded by a consonart, form their plural by adaing es, the $y$ at the same time being changed into $i$; an, cargo, cargoes; lady, ladies. The following are exceptions in o, following the general rule, bamboo, cento, canto,
duodecimo, grotto, halo, junto, memento, motto, octavo, portico, quarto, solo, two, tyro, zero. But when o or $y$ is preceded by a vowel, the plural is formed by simply adding $s$; as, cameo, cameos; folio, folios; day, days; boy, boys. quy has quies; as, soliloquy, soliloquies.
67. Most nouns ending in $f$ or $f e$ make their plural by changing $f$ or fe into ves; as, calf, calves; knife, knives. But hoof, roof, grief, miscinief, handkerchief, relief, muff, an i others follow the general rule. The plural of staff should be staffs, not staves; the singular of staves is stave.
68. One form of the Anglo Saxon plural ended in en. We have still some examples of this in our language (which is derived ehiefly from the Anglo Saxon) ; as, ox, oxen; man (and its compounds) men. We must, however, say Mussulmans, Turkomans, Talismans, as these are not compound; of the English word man.
69. Another plural form in the Anglo Saxon ended in $r u$ (afterwards er-re). Four words formed their plural in this way, child, lamb, calf, egg. This form is now seen in the word child $-r$-en, which, strangely enough, has two plural terminations; the $r$ of $r u$, and the en mentioned betore.
70. Some nouns have two distinct plural forms.

Die has dies (for coining) and dice (for gaming).
$P e a$ has peas (distinct seeds) and pease (the species).
Penny has pennies (coins) and pence (value).
71. Some nouns have the same form for both numbers; as, deer, sheep.
72. Some nouns from the nature of the things which they express have no plural; as, wheat, tea, sugar, water, gold, sloth, pricle. However, some of these are pluralized, to express different kinds or qualities; as, new teas.
73. Some nouns have no singular; as, bellows, scissors, ashes, \&c.
74. The names of scienc as ending in ics, are often regarded as singt.ar, although with a plural termination ; as, mathematics, optics, \&c. Again, such forms as horse and foot, meaning horse soldiers and foot soldiers, though singular in form have a plural sense. So also, such expressions as, 10 stone, 5 score, 20 sail, 40 head.
75. Proper nouns are generally made plural by adding $s$; as, the Henry/s, the Johnsons. When the proper name has a title prefixed, the title only should be pluralized; as, the Misses Johnson. When the word two, three, \&e. stands before the title, the latter noun is made plural ; as, "the two Miss Scotts."
76. In some pecuiar plural forms, we find an apostrophe preceding the $s$; as, "Dot your $i$ 's and cross your $t$ 's." The 9 's, the $+s$. When other parts of speech are used as nouns, their
plurals are formed regularly; as, "The iffs and buts," "The whys and wherefores," "At sixes and sevens."
77. Some compound words consisting of a noun followed by a descriptive term or phrase, form their plaral by adding $s$ to the first word; as, court-martial, courts-martial; knight-errant, knights-errunt; futher-in-iaw, fathers-in-law. But we say spoonfuls, handfills, mouse-traps, mantraps.
78. Nouns adopted from foreign languages generally retain their original plural form. The following are some of the singular and plural terminations of these words. Latin-singular, $a$, $u s, u m, i s, i x$ or $e x$, make respectively in the plural, ae, $i$ or era, $a$, es, ices. Greek-singular, is, on, make respectively in the plural es or ides, $a$.

Thus: nebula, nebulae; calculus, calculi; genus, genera; memorandum, memoranda; amanuensis, amanuenses; appendix, appendices ; oasis, oases; apsis, apsides; phenomenon, phenomena.
other languaces.

| French. | Singular, | Plural. <br> Berux. <br> Mesdames <br> Messieurs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | (Beau, |  |
|  | \{ Madame, |  |
|  | Monsieur, |  |
| Italian. | $\{$ Bandit, | Banditti. |
|  | , Virtuoso, | Virtuosi. |
| Hebrew. | \{ Cherub, | Cherabim. |
| Hebrew. | Seraph, | Seraphim. |

79. The pupil will note the following. Alms is derived from the old French alnesse, and is strictly speaking singular, and was so used by ancient authors. Customs, meaning taxes or duties on imperted goods, has no singular, and must be distinguished from the plural of custom, habit. Letters, meaning literature, has no singular. Means is used in both numbers. Pains, meaning care, is joined with a plural verb. Gallows is joined to a singular verb. News is generally considered singular.

## WXERCISE III.

Form the plural of the following words:-Day, hero, goose, sister-in-law, pailful, half, folio, valley, surf, genus, madness, turf, portico, two, entry, seraph, alumnus, genius, chimney, fresco, m, 50, soliloquy, tornado, postman, son-in-law, memorandum, man-slayer, step-son.

Correct the errors in the following plurals:-Heres, delaies, shelfs, elfs, cherubims, stratas, kines, wharfs, cantoes, monies, folioes, twoes, childs, foots, seraphims, vertexes, potatos, echos, bodys, The Misses Whartons, prooves, dwarves, ts, is, octavoes, flagstaves, loafs.

## PERSON.

80. Person is an inflexion of the nown derived from its being the name of the person who speaks, of the person or thing spoken to, or of the person or thing spoken of.
81. The person speaking is said to be of the first person; but this person is rarely found except in pronouns. Nouns are in the first person, only when in apposition with $\curvearrowleft$ pronoun of the first person; as, "We petty men walk under his huge legs."
82. If the noun is the name of a person or thing spoken to, it is said to be of the second person; as, " John, come here;" " Must I leave thee, Paradise."
83. If the noun is the name of a person or thing spoken of, it is said to be of the third person; as "John came here;" "Eve left Paradise."
84. Person is derived from the Latin persona, a mask used in the ancient theatre. By a secondary meaning it was applied to the actor himself. The speaker thus becoming a person, the party spoken to was soon termed by Grammarians, the second person, and when another was introduced as the subject of their conversation, he was denominated the third person. In ancient tragedy, it may be remarked, more than three never appeared on the stage.

## GENDER.

85. Gender is an inflexion of the noun derived from its being the name of an animal of the male kind, or of an animal of the female kind.
86. Nouns are of two genders, or of no gender.

87 If the noun is the name of a male animal, it is said to be of the masculine gender ; as, man, lion.
88. If the noun is the name of a female animal, it is said to be of the feminine gender ; as, woman, lioness.
89. If the noun is the name of an object which has no sex, it has no gender ; as, book, chair.
90. Gender, therefore, depends on sex; sex being an attribute of living beings, gender, of the words which are the names of these beings. Where there is no sex, there is no gender.
91. In general, there is nothing in the form of a noun to
mdicaie its gender, except the terminations ess and $i x$ of the feminine; as, poet, poetess; executor, executrix.
92. Gender is sometimes distinguished by having different worts in the masculine and feminine ; as, boy, girl ; beau, belle.
93. In some instances distinction of gender is denoted by the addition of a word; as, man-servant, maid-servant; bridegroom, 'bride
94. The masculine form is often employed in a general way to include both males and females. Thus, although we have the forms poet and poetess, author and authoress, the words poet and author may include persons of botù sexes. It is to be observed, however, that the masculine term is always employed when the office occupation, profession, \&c., and not the sex of the individual, is chiefly to be expressed; and that the feminine term is nsed in those cases only when discrimination of sex is indispensably necessary. This may be illustrated by the following examples. If I say, " 'The poets of this age are distinguished more by correctness of taste than by sublimity of conception," 1 . clearly include in the term poet both male and female writers of poetry. If I say, "She is the best poetesssin this country," I assign her the superiority over those only of her own sex. If I say." She is the best poet in this country," I assign her the superiority over all other writers of poetry, both male and femaie.
95. Some nouns, such as parent, child, friend, being applicable to either sex, are sometimes improperly said to be of the common gender. If the singular form oceurs in a sentence, and if the context enables us to tell its gender, it should be said to be of the gender so made known. If the context gives us no idea of its-gender, the expression we should use in speaking of its gender is "maseuline or feminine," not common. If the plural form occurs, the context should be used in the same way, and if it will not aid, the noun in the plural may be called common gender. The proper application of the term common gender is to plural nouns or pronouns, which convey the iaca of both sexes.
96. Some nouns having no gender are often said to be of the masculine or feminine. Thus we say of the sun, " $H e$ is setting ;" of a ship, "She has just come into port." Such words are said to be personified. (Sce 525.)
97. The rule in this case seems to be that, the names of things remarkable for their strength, courage, or majesty, should have the masculine gender assigned to them; thus, time, death, anger, joy, winter; and that the names of things remarkable for gentler ${ }^{\sim}, s$, fruitfulness, beauty, the feminine gender ; as, the earth, spring, hope. (See Collins' Ode to the Passions).
98. When speaking of Animals, particularly those of inferior size, and sometimes even of infants, we frequently con-
sider them as devoid of sex; as, "The rat is a bold and daring creature; and is also crucl to its enemy." "The child was lying in its cradle."
99. Collective nouns, if they convey the idea of unity, or take the plural form, are considered as having no gender; as, "The army on its approach raised a shout of defiance." But if they convey the idea of plurality without the plural torm, they take the gender of the individuals that compose the collection; as, "The jury could not agree upon their verdict."
100. The following are examples of masculines and feminines, the latter being more of less irregular.

Abbot, abbess.
Bachelor, - maida, spinster.
Chamberlain, chambermaid.
Czar, czurina.
Don, donna.
Duke, duchess.
Earl, countess.
Fox, vixen.
Friar and monk, nun.
Gaffer, gammer.
Hart, roc.
Hero, Heroine.
Landgrave, lanugravine.
Margrave, margravine.

Ogre, ogress.
Signor, signora
Stag, hind
Steer, heifer.
Sultan, sultana.
Swain, nymph.
Votary, votaress.
Widower, widow.
Wizard, witch.
Joseph, Josephine.
Augustus, Augusta.
Henry, Henrietta.
Francis, Frances.
Jullus, Julia or Juliet.

## FXERCISE IV.

Name the genders of the following nouns:-Aunt, duke, duch* ess, wizard, monk, niece, heiress, tigress, roe, goose, hind, pea ${ }^{-}$ hen, queen, viscount, earl, marquis, empress, witch, sloven, bridegroom, donna, testatrix, ewg-lamb.

Correct the errors in the following sentences:-Among the ladies of the household were a duchess, a chamberlain, a marquis, a vicountess, an earl, a baron, four peers of the realm, a princess, the dauphin, the young czar, a landgrave, and a margravine. He divided the males from the females, placing in one field, the oxen, the ewes, the heifers, the geese ; and in another, the females-the pea-hens, the fillies, the drakes, and the young does.

Write out the feminines of the following words :-Arbiter, czar, don, gaffer, directo:, úuke, prince, carl, dauphin, executor, heir, landgrave, marquis, sultan, peer, viscount, negro, friar, testator, tiger, votary, beau, drake, master, sir, lady.

Write out the masculines of the following words:-Lady, niece, witch, vixen, roe, abbess, infanta, bride, lass, dam, hind, landlady.

CASE.
101. Case is an inflexion of the nouu derived from the relation which the noun has to some other word in the sentence.
102. If the noun is the subject of a verb, it is said to be in the nominative case; as, "John is present." If the noun is immediately followed by a participle, and have no direct dependence on any other word in the sentence, it is said to be in the nominative absolute; as, "John being present, we will commence." Finally, if the noun is the name of t.e person or thing addressed, it is said to be in the nominative of address; as, "John. why were you not present when we began work?" "Ye crays and peaks, I'm with you once again"
103. If the nom is the name of $a$ person or thing represented as possessing something, it is said be in the possessive case, which is usually expressed by writing the noun with an apostrophe and the letter $s$ attached ; as " John's book"; " the mountain's brow."
104. The origin of the apostrophe and the letter $s$ to mark the possessive case, may be thus explained. In the Anglo Saxon language, nouns generally formed theit plural by adding as to the singular. As the language changed, the plural cane to be formed by adding es, which was also the general case ending of the genitive (possessive) singular : consequently, to distinguish between the two cases, the $e$ in the possessive singular was omitted, and an apostrophe used in its place.
105. To avoid concurrent hissing sounds, it is sometimes expedient to mark the possessive singular by an apostro; he only ; as, "Moses' rod ;" "for conscience' sake." If the plural end in $s$, the same rule is observed in forming its possessive.
106. If the noun is the object of an action or of a relation, it is said to be in the objective case; as, "William accompanied John"; "William walked with John."
107. This case is usually found after a transitive verb, (see 168) or after a preposition. (see 340.)
108. As may have been already seen from the foregroing remarks, nouns have three cases, Nominative, Possessive, and Oljective.
109. The nominative and objective are the same ia form, and ean only be distingnished by the context.
110. The possessive is often resolvable into the objective with the preposition of. Thus, "the king's crown" is equivalent to "the crown of the king." It is usual, however, when inanimate objects are represented as possessors, to use the objective form ; thus, to say " the foot of the mountain" rather than " the mountain's foot." Although the possessive form has generally the same meaning as the objective with the preposition, is in the examples here given, this is not always the case. Sometimes the meaning is very different, arising, in part, from the position of the accented noun in the sentence, for example: Latham's English Language, is not quite the same as the English Language of Latham. The attention is called to the man in the former expression, and to the book, or perhaps to his style, in the latter. The lives of the Peots of Jolnson, is different both in sense and sound, from Jolinson's Lives of the Poets; still more does it differ from Johnson's Poets' Lives. Compare the Lord's $D_{a y}$ with the Day of the Liord.
111. Ancient grammarians represented the nominative case by a perpendicular line, the others, by oblique fines, forming angles with the upright line. The nominative case was called the upright case, from the line chosen to represent it; the others, oblique cases, which being represented by lines bending or falling awny from the perpendicular, repeating the forms of the noan for these cases was called declension, and the noun was said to be declined. These terms, thus, at first restricted to the noun, were atterwards applied to other parts of speech. Similar remarks, may be made with regard to the terms inflexion and inflected.
112. The nouns boy, man, city, are thus declined:

Singular.
Nom. Boy man city Poss. Boy's man's city's Obj. Boy man city

## Plural.

boys men cities boys' men's cities' boys men cities

EXERCISE V.
Write the possessive case singular, and where allowable, t.ie possessive case plural, of the followina words:-Torch, calf, lynx, echo, father-in-law, courtmartial, lady, goose, life, beau, negro, deer, children, forest, ocean, judge, chance, vice, conch, peeress, Watts, girls, city, oxen, artist, my brother, Augustus, Bolton the carriage-maker, Robert Burns, Catherine Philips, Henry II, Sir William Jones, Demosthenes, the Athenian orator.

Correct errors in the following sentences:-Despairs long sigh and Griefs convulsive sob. A mothers tenderness and a fathers
care are N -tures gift's for mans' advantage. The picture of her son's dues not much resemble hin. Socrates's teachings were in admance of his age. I have not rend Horace' epistles. Neither John nor his brother's scholarship was very high. The peace of Westphalia closed the Thirty Years War. The measure gained the king as well as the peoples approbation. Moses rod was turned into a Serpent. For goodness's solie do not go 1 expect to visit his brother's John's monument.

## PARSING.

Selecting the nouns from the following sentences, fill up on slate or paper a table similar to the subjoined, making the folJowing abbreviations: for proper, prop.; for commen, com.; for singular, sing.; for plural, plur.; for first, second and third the nsual abbreviations; for the gender, masc., fem., or no gen.; for the cases, nom., poss., obj.

| Word | Class | Sub-Class | Inflexion |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\operatorname{man}^{\text {man }}$ | noun | com | sing., 3id., nmase., nom. |
| Mary | noun | prop. | sing., 3d., fem., nom. |
| books | noun | com. | plur., 3t., no gen., nom. |

John reads. Mary writes. The ship was lost. The dog, Dash barked. John's book fell. Jrmes's slate was broken. Good morning, William. The truth of the matter is not known. She sang a sweet song. Gentlemen, do your believe the story? f earried the parcel. Birds fly. He drove the oxen. The bells of the church ring. Sam broke the top. The river rises in the foot of the motratain. He stops at home. I, John, saw. He did it for conscience' sake. Birds' nests are wonderful structures. Evening's shades came on. Go awry James. Men's minds are eapable of cosceiving great things.

## ADJECTIVE.

113. An Adjective is a word added to a nomn to Gimit or qualify its meaning; as, a book, this book, cach book, a new. book, the groad book.
114. There are three sub-classes of adjectives, Defimitive, Attributive, and Participial.
115. Definitive adjectives are those which define nouns, that is, which refer to the number, position, extent, particularity, or any limitation of the objent de. notel by the noun.
116. The following are examples, a, an, the; one, tioo, thive, \&c.; first, second, third, \&c.; former, latter, last ; each, every, eiiher, neither; this, that, these, those, yon, yonder; any, all, no, none, few, some, several, much, many, more, most, which, what, whether, such, same, other, own, Nova-Scotian.
117. The word whether is strictly a definitive adjective, donoting which of the two, but our present employment of the word requires the two things to be specified separatelv, by means of the conjunction or, in which case it is either a conjunction or definitive adjective. Thus, in the sentence, " whether is William's offer or Joseph's better," equivalent to "whether offer is betrerWilliam's or Joseph's?" whether is a conjunction or definitive adjective.
118. An attributive adjective is added to a roun, to express an attribute or quality as existing in the object of which the noun is the name; as, "a sweet apple."
119. The participial adjective is the present or the prast participle of a verb, (See 205) when this participle occurs alone or in immediate connexion with a noun. Thus in the sentence, " he seemed for dignity composed," composed is an adjective participial, qualifying leo or the noun for which he stands. Agrain, in the sentence, "thus repelsed, our final hope is flat despair," repulsed is an adjective participial, qualifying the speaker and others.
120. Such words may, however, be regarded as participles forming part of a passive voice, (see 177) the necessary words being understood. In the sentence given above, "he seemed for dignity composed," composed may be considered as part of a passive voice. Thus, supplying the necessary words, "he seemed as one who was composed for dignity." But the simplest sway to deal with such words is, to call them adjectives. (See 300).
121. The definitive adjective $a$ is, merely, an abbreviation of an which is the representative of the Anglo Saxon word meaning one ; a being used when the word following begins with a consonant, or the sound of $w_{\text {, }}$ cr $y$; as, $a$ book, $a$ slate, $a$ wise man, such $a$ one, such $a$ humor.
122. Words other than proper Adjectives may be used as adjectives to modify objects of thought, losing in such ase, their own proper nature. Nouns are frequently used thus; as, " A mountain rill," "A fuiry vision," "Sunset scene." Adverbs and prepositions are sometimes so used; as, "The mider current," "Hither Gaul." "The then administration?" Verbs and phrases
are used in the same way : as, "The domohing poticy," "An wut-of-the-way place," "Tinat necer-to-le-sulficiently-commended course.
123. Sometimes, to form a class, the definitive adjective the is prefixed to other adjectives which refer to plural nouns understood; and to form an abstract noun, is prefixed to adjectives which refer to singular nouns; as, "Men call the proud happy," "Then the forms of the cleparted," "He is reading Burke on 'The Sublime.'"
124. The only inflexion which the English adjective admits is called Comparison. Of this there ave said to be three degrees, Positive, Conıparative, and Superlative, distinguishing the various degrees in which a quality is possessed by various objects.
125. Adjectives which do not admit of comparison are called invariable; those admitting of comparison, variable, though this last term is rarely used.
126. In some languages the adjective is inflected like the noun, having number, gender and case. This was so in the Anglo Saxon. The only instance we have of this kind of inflexion in English, is the number of the definitive adjectives this and that, which have, respuctively, these and those in the plural.
127. An adjective in its simple state is said to be in the positive degree; as, "a tall man," "a swift horse."
128. An anjective denoting that the object of which it expresses a quality, possesses a greater ciagree of that quality than another object, is said to be in the comparative degree ; as, "John is taller than James," "my horse is swifter than his."
129. An adjective denoting that the object of which it expressess a quality, possesses the greatest degree of that quality, as compared with several other objects, is said to be in the superlative degrec; as, "John is the tallest boy in the school," "my horse is the swiftest in the town."
130. Attributive adjectives only, admit of comparison. Most definitive adjectives are invariable. However, some attrìButive adjectives are invariable; those that in their simple form express the quality as possessed by the object in the highest degree; as superior, supreme, omnipotent, universal, perfect, complete, \&c.; or those which denote figure, shape, or position ; as, square, circular, straight, horizontal, \&c. Usage may be pleaded
in favor of merre and most universal, mare and most perfect, none and most complete, but good writers generally avoid such expres. sions. The expressions, so universal, so extreme, are imiproper.
131. The comparative and superlative degrees are formed from the positive, by adding er and est respectively; $r$ and st if the adjective end in $e$. Thas, pos. tall, compar. taller, super. tallcst; pos. wise, compar. wiser, super. wisest.
132. Adjectives of two or more syllables do not form theic comparatives ard superlatives by adding er and est; but by prefixing more and most to the positive; as, pos. studious, eompar. more studious, super. most studious. Less and least also, indicate comparison; as, studions, kess studious, least studious.

1 $\measuredangle 3$. Adjectives of two syllables ending in $y$, as Aappy, or le after a mite, as noble, or accented on the last syllable as polite. may be conipared either way.
134. The termination $28 h$ added to an adjective causes the adjective to express a degree leas thisa the positive; as reddisk, "tending to red"; rather, added to the adjective, has the same effect. Rather sometimes expresses too mich of a quality; thus, "rather red," may mean too red.
135. Combinatioss of adjectives with sertain adverbs express -hat is called the superlative of eminence; as, very beautifill, exceedingly careful.
136. Some adjectives are irreguler in comparison. The Collowing are examples,

Pos.
Good
Bad o: Evil
Little
Much or Many
Near Far Forth Late old

Compar. better worse tess or lesser more nearer farther further liater or istter older or elder.

Super. best worst le.ist most nearest or next farthest furthest latest or last oldest or eldest
137. Some adjectives form the Superlative by: annexiag wost to the positive or comparative; thus,

| Pog. | Cosppar. | Stuper. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Low | lower | lowest or lowermost |
| Hind | hinder | hindmost or hindermost |
| Up | upper | upmost or uppermost |
| In | inner | frmost or innermost |
| Out | onter or utter | gitmost, utmost, \&e, \&e. |
| Face | Sormer | foremost aidist |

A man he was to all the country dear. And passing rich on forty pounds a year. The operations of Nature though slow are sure. And in the lowest deep a lower deep. Every object a little while ago glowed with bright light. Some place their bliss in action, some in ease; those call it pleasure, and contentment these. The Supreme Court held its usual session. He is a
superior teacher. It is the most extraordinary story I have ever heard. The British Empire comprises territories in many lands. Each of the angles is a right angle. The most eminent physir.ians. He obtained a plain answer. I shall never forget the clelightful sensation with which I exchanged the dark, smoky, smothering atmosphere of the Highland hut for the refreshing fragrance of the mo"ning air. He had no longer that firm seat. The all-behoiding Sun. Like pampered lions from the spoils they came. The shrinking eye still glanced on grim decay. Advancing darkness broods upon the wild horizon. On the tiwentieth of February. Some of the greatest philosophers have been engaged in the pursuits of active life. There is scarcely a more melancholy sight. All is sour and cheerless. The straggling daylight shows the unmeasured desert wan. As in the hurrying march. Thought and valor mlrrored in his eye. How would ye bear, in real pain to lie, despised, neglected, left alone to die? The increasing heat preyed upon his strength. What striking lessons have we not had. The labering vessels fly. Now came the last and most wondertul sign. Cradled in the field, he was to the last hour the darling of the army. In a former work.

## PRONOUN.

138. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, to prevent the too frequent repetition of the noun ; as, "John came yesterday, and he will return by the train which leaves at noon to-day."
139. As the essence of the pronoun consists in its standing for the nom, no word whose place cannot be supplied by a noun, is a pronoun. This test will get rid of many so-called pronouns.
140. There are two kinds or sub-classes of pronouns, Personal, and Relative.
141. The personal pronouns are those which are put for persons ; as, $I$, thou, we, she, \&c.
142. The word it is usually called a personal pronoun, though the name is almost always incorrect, as it is nore frequently applied to inanimate, than to animate objects. (Sre 215, 217.)
143. Relative pronouns are generally those which relate to some word or phrase mentioned before; as, "The man who was here," "The horse which was bought."
144. The relative pronoms are who, which, and thut. Who is put for persons; which for lower animals and inamimate things.
145. When the relative pronouns are used in asking questions, they always refer to the answer io the question. Ir. such cases the ${ }_{j}$ are sometimes called interrogativs pronouns. In using these pronouns interrogatively, it is to be observed, that who and which are each apphed to persons. This difference, however, is to be obscrved, that when the pronorm which is used interrog. atively, and applied to persons, it is generally, if not alivays, anderstood that the character of the individual who is the subject of the enquiry is in some degree known. Who is more indefinite. If I say, "Which is the man?" I mean of those now before me or of those who have been described. If I say, "Who is the man that will dare to offend?" it implies that I am entirely a stranger to him, and that I even doubt his existence. "Which is the man?" not odly implies his existei:ce, but also that the aggregate of individuals whence the selection is made, is known to me. When we enquire into the character or occupation of any person or thing and not for the individual itself, we employ whet; as, "What is man that thou art mindful of him ?"
146. Relative pronorns have also a conjunctive signification; as, "The man who was here yesterday is gone," equivalent to "The man-and he was here yesterday-is gone." "Light is a body which moves with great velocity," equivalent to, "Light is a body-and it moves with great velocity."
147. But is often used after a negative clause, apparently for a relative, or its equivalent, and a negative; as,
"No cliff so bare but on its steep Thy favors may be found."
i.e., that on its steep-may not be found.
148. Pronouns being put for nouns, have the same inflexions, Number, Person, Gender, Case.
149. The remarks on gender, given when speaking of the noun (See 95) will apply to the pronoun, where the gender is not marked by the form of the word.
150. The number, person, and case of the pronouns are seen by the following:

|  | First Person. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Sing. | Plur. |
| Nom. | I | We |
| Poss. | My or Mine | Our or Ours |
| Obj. | Me | Us |

Sheond Person.

| Sing: | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Nom. You or Thou | Ye or You |
| Poss. Your or Yours, Thy or Thine | Your or Yours |
| Obj. You or Thee | You |

Third Person.


## Relative.

> Siny. or Plur.
> Who, which, that
> Whose, whose, whose
> Whom, which, that
151. It is customary for a Sovereign to use the first person plural form instead of the singular, in speaking formally of his or herself. Thus, the Queen at the end of a prochmation, or other official document uses this language: "In testimony whereof, we have hercunto set our seal." So reviewers and editors use the plural of the first person. They write as if personating their readers and as their organ, just as the Queen personates the nation. In public worship, the use of the plural in prayer is proper, as the speaker is but the monthpiece of the assembly; in the discourse or address to the assembly, it is improper, although not uneommon.
152. When the proper plural form of the personal pronoun is used for the singular, self is used; as, "You, John, yourself are in fault." "Done by ourself the king." "While editor of this journal we announce ourself as individually responsible for every article that appears."
153. When proncuns are used as nouns they are indeclinable; as, "I don't fear the proudest he in Christendom," "Each bush and oak doth know i Am."
154. Formerly, thou only was used in the singular, you in the plural. At present, you is used in both numbers, and thou is no longer employed except in solemn speeeh, or to express the familiarity of tenderness or contempt; as, "O thou that with surpassing glory crowned, look'st from thy sole dominion like the god of this new world." "No father shall thy corpse compose; thy dying eyes no tender mother close." "I'll theu thee, thou
traitor." The same distinction is to be observed hetween ye and you as between theu and you.
155. My, thy, her, your, \&c., cannot be used without the noun ; mine, thine, hers, yours, \&e., are used alone. Mine in such cases is equivalent to my and the noun ; thine to thy and the noun. Mine and thine were formerly used before words beginning with a vowel ; as, "Blot ont mine iniquities," "If thine eye offend thee." This usage is now peculiar to poets ; as, "Time writes no wrinkle on thine azure brow."
156. Sometimes compound personal pronouns are formed by the addition of the nouns self and selves; they are, myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, ourself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, themselves. They are resolvable into a noun and personal pronoun in the pissessive case, with the exception of himself, itself, and themselves, which are used instead of hes-self, $i$ is-seif, and their-selves. When the adjective own intervenes we must employ his, its, and their ; as, his own self. We sometimes, though very seldom, find the compound personal pronouns used as.subjects of veibs. Thus, "Which way I fly is heli; myself am Hell." Some grammarians hold that in all such cases, the simple pronoun is the real nominative, understood. According to this theory, compound personal pronouns are never used as subjects, except in apposition with simple pronouns; as, "He, himself knows if it be truc."
157. Which is sometimes used as a definitive adjective; as, "Which side do you prefer?"
158. What is almost always a definitive adjective. "Thus, in the sentence "Consider what I say," what is an adjective, qualifying the word thing understuod, which word thing is governed by say (See 313) and the noun sentence (See 380) " what I say" is governed by consider.
159. Most grammarians, howeyer, call what a " compound relative," which "includes both the antecedent and the relative," and "is equivalent to the thing which." Thus, in the sentence given above, they would resolve what into the thing which, and the sentence then would read "Consider the thing which I say;" thing being governed by consider, and which by say.
160. What is sometimes equivalent to partly; thus, "What with fatigue, and what with fasting, he was exhausted." In -such case, what is an adverb.
161. The compound relative whoever signifies perery or any one who. We have also the similar compounds, whicnever, whatever, whosoever, \&c.
162. The word as has come by ellipsis to have occasionally the office of a relative ; thus, "Such as were admitted" is an abridgement of "Such as they who were admitted." When as
is a relative, it generally refers to the word such, or same, or else some adjective modified by the adverb, as or so; but sometimes as is equivalent to $a$ or the thing which. Tbus, "You said the samé as I did," "As many as came were admitted," "The views are different, as has been clearly shown;" that is a thing which has.
163. One, other, another, are definitive adjectives except when they stand for, and are declined like nouns, in which case they are pronouns; as, "One ough to know one's own mind,", "Do unto others, as you would wish they should do unto you," "Teach me to feel another's woe."
164. The possessive its is a form of modern origin ; his, being, formerly, the possessive ease of it as well as of he. We find it so in Shakespeare, "It is not meet that every nice offence 'should bear his Eomment."

## EXERCISE VII.

Correct the errors in the following sentences:-As for meself, I am indifferent which course be taken. He praises hisself. The bc:: is yourn, not his, nor theirn.. By the authority of ourselves, the king. We used the privilege of an editor, and took a free passage for ourselves and our good wife. Their's is a sad case. The effects of an act do not end with it selt. They prostrated their selves kefore the king. The difficulty will cure its self. This lot is ourn; that is hisn. Our's is a great land. It is not her's. We have spoken thus far in this discourse of the external circumstances of this transaction; I now proceed to consider its real nature and character.

## PARSING.

Parse the nouns, adjectives and pronouns in the following sentences according to the tabulated form given in Exercises 5 and 6. For instructions regarding the parsing of the pronoun, see those given for the noun in Exercise 5.

I charm thy life from the weapons of strife. From sickness I charm thec. And water shall hear me. Thou shalt live in thy pain. All pay themselves the compliment to think they one uay shall not drivel. Thy spirit, Independence, lct me share. Nature, I'll cotirt in her sequestered haunts. When joy's bright sun has shed his evening ray. Who can tell the triumphs of the nind? On a rock whose haughty brow frowns o'er old Conway's foaming flood. O'er thee O king! their hundred arms they wave. Reft of a crown, he yet may share the feast. Heard ye the din of battle bray? Be thine despaiz, and sceptred care; to triumph and to die are mine. I saw a vision in my sleep that gave my spirit strength to sweep adown the gulf of time. First, Fear-his hand, its skill to try, amid the chords bewildered laid.

Hope, enchanted, smiled and waved her golden hair. And longer had she sung. The world recedes-it disappears. To him who in the love of Nature holds communion with her visible forms, she speaks a various language. I venerate the man whose heart is warm. To us who dwell on its surface, the e rth is by far the most extensive orb that our eyes can anywhere behold. Some books also may be read by deputy, and extracts of them made by others. It is thou, Liberty, thrice sweet and gracious goddess, whom all in public and in private, worship. What is your present situation there, my Lords? Ye stars which are the poctry of heaven. The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars but in ourselves, that we are underlings. I tremble at myself and in myself am lost. Rely on your own judgment, and do whatever you think proper. Cassius, you yourself are much condemned to have an itching palm.

## VERB.

165. A verb is a word which asserts.

Note.-A verb commands, interrogates \&c., but it is assertion which is most intimately associated with our idea of the verb.
166. A verb may assert that something performs an action, or it may assert without implying action; as - John struck the table," "God is," "He seems to be in good health."
167. From this we have two grand sub-classes of verbs; the one, asserting action, and called either transitive or intransitive ; the other, asserting something that is not action, such as existence purely, or existence in a certain state or condition, and called inactive.
168. A transitive verb is one expressing or asserting action whi h passes from the actor to an object. In the sentence, "John struck the table," struck is a verb transitive, for the reason already given.
169. An intransitive verb is one expressing or asserting action which does not pass from the actor, but is confined to himself. In the sentence, "John walks," walks is a verb intransitive, for the reason already given.
170. Many verbs are used both transitively and intransitively, the context only determining which they are ; as, to grieve. A person himself grieves, or he may grieve another; that is, cause another to grieve. We may say, "He grieved.his friend, where
the verb is transitive; or, "He grieves for his friend, where the verb is intransitive. Some verbs have two forms to express these two senses; as, rise and raise, fall and fell, lie and lay, sit and set.
171. An inactive verb is one which expresses or asserts no action ; but exprasses or asserts being, state, or condition; as, "I am," " he sleeps," "he sits."
172. The inflexions of the verb are, Voice, Mood, Tense, Number and Person.

## VOICE.

173. Voice is an inflexion of the verb derived from its denoting whether the subject is the actor or the object of the action expressed by the verb.
174. If the subject is the actor, the verb is said to be in the active voice. Thus in the sentence given above, "John struck the table," the verb, struck; is said to be in the active voice, because John, the subject, is the actor.
175. If the subject is the object. of the action expressed by the verb, that verb is said to be in the passive voice. Thus, in the sentence "The table was struck by John," which assertion, it will be observed expresses, precisely, the same idea as the other assertion, the verb, was struck, is said to be in the passive voice, because the subject, table, is the object of the action.
176. From this it will be seen that, properly speaking, no intransitive verb can be in the passive voice, since it has no object.
177. The passive voice is formed by adding the past participle of a transitive verb to some part of the verb " to be."

Note.-When the verb is in the artive voice, its object is passive; that is doing nothing itself but having something done to it. When the verb is in the passive voice, it is really the nominative (object in act. voice) which is passive. This passive state of the nominative is indicated by the passive voice of the verb.
178. When it is found that an intransitive verb is used in the passive voice, it will be seen that the part of the verb "to be" has the force of has, or that the participle is properly an adjective unconnected with the verb. Thas in the sentence, " He is fallen," fallen is, properly speaking, an adjectice.
179. The following scheme will show at a glance the divisions of the verb as laid down above.

[condition
 active voice
passive voice

## MOOD.

180. Mood is an inflexion of the verb, showing the mode or manner in which the action, being, state, or condition asserted by the verb, is expressed.
181. There are said to be five moods; Infinitive, Indicative, Imperative, Potential and Subjunctive.
182. The Infinitive mood expresses the action, being, \&c., in an indefinite or general way, without respect to number or person, and is denoted by the sign to along with the simple verb; as, "He loves to study." Sometimes the sign to is understood; as, "I saw him do it."
183. The word to prefixed to the infinitive is merely its sign substituted for the Anglo Saxon infinitive terminations an,
ean, ian. According to Horne Took, the worl to in this sense, is derived from a Gothic noun, signifying act, do. Verbs in Englisis are not distinguished, as in other languages, by a peeuliar termination ; therefore this word to, that is $d o$, became necessary to be prefixed instead of the Anglo Saxon termination of the infinitive, in order to distinguish them from nouns, and to invest them with the verbral character. Thus, "To play is pleasant, and boys love to play," is equivalent to "Play is plensant ant boys love play;" to distinguishing between the noun and the verb. Compare "He loves to study" and "He loves study."
184. The Indicative mood asserts simply; as, "Halifax is the capital of Nova Scotia." "He wrote the letter."
185. The Indicative mood is used in asking questions. Thus, " Did he write the letter?"
186. The Imperative mood is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting ; as, "Go, preach to the coward"; "Keep the commandments"; "Give us this day our daily bread"; "Go in peace."
187. The Potential mood implies power, liberty, possibility, will, obligation ; as, "I can sing," "He may go," " It may be so," "I would be left to myself," " He must go."
188. The Subjunctive mood expresses a doubt, or leaves a question undecided; as, "If he be guilty, [a thing I doubt, or will not affirm, or cannot admit] he belies his whole life.
189. If is the usual sign of the subjunctive mood, but all verbs preceded by that sign are not in that mood. The following sentence, in which the verb is is in the indicative mood, compared with the sentence last given, will show the difference between the subjunctive and indicative moods. If he is not guilty, [ $几$ thing I do not question] you will be able to prove it at the trial." The following expressions are not, therefore strictly correct, the meaning being affirmative-nothing doubtful or undecided. "Although she be abundantly grateful to all her protectors, I observe your name most often in her month." "The paper, although it be written with spirit, would have scarce cleared a shilling." But the following are correct : If thou be the Son of God, cast thyself down," "If I $b e$ in difficulty I will ask your aid."

TENSE.
190. Tense is an inflexion of the verb, denoting the Eime of the action, being, state, or condition, asserted by the verb.
191. Tense, as it expresses time, must, properly speaking, have only three distinctions; Present, Past, Fiture.
192. It is usual, however, to make six distinctions ; Present, Past, Perfect, Pluperfeth, (more correctly Prior-Perfect,) First Future, and Second Fruture.
193. The Present Tense expesses, simply, time present ; as, "I worite," "I walk."
194. The Past Tense expreqes time past ; as, " I corote," "I walked."
195. The Perfect Tense epresses, net only that an action, being, \&c., is past, hit also expresses that the action, \&c., was completed ist before the assertion was made respecting it; as, " have written the letter." In making this assertion, I ansupposed to make it the moment after finishing the weing.
196. The sign of the Perfectlense is have, has, or hath.
197. This tense is also used express a past action whose consequences extend to the presej time; as, "I aave neglested my duty, and am tnerefore unhare" It is also used in making an assertion regarding authors lose works are in existence, though they themselves may blong since dead; as, "Cicero has written orations."
198. The Pluperfect Prior-Perfect) Tense expresses, not only that araction, being, state, \&c., is past, but that it was fin ed before another point of past time; as, "I had posd the letter before the mail was closed."
199. The sign of this te is had or hadst.
200. The First Fute Tense expresses that the - action, being, state, \&c. sserted by the verb, will take place in the future; ei mentioning the exact time or not; as, "The suu 4 rise tomorrow," "I shall see them again."
201. The sign of thense is shall or will, shalt or wilt.
202. The Secon Future, or as it is sometimes
called the Future Perfect, expresses that the action, \&c. will take place in the future, but before another future action; as, "I shall have possed the letter before the mail closes."
203. The sign of this tense is shall have or vill have, shald nave or wilt have.

## NUMBER AND PERSON.

204. Verlss are qaid to have the same number and person as their suljects. These inflexions properly belong to the sroject which is a noun or pronown, and not to the verb, which simply signifies action.

## PARTICIPLES.

205. A Participleis a part of the verb deriving its mame from its particiating in the properties of the verb and the adjectie. The remarks made when speaking of participial djectives, (See 119) may be referred to here.
206. There are thretparticiples in each voice.

## Active

1. Present Striking
2. Past
3. Perfect
4. Perfect Having strck
5. The participle in thenctive voice, ending in ing, and not connected with any part of the verb to be, will be either a noun or an adjective; as, "Andibears no sound save his own dashing" (noun); "Surrenderin ap thine individual being, thou shalt go to mix with the elelents." (adj.)
6. The past participa, nt connected with have or be, can be an adjective oniy. (See eumples under 120).
REGULAR, IRREGULAR, AUKILIARY, DEFECTIVE, AND IMPERSONLL VERBS.
7. Verbs are said to be Regular, when they form their past tense, and past particple by the addition of $e d$ ( $d$ if the verb end $e$ ) to the pesent; as,

| Present | Past |
| :---: | :---: |
| Favor | favored |
| Save | saved |

Past Participle favored saved
210. Verbs are said to be Irregular, when they do not form thoir past tense and past participle in this way ; as,
Present

Write $\quad$\begin{tabular}{r}
Past <br>
wrote

$\quad$

Past Participlc <br>
written
\end{tabular}

211. Irregular verhs are sometimes called stron? verbs; regular verbs, weak. The reason for this is plain: irregular verbs form their past tense from themselues, by some internal change in the letters which compose the word; the regular veris reyuire aid from without, an additional letter or letters.
212. Auxiliary verbs are those verbs which are placed before certain parts of principal verbs to express those voices, moods, tenses, \&c. which, in other languages, are expressed by terminations. They are bc, do, have, shall, will, let, may, can, must. Of these the first six are also used as principal verbs.
213. Ought is sometimes called an auxiliary, but as it does not occasion the suppressioil of the infinitive sign $t$, it is not properly an auxiliary.
214. Defective verbs are those which have ouly a few forms. All the auxiliaries, except be, do, have, are defective. To these must be added, quoth for said, yclept for called.
215. Impersonal verbs are those which take it as their nominative; the it referring to nothing in particular ; as, " It rains," " It snows."
216. Meseems and methinks are old impersonal verbs sill in use.
217. The word it is sometimes employed as a grammatical object to a transitive verb, when nothing definite is represented by that pronoun; as, "Come, and trip it as you go." "He carries it with a high hand." "He lords it. It is also made a subject representing a noun or a pronouu in any number, person, or gender ; as " $I t$ is $I$," "It is they," "It is she," "It is James."
218. The following is a list of the Irregular verbs.

Present Abide
Am A wake

Past
abode
was
awoke, awaked

Past part. abode been awaked

Present
Bear, for-
Beat
Begin
Bend, un-

- Bereave

Beseech
Bid, for-
Bind, un-, re-
Bite
Bleed
Blow
Break
Breed
Bring
Build, re-
Burn
Burst
Buy
Cast, re-
Catch
Chide
Choose
Cleave(to split)*
Cling
Clothe
Come be-, over-
Cost
Creen
Crow
Cut
Dare (to venture) $\dagger$
Deal
Dig
Do, un-, over-- out-
Draw, with-
Drink
Drive
Dwell
Eat
Fall, be-
Feed
Feel
Fight
Find

Past
bore, bare
beat
began
bent, bended
bereft, bereaved
besought
bid, bade
bound
bit
bled
blew
brok 3
bred
brought
built
burnt, burned
burst
bought
cast
caught
chid
chose
clove, cleft
clung
clad, clothed
came
cost
crept
crew, crowed
cut
durst
dealt, dealed
dug, digged
did
drew
diank, drunk
drove
dwelt, dwelled
ate
fell
fed
felt
fought
found

Past part.
borne, born
beut, beatcn
begun
bent, bended
bcreft, hereaved
besought
bid, bidden
bound
bit, bitten
bled
blown
broken
bred
brought
built
burnt, burned
burst
bought
cast
caught
chid, chidden
chosen
clovein, cleft
clung
clad, clothed
come
cost
crept
crowed
cut
dared
dealt, dealed
digged, dng
done
drawn
drunk
driven
dwelt, dwelled
eaten
fallen
fed
felt
fought
found

[^0]| Present | Past | Past Part. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Flee | fled | fled |
| Fling | flung | flung |
| Fly | flew | flown |
| Forsake | forsook | forsaken |
| Freeze | froze | frozen |
| Get, be-, for- | got | got, gotten |
| Gild, re- ${ }_{\text {Gird, }}$ | gilt, gilded | gilt, gilded |
| Gird, be-, un- | girt, girded | girt, girded |
| Go, under-, fore-* | went | gone |
| Grave, en- | graved | graven, graved |
| Grow, over- | ground | ground |
| Hang, $\dagger$ over- | hung | grown |
| Have | had | had ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| Hear, over- | heard | heard |
| Hewi | hewed | hewn, hewed |
| Hide | hid | hid, hidden |
| Hit ${ }^{\text {Hit }}$ | hit | hit ' |
| Hold, be-, with-, up- | held | held, holden |
| Hurt | hurt | lurt |
| Keej, | kept | kept |
| Kneel | knelt, knceled | knelt, kneeled |
| Knit | knit, knitted | knit, knitted |
| Lade, un-, over- | laded | laden |
| Lay, in-, mis- | laid | lad |
| Iead, mis- | led | led |
| Leave | left | left |
| Lend | lent | lent- |
| Let | let | let |
| Lie (to rest) $\ddagger$ | lay | lain |
| Light | lit, lighted | lit, lighted |
| Lose | lost | lost |
| Mean | meant | made |
| Meet | met |  |
| Mow | mowed | mown, mowed |
| Pay, re-p pre- | paid | paid |
| Pen(to inclose) | pent | pent |
| Put | pit | put |
| Read | quit, quitted read | quit, quitted |
| Rend | rent | rent |

[^1]| Present | Past | Past Part. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rid | rid | rid |
| Ride | rode | ridden, rode |
| Ring | rang, rugg | rung |
| Rise, $a$-, up- | rose | risen |
| Rive | rived | riven |
| Run, out-, fore- | ran | run |
| Saw : | sawed | sawn, sawed |
| Say, un-, gain- | said | said |
| Sce, fore- | saw | seen |
| Seek | sought | sought |
| Secthe | sod, scethed | sodden, scethed |
| Seii | sold | sold |
| Send | sent | sent |
| Set, be-, up- | set | set |
| Shake | shook | sliaken |
| Shape, mis- | shaped | shapen, shaped |
| Shave | shaved | shaven, shaved |
| Shear | sheared | shorn, sheared |
| Shed | shed | shed |
| Shine, out-, | shone, shined | shone, shined |
| Shoe | shod | shod |
| Shoot, over- | shet 1 | shot |
| Show or shew, fore- | showed, shewed | shown, shewn |
| Shred | shred | shred |
| Shrink | shrank, shrunk | shrunk |
| Shut | shint | shut |
| Sing | sang, sung | sung |
| Sink | sank, sunk | sunk |
| Sit | sat | sat |
| Slay | slew | slain |
| Sleep | slept | slept |
| Slide | slid | slidden |
| Sling | slang, slung | slung |
| Slink | slunk | slunk |
| Slit | slit, slitted | slit, slitted |
| Smite | smote | smitten |
| Sow | sowed | sown, sowed |
| Speak, be- | spoke | spoken |
| Speed | sped | sped |
| Spend, mis- | spent | spent |
| Spill | spilt, spilled | spilt, spilled |
| Spin | span, spun | spun |
| Spit | spit, spat | spit, spitten |
| Split | split | split |
| Spread, over-, be- | spread | spread |
| Spring | sprang, sprung | sprung |
| Stand, with-, under- | stood | stood |

## ETYMOLOGY.

| Present | Past | Pust Part. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Stay | staid, stayed | staid, stayed |
| Steal | stole | stolen |
| Stick | stuck | stuck |
| Sting | stung | stung |
| Stride, be- | strode | stridden |
| Strike - | struck | struck |
| String | strung | strung |
| Strive | strove | striven |
| Strow or strew be- | strowed, strewed | strown, strowed \&c. |
| Swear, for- | swore | sworn |
| Sweat | sweat, sweated | sweat, sweated |
| Sweep | swept | swept |
| Swell | swelled | swollen, swelled |
| Swim | swam, swum | swum |
| Swing | swung. | swung |
| Take, mis-, be-, \&c, | took | taken |
| Teach | taught | taught |
| Tear ${ }^{\text {Tell, fore }}$ | tore | torn |
| Think | told | told |
| Thrive | tirove, thrived | thought |
| Throw, over- | threw | thrown |
| Thrust | thrust | thrust |
| Tread | trod | trodden |
| Wax | waxed | - waxen, waxed |
| Wear | wore | : worn |
| Weave | wove | woven |
| Weep | wept | wept |
| Wet | wet, wetted | wet, wetted |
| Whet | whet, whetted | whet, whetted |
| Win | won | won |
| Wind, un- | wound | wound |
| Work | wrought, worked | wrought, worked |
| Wring | wrung ${ }^{-}$ | wrung |
| Write | wrote | written |

## CONJUGATION.

219. The Conjugation of a verb means either the enumeration of the three principal parts of the verb, the Present Tense, the Past Tense, and the Past Participle; or an enumeration of all the parts of the verb through all moods and all tenses.
220. In the following tables are specimens of the conjugation of a verb.

|  | Indicative. | Potential. | Subjunctive. | Imperative | Infinitive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | S. 1st Pers. Am, 2nd Pers. are or art, 3 rd Pers. is <br> P. Are (through all persons) | S. May $\dagger$ be, may be or mayest be, nay be <br> P. May be (through all persons) | S. Be (through all persons) <br> P. Be (through all persous | S. 2nd Be <br> P. 2nd Be | to be |
| Past | S. Was, were or wast, was P. Were (through all persons) | S. Might $\ddagger$ be, might be or mightest be, might be <br> P. Might be (through all persens) | S. Were (thro all persons) <br> P. Were (thro. all persons) |  |  |
| Perfect | S. Have been, have been or hast been, has been <br> P. Have been (througn all persons) | S. May have been, may have been or mayest have been, may have been P. May have been (through all pers.) | - | , | to have been |
| Pluperfect | S. Had been, had been or hadst been. had been <br> P. Had been (through all persons) | S. Might have been, might have been or mightest have been, might have been <br> P. Might have been (thro. all persons) |  |  |  |
| First Future | S. Shall be, shall be or shalt be, shall be <br> P. Shall* be (through all persons) |  |  |  |  |
| Second Future | $\begin{aligned} & \text { S. Shall have been, shall have been } \\ & \text { or shalt have been, shall have } \\ & \text { been } \\ & \text {. Shall have been (thro. all persons) } \end{aligned}$ | - |  |  |  |

Present, Being.
HAVE

|  | Indicative. | Potential. | Subjunctice. | Imperative | Infinitive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | S. 1st Pers. Have, 2nil Pers. have or hast, 3rd Pers. hath or has <br> P. Have (through all persons) | S. May † have, \&uc. <br> P. May have, \& c . | ```S. Have (thro. all persons) P. Have (thro. all persons)``` | S. 2nd, <br> Have <br> P. 2nd, <br> Have | to have |
| Past | S. Had, had or hadst, had <br> P. Had (through all persons) | S. Might $\ddagger$ have. \&c. <br> P. Might have, \&c. | S. slad (through all persons) <br> P. Had (through all persons) |  |  |
| Perfect | S. Have had, have had or hast had, has had <br> P. Have had (through all persons) | S. May have had, \&c. <br> P. May have had, \&c. |  |  | to have had |
| Pluperfect | S. Mad had, \&c. P. Had had, \&c. | S. Might heve had, \&e. <br> P. Might lave had, \&c. |  |  |  |
| First Future | S. Shall have, \&c. <br> P. Shall* have, te. |  | - |  |  |
| Second Future | S. Shall have had, \&c. <br> P. Shall have had, \&c. |  |  |  |  |

Participles.
Past, Had
Perfect, Having had
$\ddagger$ or can $\ddagger$ sould, would or should.
Present, Haring

* or will
DO

|  | Indicative. | Potential. | Subjunctive. | Imperative | Infinitive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| P: esent | S. 1st Pers. Do, 2nd Pers. do or dost, 3rd Pers. doth or does <br> P. Do (through all persons) | S. May † do, \&c. <br> P. May do, \&c. | S. Do (through all persons) <br> P. Do (through all persons) | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { S. 2nd, } \\ \text { Do } \\ \text { P. 2nd, } \\ \text { Do } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | to do |
| Past | S. Did, did or didst, did <br> P. Did (through all persons) | S. Might $\ddagger$ do, \& c. P. Might do, \&c. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { S. Did (through } \\ & \text { all persons) } \\ & \text { P. Did (through } \\ & \text { all persons) } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| Perfect | S. Have done, \&c. <br> P. Have done, \&c. | S. May have done, \&c. P. May have done, \&c. |  |  | to have done |
| Pluperfect | S. Had done, \&c. <br> P. Had done, \&c. | S. Might have done, \&c. P. Might have done, \&c. |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { First } \\ & \text { Future } \end{aligned}$ | S. Shall * do, \&c. <br> P. Shall do, \&c. |  |  |  | , |
| Second Future | S. Shall have done, \&c. <br> P. Shall have, done, \&c. |  |  |  |  |

[^2]

|  | Indicative. | Potential. | Subjunetive. | Imperative | Infinitive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | ```S. 1 st Pers. Move, 2nd Pers. move or movest, 3rd Pers. moves or moveth P. Move (through all persons)``` | 8. Nay $\dagger$ move, may move or mayest move, may move <br> P. May move (through all persons) | S. Move (thro. all persons) <br> P. Move (thro. all persons) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { S. 2nd; } \\ & \text { Move } \\ & \text { P. 2nd, } \\ & \text { Move } \end{aligned}$ | to move |
| Past | S. Moved. moved or movedst, movived P. Moved (through all persons) | S. Might $\ddagger$ move, might move or mightest move, might move <br> P. Might move (through all persons) | S. Moved (thro. all persons) <br> P. Moved (thro: all persons) |  |  |
| Perfect | S. Have moved, rave moved or hast moved, has moved <br> P. Have moved (through all persons) | S. May have moved, may have moved or mayest have moved, may have moved <br> P. May have moved (through all pers) |  |  | to have moved |
| Pluperfect | 3. Had moved, had moved or hridst moved. had moved <br> P. Had moved (through all persons) | S. Might have moved, might have moved or mightest have moved; might have moved <br> P. Might have moved (thro، all pers.) |  |  |  |
| First Future | S. Shall * move, shall move or shalt move, shall move <br> P. Shall move (through all persons) |  |  |  |  |
| Second Future | S. Shall have moved, shall have moved or shalt have moved, shall have moved <br> P. Shall have moved (thro. all pers.) |  |  |  |  |

[^3]Present, Moving
MOVE (Passive Foioc),

|  | Indicative. | Potential. | Subjunctive. | Imperative | Infinitive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | S. Am moved, \&c. <br> P. Are moved, \&c. | S. May $\dagger$ be moyed, \& e. P. May be moved, \&c. | 1B. Be moved, \&c. <br> P. Be moved, \&c. | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { S. 2nd, Be } \\ & \text { moved } \\ & \text {. 2nd, } \mathrm{Be} \\ & \text { moved } \end{aligned}$ | to be moved |
| Past | S. Was moved, \&c. P. Were moved, \&c. | S. Might $\ddagger$ be moved, \& c. P. Misht be moyed, \&c. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { S. Were moved, } \\ & \text { \&. Were moyed, } \\ & \text { \&e. } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| Perfect | S. Have been moved. \&c. P. Have been moyed, \&sc. | S, May hare been moved, \&c. P. May have been moved, \&c. |  |  | to have been moved |
| Pluperfect | S. Had been moved, \& o. P. Had been moved, \&s. | S. Might have been moved, \&c. <br> P. Might haye been moved, \&c. |  |  |  |
| First Puture | S. Shall * be moved, \&s. F. Shall be moved, \&c. |  |  |  |  |
| Second Future | S. Shall have been moved, \&c. P. Shall have bsen moved, \&c. | . |  |  | . |
| - | Present, Maved or Being Moved ar uill | Participles. <br> Past, Been Moved <br> car $\ddagger$ could, wou!ld, or shauld | Ferfect, Haying b | bepn Moved |  |

221. The tenses in the petential mood have not the signification their names denote. The following explanation will serve to show something of thoir real meaning.

Present necessity is denoted by the verb must.
$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { I must } & \text { Thou must } & \begin{array}{l}\text { He must } \\ \text { We must }\end{array} \\ \text { Ye must }\end{array}\right\}$ write.

This verb having only one tense, namely, the present, past necessity is expressed thus,
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { I must have Thou must have } \\ \text { We must have must have } \\ \text { Te must have }\end{array}\right\}$ They unust have $\}$ writen.
Present Liberty.
$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { I may } & \text { Thou mayest } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Tie may } \\ \text { The may }\end{array} \\ \text { Ye may } & \text { Whey may }\end{array}\right\}$ write.

Pust Libery!
$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { Thight } & \text { Thoumightest } & \text { He might } \\ \text { We inight } & \text { Yemight } & \text { They might }\end{array}\right\}$ write.

I might kave We night hawe

Thou mightest have, \&e. $\}$ written.
Ye might have, \&c.
Pregent Ability.

## Thou canst

Ye can
Past Ability.

| I could | Thou couldst | He could |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| We could | Ye could | They could \} writs. |
| I could heve |  |  |

222. Though might, could, would, should, are past tenses, they are frequently employed to denote present time ; but in such examples care must be taken that consistency of tense be preserved, and that the subsequent be expressed in the same tense as the antecedent verb. Thus, I say, "I may go if I choose," where the liberty and inclination are each expressed as present; or, "I might go it I chose,", where, though present time be implied, the likerty is expressed by the past tense, and the inclination is denoted by the same tense.

Could, the past tense of the verb can, expressing past power or ability, is, like ${ }^{\text {might, }}$ frequently employed to denote present time.

Of their denoting past time the following may serve as examples, "Can you work that problem now?" "No; but once 1 could." "May you speak your sentiments frecly? No; but once I might."

Might and could, being frequently used in conjunction with other verbs, to express present time, past liberty and ability are igenerally expresse by such phraseology as this, "I might have written," " 1 could have written."

Present Duty or Obligation.
Fought
We ought

Fought Thou oughtest
We ought
Thou oughtest
Ye ought

Past Duty.
223. Shall and will are not used promiscuonsly. In ths first person, shall is fature, sand will is emphatic; while in the second and third persons, the reverse is the case. A regard to the origin of the worl will afford an explanation to the rule and a help to the memory. "I shall," in Aaglo Saxon, meant " 3 owe." "Then shalt not" is equivalent to-" thon oughtest not." Hence the future iden of shall. Sinee duty implies fiturity, $" I$ shall warn him" means, properly, "I owe (it) to warn him."
224. Will implies intention or desiga. It therefere expresses greater emphasis in the first person than in the other persons, because we have greater control over our oun than over their actions. On the other haval, "then shalt," in the naturs of the case, becomes more emphatic and iuperative than "thous wilt."
225. The following is the oft-quoted pule of Dr. Wallis:-

In the finst person, simply suaze foretells; In wies a threat or eise a promise dwells: Sifale in the second and thiod does threat; Will simply then foritells the future feat.
226. Jchason's explanation of the difereners in meaning between these two verbs is so perspicuous, that I shall here transeribe his words. 1 shall love: "it will be so that I must love," "I am resolved to love." Shail I looe? "will it be permitted me to love?" "will it be that I must love?" Thow shalt love. "I commanc' thee to love;" "it is permitted thee to love;" "it will be, that thou must love." Shalt then lovep. "will it be, that thou must love?"" will it te permitted thee to move" He shall love: "it will be, that he mast love;" "it is oommanded that be love." Shall he lowe? "is it permitted. him
to love?" The plural persons follow the signification of the singular.

I will come: "I am willing to come," "I am determined to come." Thou wilt come: "it must be, that thou must come," inporting necessity; or, "it shall be that thou shalt come," importing choice. Wilt thor comse? "hast thou determined to come?" impcating choice. He will come:" "he is resolved to come; or "it must be, that he must come," importing choice or necessity.
227. In addition to these directions for the use of shall and will, it is to be observed, that, when the second and third persons are represented as the subjects of their own expressions, or their own thoughts, shall foretells, as in the first person, thus. "he "ays he shall be a loser by this bargain;" "do you suppose you shall go?" "He hoped he should recover," and "he hoped he would recover" are expresssions of different import. In the former, the two pronouns necessarily refer to the same person; in the latter, they do not.

## EXERCIST VIII.

Correct the following examples by giving and explaining the riyht use of shall and will:-I will receive a letter when iny bre her comes. If they make the changes, $I$ do not think $I$ wils like them. Will we have a good time, if we go? Perhaps yor shall find that purse. I will be unhappy if you do not come. $I$ will be afraid if it is dark. Surely goodness and merey shals follow me, and I will dwell in the house of the Lord for ever. I resolve that he will renurn with me. I will be obliged to you. $I$ will be punsshed. What sorrow will I have to endure? The moon shall shed her light on the scene. Will I write? He is resolved that many will go. If we examine the subject, we will perceive the error. I will suffer from poverty; nobody shall help me. When shall you go with me? Where will I leave you?

## PROGRISSEVE AND EMPHATIC FORMS.

228. The forms "I am persnading," I was persuading," are called, respectively, the progressive or imperfect present and past tenses, because they denote continuance, or incomplete tenses.

Note. The participle in ing can be joined to "be" through all moods and tenses with a different shade of meaning. But the better way in all such cases is to call the participle an adjective.
229. The forms "I do permit," "I did permit" are used instead of the simple present and past tenses "I

## permit," "I permitted" in order to make the assertion

 emphatic.230. In an interrogative or a negative sentence, however, do or did is not necessarily emphatic; "Do you know "" and "We do not know" may be even less emphatic than "Know ye," and "We know not."

## EXERCISE IX.

Parse the nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs in the following sentences according to the tabulated form given below. In parsing the verb, in the column for the sub-class, place transitive, intransitive or inactive, as the case may require; and in the same column, regular or irreyular. In the column headed "Inflexion" place the name of the voice, mood, tense, number and person, and in the order here given. For the various sub-classes ase the following abbreviations, trans., intrans., inact.; req., irveg.; for the voices, act., pass.; for the moods, infin., indic., imper., poten., sulyunct.; for the tenses, pres., perf., pluperf., lst fut., $2 n d$ fut., and for the number and person those already given.
"The boy who studied his lesson."

| Word | Class | Sub-Class | Inflexion |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| The | adj. | defin. | invar. |
| bev | noun | com. | sing. 3d. masc. nom. |
| who | pron. | rel. | sing. 3d. masc. nom. |
| studied | verb | trans. reg. | act. indic. past, sing. 3d. |
| his | pron. | pers. | sing. 3d. masc. poss. |
| lesson | noun | com. | sing. 3d. masc. obj. |

He had a fever when he was in Spain. Well, do it, and be brief. The quality of merey is not strained. And when you saw his chariot appear. Have ye chosen this place after the toil of battle to repose your wearied limbs? The way was long, the wind was cold ; the minstrel was infirm and old. See yonder hallowed fane. His valiant peers were placed around. Still would her touch the strain prolong. What am I? The turt shall be my fragrant shrinc. His name has perished from the earth. And so I dare to hope. I cannot paint what then I was. Roll on! thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll. Higher still and higher from the earth thou springest. And soon again shall music swell the breeze. Where rumor of oppression and deceit might never reach me more. If their lungs receive our air, that moment they are free. Respecting man, whatever wrong we call, may, must be right as relative to all. Methought I keard Horatio say tomorrow. I cannot, my Lords, I will not,
join in eongratulation on misfortune and disgrace. Shall it be said that you endeavor to evade the laws? Were! io r.ise you to a great act, I should not reenr to the history of other nations. In the arts that polish life you will be for many years inferior to some other parts of Europe. They became places of refuge. I have had occasion to say something, on the matter. That soldier had stoot on the battle field. Stop, for thy treat is on an empire's dust. Surrendering up thine individual being, shalt thou go to mix forever with the elements. The gay will laugh when thou art gone. Yet they shall leave their mirth and shall come and make their bed with thee. What could be less than to afford him praise? Hadst thou the same free will and power to stand? And that must end us. Who bade the sun clothe you with rainhows? If a fault it be in bard to deem himself inspired, 'tis one which hath had many followers. I wonld have made uly monument in Rome. I expeet to go. The snow degan to fall. The pupil 'rought me his exercise. We came to listen. Bring him to me. May you prosper. The weary traveller retired to sleep. Copy this letter. They had themselves to blame. Are you sick? If it rain. If it rains. We have waited for you. Every one must recollect the tragical story of Einmet. You must have passed him. My mother hath gone from her cares to rest. Had they scen the notice! Stop! my step might break his resi. The little maid must have her will. Be it enacted. The reward ought to have come to you. 1 am convinced. He himself was accustomed to it. They are coming. Try to bo eaught. Yon lazy fellow hates to be working. Having been yoused by the noise, I hastened to the door.

## ADVERB.

231. An adverb is a word which qualifies a verb, an siljective, or another adverb; as, "He reads well," " $\mathbf{I}$ am trety sorry," "He acted very wisely."

## 232. Now this qualification may be one of

(1) Manner; as, elogutently, frequently, sweetly, well, how, thius, \&c. Adverbs of Manner are usually formed by adding $l y$ to the corresponding adjective. Adverbs of this class are sometimes compared, because manner or quality, as in adjectives, admits of degrecs.
(2) Degree; as, too, entirely, scarcely, zearly, hardly, iclmost, equally, even.
(3) Number; as, once, twice.
(4) Order; as, secondly, finally, lastly,
(5) Time; 2s, now, soon, then, when, often, and suwh phrases as, ät once, at lengith. Soon and often are compared.
(6) Affirnation or Negation ; as, yes, no, yea.nay, not at all.
(7) Place; af, here, there, where, hence, whenceSome adverbs of place are formed iy prefixing a to a noun or adjective; as, ashore, afloat, afar.
233. It wiii be seen by examining the meaning of some of the adverbs given above, that they are compendious forms, equivalent to phrases expressing manner, time, foc. Thus, eloquently means in an eloquent manner: then, at that time.
234. An adverb occasionally scems to nodify a noun; as "He was truly man." Man, here, has an adjective meaning. It is equivalent to human.
235. Many adverbs have a conjunctive signification together with their natural signification. We observe this in the analysis of sentences, (See 384) where the adverbs introduce subordinate clauses; "My father gets up when the sun rises."
236. Sometimes adjectives are used as adiverbs; as, "And thut the God-like angel answered mild."

## PREPOSITION.

237. A preposition is a word which expresses the relation of a nown or pronoun to some other word; as, ${ }_{4} 6 \mathrm{He}$ went to Halifax.
238. Prepositions are generally placed befone nouns, prenouns, adjectives used as nouns, verbs used as nouns, nown phrases, or noun sentences; hence the name.
239. One great use of prepositions, in English, is to express those relations of the noun which in other languages are chiefly marked by terminations.
240. Nearly all the prepositions were first used to express relations of place; as, over, under, behind, foc. But even when otherwise used they still have a figurative allusion to place; as "over night," "ruler over thousands," "John is befinel James in his studies," "He served under Nelson."
241. Many of the prepositions take the place of adverbs, as, "All were fain to stay within; silent, or spraking little." But in almost all cases a noun is understood.
242. A few parriciples such as saving, touching, respecting, \&c.c, are sometimes used as prapositions. Minus, less, plus, more, per, by, rersus, towards or against, and via, by the way of, are generally parsed as prepositions. Sciis, without, is tound in Shakspeare.

## CONJUNCTION.

243. A conjunction joins one word, phrase, or clause to another : as, "two and two are four ;" "To be or not to be, that is the question." "The sun rose and cast his rays around."
244. When conjunctions connect clauses, they connect two or more assertions of equal importance, or they connect sub-ordinate clauses with principal ones.
245. This has given rise to a distinction of conjunctions into co-ordinative and sub-ordinative.
246. Co-ordinative conjunctions unite co-ordinate statements, or join in construction co-ordinate words ; as, "God made the world, and he preserves it." "John and James are brothers."
247. Sub-ordinative conjunctions are those which unite sub-nrdinate clauses to principal ones. Some of these are pure conjunctions; many of them have an adverbial signification also; as, "The crop is heavy because the land is good," "He returned whence he came."
248. Many of the conjunctions go in pairs, and may therefore be called correlative; as, Although or though-yet; Bothand; Either-or; Neither-nor; So-as; Whether-or, \&c.
249. For, equivalent to because, is a conjunction. But, equivalent to only, is an adverb; equivalent to except, a preposition ; as, "All but him had fled."
250. The conjunction than sometimes performs the office of a preposition. It should never be allowed to have this offlce, unless in the expression, than whom, which nothing but inveterate custom has sanetioned.

## INTERJECTION.

251. An interjection is an abrupt expression of thought or emotion ; as, C! Ah! Alas! \&c.
252. Any part of speeeh uttered by itself to express a sudden feeling may be called an interjection.

## EXERCISE X.

Parse the adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions in the following sentences :-Ill fared it then with Roderick Dhu. Did you get the book? Yes. Speak out. On she came with a cloud of
canvas. On went Gelert too. Look in now and then. The ship was about to be wrecked. Can you go now? No. Where are you going? He went immediately. He has long been ill. The Review comes on quarterly. I had not heard of that. Although it rained so heavily yet he came. Not only the boys, but the girls also, camc. He is always very happy to see us. The captain has. just been finding the latitude by the meridian altitude of the sun. I said I will call again before eight o'clock. The church was on the hill; and his house was in the valley, just below dhe hill.

## SYNTAX.

253. Syntax treats of the arrangement and relation of words in sentences.
254. Words take their places in sentences either by agreeing in certain respects with other words; or by controlling them; or by depending on them.
255. Here we have two species of relation; called Concord or Agreement, and Government.
256. A sentence is an assemblage, expressed or understood, of words, in which there is an assertion made about something. (See 165.)
257. The essence of a sentence consists in its asserting. There can be no sentence where there is no assertion. (See 165.)
258. A phrase is an assemblage of words grammatically constructed, but making no assertion; as, "Having finished the letter, he posted it."
259. A clause is a sentençe, torming part of a sentence; as, "You told me that he posted the letter," in which expression there are two sentences or clauses, "you told me," and "he posted the lette:," taken together forming one whole sentence.
260. In every sentence there is something of which we speak, and something which we assert regarding it.
261. A sentence therefore consists of two principal parts; what we speak about, called the Subject; and what we say of this Subject, called the Predicate.
262. Thus, in the sentence "Snow melts," Snow is the subject, and melts is the predicate. In the sentence "John struck the table," John is the subject, and struck the table the predicate. However, the predicate, struck

The here $h$ ill. hat. poys, e us. dian ock. lley,
the table, is considered to be divided into two parts; struck, the verb or simple predicate, and the table the object or completion. Another division of a sentence would, therefore, be; the Suhject, the Simple predicate or Verb, and the Cbject.
263. Sentences are of four kinds: Simple, Complex Pure Compound, Mixed Compound.
264. A Simple sentence contains but one subject and one finite verb; as, "Snow melts."
265. A Complex sentence contains one principal assertion, with one or more sub-ordinate assertions; as, "The man, who is prudient, looks to the future;"
266. A Pure Compcund sentence contains assertions which are all of equal importance; as, " He came; he saw ; he conquered."
287. A Mixed Compound sentence contains at least tyro principal assertions, and at least one subordinate; as, "The state of the world is such, and so much depends on action, that everything seems to say aloud to every man, ' Do something, do it, do it.'"

Rule $I$.
268. A noun or pronoun in the nominative case is generally the subjeci of a finite verb; ass; "Guilt is the source of sorrow." "He walked to town."

## Rule II.

269. A verb agrees with its subject in number and person; as, "Guilt is the source of sorrow." "He walked to town."*
270. Two or more singular nouns or pronouns joined by the conjunction and, when forming the subject of a finite verb, require the plural form of the verb, except when the definitive adjective each or every comes before them; as, "John, James, and Joseph are brothers." "He and she have come." "Every man, woman and child was killed."
271. When, however, two nouns describe one and the same subject, or a subject remarded as one, the verb should be singular; as, "Flesh and blood hath not revealed it unto thee." "The son and heir of Mr. Smith was here."

[^4]272. Two or more singular nouns or pronouns joined by the conjunction or or nor and forming the subject of a finite verb, require the singular form of that verb; as, "John or James is to do it." "He or she is to come."
273. The conjunctive phrase, as well as, has the same effect as or or nor.
274. When a collective noun is the subject, the verb will be singular or plural according as unity or plurality of idea is intended to be expressed ; as, "Our party is the most numerous." " Our party are not agreed upon that point."
275. If pronouns of different persons, joined by and, form the subject of a finite verb, the verb is said to be of the first person in preference to the second, and of the second person in preference to the third; as, "I and thou are come; we will not remain long." "Thou and he are the persons; you cannot deny it."
276. If there be two suhjects, the one affirmative, the other negative, the verb agrees with the affirmative; as, "You, not I were there." "He, and not you, is chargeable with that fault." "Our own heart, and not other men's opinions, forms our true honor." "Not a loud voice, but strong proofs bring conviction."
277. When singular pronouns, or a noun and a pronoun, of different persons, are connected by or or nor, the verb agrees in person with that nomn or prououn which is placed nearest to it; as, "I, or thon art to blâme;" "Thot, or I am in fault;" "I, or thon, or he is the author of it;" "Gcorge or I am the person." But it would be better to say, "Either I am to blame, or thon art," \&c.
278. When or or nor occurs between a singular nom or pronoun, and a plural one, the verb agrees in number with the plural noun or pronoun, which should, if possible, be placed next to the verb; as, "Neither poverty nor riches were injarions to him;" "He or they were offended by it."
279. When a verb in the infinitive mood, a sentence, or part of a sentence is the subject, the verb must be singular, as, "To err is human," "That you have wronged me doth appear in this," "His being at enmity with Cæsar was the cause of perpetual discord."
280. If the subject has a plural form, but is regarded as one thing, the verb is singular; as, "The 'Pleasures of Memory' was published in 1792, and became at once popular."
281. Sometimes when the subjects follow the verb, the verb agrees with the first, and is understood of the rest ; as, "Therein consists the force, and use, and nature of language."
"Ah then and there was hurrying to and fro, And gathering tears, and tremblings of distress, And checks all pale."
282. 'The relative pronomn is subs' et of the verb, if no other subject come between it and the verb; as; "He who speaks little is prudent." The relative pronoun when it is the object of a transitive verb always precedes it; as, "The man whom I saw yesterday hás gone."
283. The most natural position of the subject is before the verb, but in some cases it is placed after the verb.
(1) In imperative or interrogative sentences; as, " Go, thou and do likewise ;" "Have you any reason for saying so ?"
(2) When the verb is preceded by the adverbs here: there, then, thence, hence, thus, \&c; as, "'There went out to meet him, Jerusalem and all Judea.
(3) In poetry, or for the sake of emphasis; as, "Now came still evening on;" "Great is Diana of the Ephesians."
284. The subject of a verb answers to a question formed by putting who or what before the verb; as, "John struck the table." "Who struck?" John, (subj.) The object answers to a question formed by putting whom or what after the verb; as, "John struck the table." "John struck what?" "The table, (obj.)
285. The subject of a verb may be,
(1) A noun-John reads.
(2) A pronoun $-H e$ reads.
(3) An adjective-Many are called.
(4) An infinitive verb-To be is the question.
(5) A phrase-Seeking for wealth ruined him.
(6) A sentence-T'hat you have wronged me doth appear in this.
286. The object may consist of a similar variety.*

## Rule III.

28\%. A noun or pronoun in the possessive case is governed by the word denoting the thing possessed ; as, "John's book is on the table." "His book is on the table."
288. When a noun defined by an accessory phrase is to be put in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive is often reserved to the last word of the complex expression; as, "Jaines the Second's reign;" "Smith the bookseller's shop."
289. When nouns connected by a conjunction are to be put

[^5]in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive shoald be added to each, or only to the last, according as they are to be re spectively or conjointly attributed to the governing noun; as, "Beaumont and Fletcher's plays;" "Love's and Friendship's Smile;" "John and James's teacher is a good linguist ;" "John's teacher and James's are both good linguists."
290. To avoid harshness or inelegance, possession is sometimes better expressed by of with an objective case; Thus, "The soldirrs of Leonidas were as brave as himself" is more elegant than "Leonidas's soldicrs were, \&c." So also when a combination of possessives would sound harshly or awkwardly, we should rather employ a similar substitute for some of the possessives ; thas, "The property of Charles's father" sounds more agreeably than "Charles's fatner's property."
291. A noun and pronoun applied to the same person or thing should not both be used as subjects of the same verb, except for the sake of emphasis. Thus, it is incorrect to say "For the deck it was their field of fame;" but correct to say "The Lord, He is God."
292. When words intervene between nouns represented as possessing something, or when separate possession is to be expressed, the sign of the possessive is put to eacl. ; as, "Scotland's as well as England's power depends on her manufactures."

## Rule IV.

293. Two nouns or a noun and a pronoun, coming together signifying the same thing, agree in case, and are said to be in apposition; as, ".Paul. the Apostle, wrote epistles," "I dare not be ungrateful to him my earliest friend."
294. A noun is sometimes in apposition to a whole sent nce ; as, "He allowed me the use of his library, a kindness I shall never forget."
295. The preposition often occurs between nouns that are in their essential nature appositives; as, "The peninsula of Nova Scotia," "The task of speaking for two hours."
296. Nouns and pronouns in apposition are always in the same case, though not necessarily ic the same number; as "We have turned, every one to his own way." "The kings of Judah and Israel sat, each upon his ihrone."

## Rule V

297. Adjectives qualify nouns and pronouns, noun
nu
phrases and clauses; as, "The good man is happy;" "That man is the tallest in the crowd.
298. Definitive adjectives which have the inflexion of number, must agree in number with the nouns to which they are added ; as, this book, these books ; that book, thase books.
299. When this and that are contrasted, this refors to the latter or nearer, that to the former or more distant object; as, "In Europe are Britain and Russia; thes is the larger, but that the wealthicr country."
300. Participial adjectives al ways qualify the word which would be the subject of the verb of which they form a part if the phrase in which they occur is formed into a sentence; as, "Taking his son with him, he went to Europe," in which, he would be the subject of took, (He took his son with him) consequently taking qualifies $h e$.
301. Each is applied to one of two or any larger number. Every seems to convey the idea of a larger number, and is applied to one of this larger number. Either means one of two only, but sometimes has the force of each; as, "on either side stood the tree of life." Neither means not one of two.
302. One another should not be applied to two objects, nor each other to more than two; as, "Verse and prose, on some occasions, run into each other (not one another). like light and shade. "Mankind have always been butchering one another," (not each other).
303. When we are comparing two things, the comparative, and not the superlative should be used. Thus it is incorrect to say, "Of the two, he is the tallest." We should use taller in such a case. The superlative is used, only when more than two are compared with each other. The comparative should be used only when its object as one part is compared with another part or with other parts. The superlative should be used only when its object as a part is compared with the whole. Consequently, other, else, or a similar word must sometimes be inserted to prevent the leading term of the comparison, from being compared with itself. Thus, "That tree overtops all the trees in the forest," (overtops itself-add other before trees). "He thinks he knows more than anyboajy," (more than himself-add else after anybody.) "There is no situation so good anywhere." "Jacob loved Joseph more than all his children." Again, the sentence, "The fairest of her daughters, Eve," is incorrect, because as the superlative is used to compare an object as a part, with the whole, Eve in this case would be part of the class daughters.
304. When several adjectives qualifying one noun refer to the same person or thing, the definitive adjective is used before the first only; as, "An amiable and intelligent friend is
invaluable." "The brave and accomplished officer has published a faithful account of thí campaign."
305. When the adjectives refer to different persons or things, the definitive adjective is used before each of them; as, " $\mathbf{\Lambda n}_{n}$ amiable and an intelligent friend are worthy of regard." The ecclesiastical and the secular authority were exerted in favour of the measure.
306. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided; as, "The office conla not have been given to a more worthier man." "He is the most amiablest of men." We find correct writers, however, use lesser, and, Shakespeare, "'This was the mast unkindest cut of all." "Hoctic licence" is all that can be said in favor of the latter.
307. When two nouns, both meaning the same person or thing, follow a comparative, the adjective is omitted before the second; as, "He is a better statesman than soldier (meaning that the same individual is better in one capacity, that of a statesman, than he is in another, that of a soldier). But if the nouns mean different persons, or things, the adjective must be used with both, as, "He is a better statesman than a soldier," (speaking of two persons, the one he, being a better statesman, than the other, a soldier is).
308. When several nouns are in apposition to another noun, the adjective is used with the first only; as, "Cæsar, the Consul and Dictator, was killed by Brutus." Here Consul and Dictator are in apposition to Cæsar, both meaning the same person. The adjective is used with the first only. But if the nouns refer to different persons, the adjective must be repeated; as, "Cincinnatus, the Dictator, and the Master of the Horse marched against the enemy." Here, Dictator and Master of the Horse are two different persons, the adjective is, therefore, used before both. . If the had been omitted before Master, it would have meant that Cincinnatus filled two offices, that of Dictator, and that of Master of the Horse.

## Rule VI.

309. Pronouns agree with the nouns for which they stand in gender, number and person; as, "John succeeds in his studies because he is diligent;" "Mary succeeds in her studies because she is diligent;" "John and James succeed in their studies because they are diligent;" "The corn looks well; it has grown in good soil ;" "The man who was here;" "The horse which was bought; The sced which was sown."
310. That as a relative pronoun is used in the following cases,
(1) To avoid the too frequent repetition of who or which; as, "Happy is the man who findeth wisdon, and the man that getteth understanding." "Who, that saw the accident, could fail to sympathize with the sufferers?"
(2) When there are two things spoken of, one requiring who, the other whech; as, "The old man and his ass that wo read of in the fable."
(3) After the adjective same, or after an adjective in the superlative degree; as, "He is the same man that we saw yesterday." "Solomon was the wisest man that ever lived."
311. Occasionally a pronoun refers to a sentence; as, "Surely God is in this place, and I knew it not." "Homer is remarkably, concise, which renders him lively and agreeable."
312. When as has the force of a relative, the verb following it agrees in Number, \&c., with the noun to which as seems to refer ; as, "His statements were as follow." "His statement was as fóli'ows."

## Rule VII.

313. Transitive verbs govern nouns and pronouns, noun phrases and cieuses, in the objective case; as, "John wrote the letter;" "He sent it by rost;" "I will see that he does it."
314. When a verb is followed by two words in the objective case, which are neither in apposition, nor connected by a conjunction, one of them is governed by a preposition understood; as, "I paid (to) him the money." Many grammarians hold that both objectives are governed by the verb. Thus, "Ask him his opinion." "The saints proclaim thee king."
315. Participles of transitive verbs follow the same rule. Participial nouns, although governed in the objective case, still retain the governing power of the verb from which they are derived; as, "He injured himself in injuring them." Here injuring is a participial noun governed by in and governing them. Participial adjectives also, govern the objective case ; as, "Taking his son with him, he went to Europe." Here, taking is an adjective qualifying he and governing son.
316. Verbs that are usually intransitive, are sometimes employed transitively; as, "They laughed him to scorn." " He lived down all opposition."
317. Many verbs are transitive in one signification, mad intransitive in another; as, "Here I rest," "Here I rest my hopes;" "She sings beautifully," "She sings soprano." In the sentences, "Here I rest," aud "She sings beautifully," an object may be supplied to the verbs rest and sings, but as that object is not necessarily implied, it is better to consider them intransitive.
318. A kindred noun otten supplies the olject of snch verbs; as, "He lived a blameless life."
319. A verb not transitive by itself may, sometimes, when united with a following preposition, be equivalent to a transitive verb; and we shall find peculiar passive forms arising out of this equivalence. The verb sinile, for example, is never transitive ; we cannot smile any object ; but we may smile at or on an object; we can say "Fortune siailed on him;" and the joint effeet of this verb and preposition is evidently that of a transitive verb. Therefore, although we cannot say " He was smiled by fortune," because to smile is a verb intransitive, yet we can say "He was smiled on by fortune," because to smile on is equivalent. to a verb transitive.
320. When the participle in ing takes an article, or some other modifying word, befure it, it must be followed by a preposition; as, "The storming of Badajoz cost many thousand lives."
321. When the insertion of the word of produces harshness or ambiguity, other forms of expression must be chosen; as, "The worst effect of it is, the fixing on your mind of a habit of indecision." This sentence is harsh. Better thus, "The worst effect of it is, that it fixes on the mind a habit, \&c." Again, the sentence. "The reading of our author pleases me," may mean either that our reading a certain author pleases us, or that the author's own manner of reading pleases us (more correctly the latter). The first sense will be better expressed by rejecting both the and of; thus, "Reading our author pleases me." The second sense will be better expressed by using the possessive phrase ; thus, "Our author's reading pleases us."

## Rule VIII.

322. The verb to be has the same case after it as that which next precedes it; as, "I am he;" "You believed $i t$ to be him."
323. When the verb to be stands between the nominatives, one singular and the other plural, it agrees with the one before it, unless the other stands nearer, or seems more naturally the subject of it; as, "The food of the Mongols is chiefly milk,
elreese, and flesh." "Lying lips are an abomination to the Lord."

324, Verbs of calling, appcinting, concidering, seeming, appearing, making, becoming, follow the same rule; as, "He became a great man."
325. The verb in the passive voice should always have for its subjeet, the object of the transitive verb from which it is derived; as,-Active voice, "They offered him this command;" Passive, "This command was offered him"-not "He was offered this command." The following sentences are, consequently incorrect: "He was paid a large sum for his services;" "He valued the favor when he was granted it;" "He was shown the pieture gallery."

## Rule IX.

326. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mood; as, "John loves to study."
327. The infinitive is sometimes governed by a noun, adjective or preposition ; as, "His anxiety to improve was very laudable;" "He was anxious to improve;"" He was about to go."
328. When a word governing the infinitive implies reference to the future, we should not employ what is called tho perfect intinitive. Thus, it is wrong to say "I expected to have gone;"" "His intention to have been one of the party." We should say "I expected to go." "His intention to be.".
329. The present infinitive denotes time contemporary with that of the governing verb, or subsequent to it ; the perfect infinitive, time antecedent to that of the governing verb; as, "I intend to write," "He promised to pay," "He seemed to have studied the classics."
330. An infinitive or participial phrase sometimes appears so loosely connected with a sentence as to deserve the name of an abstract phruse; "To confess the truth, I did not see him ;" "Speaking generally, I am as well prepared as he is." However, both these phrases may be considered adjective ones, qualifying $I$.
331. To, the sign of the infinilive mood, is not expressed after the words bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, let, and some others.

Rule $X$.
332. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs ; as, " She sings sweetly ;" "I am truly sorry;" "He speaks very eloquently."
333. Adverbs in some instances relate to verbs understoort, and n. y be parsed by supplying the verb, or else by considering the adverb as an interjection ; as, "He went, certainly, but not soon enough ;" that is, "It is certainly known that." Perhaps is parsed in a similar way.
334. It is commonly recommended that adjectives should not be used as adverbs, nor adverbs as adjectives. When $i^{2}$ is intended to express the quality of the object as seen in any act, or after the act, rather than the quality of the act itself, the adjective should be used; as, "It looks beautiful," "It sounds grand." So, "He spoke distinctly."
335. In poetry, however, the use of an adjective for an adverb is very common; thus Milton speaks of "The angels winning cheap the high repute."
336. It is recommended that from should not be used with the adverbs hence, thence and whence; as, " Whence comest thou?" (not from whence). However, we often see the expressions, fiom hence, from thence, from whence. Some grammarians would parse the words, hence, thence, and whence, in such cases, as nouns.
337. The word no should not be used with reference to a verb, not is the proper one; as, "Tell me whether you will go or no" (should be not).

## Rule XI.

338. Prepositions show the relation between words; as, "He sailed from Halifax to Liverpool."
339. The natural place of the preposition is between the words it relates to each other. Chis, however, is not always its position. For example, in the sentence "Jamaica was taken from the Spaniards by the English;" from shows the relation between taken and Spaniards; by, taken and English.

## Rule XII.

340. Prepositions govern the objective case; as, "The plague raged in London, during the reign of the Second Charles." "I sent to him, for it."
341. Certain words must be followed by particular preposititions; as, "I confide in (not to, $n$, or through) your promise.',
342. Generally, derivatives (see App. 3.) are followed by the same prepositions as their roots; as, rely upon, reliance upon. But there are scme exceptions. We say, for example, dependent on, but independent of; derogate from, but derogatory to.
343. The following list contains examples of such combi-aations:-

| Abhorrence of | Endowed, Endued, with |
| :---: | :---: |
| Abound in | Enjoin upon |
| A bridge of | Exception to |
| Accede to | Exclusive of |
| Accord (intrans) with (trans) to | Fall under, from, upor |
| Accuse of, by | Fawa upen, on |
| Acquiesce in | Foreign, Opposito, to |
| Adapt to | Frown at, on |
| Adequate to | Greedy after, of |
| Admonish, Remind, Warn, of | Ignorant of |
| Affinity to, between | Inculcate on, upon |
| Agreeable to | Independent of |
| Alienate frome | Initiate into, in |
| Ambitious of | Inseparable from |
| Antipathy to, against | Intent upon, on |
| Attend (listen) to, (wait) upon | Inared to |
| Averse from, to | Militate against |
| Avert from | Mistrustful of |
| Bestow upon, on | () verwhelmed with, by |
| Boast of | Prejudice against |
| Blush at | Prejudicial to |
| Call upon, on | Proud, Glad, of |
| Clear of, from | Pursuance of |
| Compatible with (verse), with | Pursuant to |
| Confer (bestow) on, upon (con- | Rocreant from |
| Confide in | Reflect upon, on |
| Conformable, Concenial, to | Rejoice, Grieve, at |
| Consonant to, with | Relevant, Indifferent, to |
| Convince of | Rely upon, on |
| Correspond with, to | Replete with |
| Deficient in | Repine at |
| Depend upon, on | Significant of |
| Derogate from | Smile at, upon, on |
| Derogatory to | Sympathize with |
| Devolve or, upon | Taste of, for |
| Differ with, from | Thirst for, after |
| Different from, Similar to | Triumph over |
| Diminution of | True to |
| Discouragement to | Trust in, to |
| Dissent from, Assent to | Versed in |
| Distinguished from | Wait upon, on, at, for |
| Enamoured of | Want, Deficiency, of |
| Endeared to | Worthy, Guilty, of |

## Rule XIII.

344. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, and clauses; as, "John and James were there;" "To be or not to be, that is the question;" "Time flies and death approaches."

Rele XIV.
345. Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs and the same cases of nouns and pronouns ; as, "He may go or stay," that is, "may stay;" "He had written and sealed the letter before noon," that is, "had sealed;" "He and she are known to me;" "Him and her I know."
346. Conjunctions do not always connect the same tenses; as, "it is and was and shall be."

## Rule XV.

347. Interjections have no government; but in phrases they are followed by the objective case of the pronoun of the first person, and by the nominative case of the pronoun of the seccnd; as, "Ah! me;" "Ah! thou unfortunate man ;" "O ye hypocrites."
348. An objective case after an interjection is governed by a preposition understood; as, "Ah me," is equivalent to "alas for me;" "Wo is me" to "wo is to me."

3490 ! is used for wishing; exclaiming, or addressing. Oh! expresses pain, sorrow, or surprise.

## Rule XVI.

350. Two negatives in the English language destroy each other, or are equivalent to an affirmative; as, "Nor did they not perceive him," that is, "they did perceive him ;" "I cannot drink no more."

## Rule XVII.

351. The Past Tense should not be ased for the Past Participle, nor should the Past Participle be used for the Past Tense. Thus, the following are incorrect, "The river is froze;" "The window is broke ;" "I had went:" It should be frozen, broken, gone.

It is also incorrect to say "I done," "I seen." It should be did and saw.

## Ruĩe XVIII.

352. In the use of words or phrases which in point of time relate to each other, the order and consistency of time should be observed; as, " The Lord hath given and the Lord hath taken away." Hath given should be gave. "And he that was dead sat up and began to speak." Was should be had been. "After I left, he went away," should ke, "After I had left."

The following remarks and rales have reference more particularly to composition.
353. The logical order of the principal elements of the Sentence is. first, the subject with its attributes; next, the verb; and, last, the completion and extension of the verb, if any; as, "The sun shines." "To acquaint us with oxrselves may be one use of the precept;" "That his care for his works closed at their publication is hardly credible." To this general rule there are many exceptions, as other principles come in to modify the application of it. The rule should be observed, however, unless ia a clear case of exception; and especially should not be departed from when clearness forbids.
(a.) In interrogation, the verb, or a part of it, or the interrogative word or phrase in the predicate, is placed first; as, "Are you ready?" " Cañ you perform the work ?" "Will you be permitted to go ?" "What a careless, easy manner has our frierd." "How often is the work of years thus lost for ever."
(b.) A verb in the imperative mood is followed by the subject ; as, " Be ye perfect."
(c.) Conditional clauses without conjunctions take the subject after the verb; as, "Could they have been contented with moderate gains, they might not have failed in this business." "Had they beeu wiser, they would have escaped the loss."
(d.) For emphatic distinction, and in passionate expression, the predicate, or part of the predicate, may be placed first ; as, "Fallen, fallen, fallen, is Babylon the great." "Great is Diana of the Ephesians." "Upon us, therr, derolves the dusty."

Nore.-To $m$ ften the repulsiveness of an inversion of the Gogical order of tive assertive sentence, whien emphasis or passion: dioes not prompt it, the words there and $i t$ are used to introduce the senterize. They are mere expletives when so used, having no partichlar mearing, and only serve to indicate a departare from the regular order of construction. (See 217\%), "There is a pleasure in the pathless woods:" "It is $\overline{\mathbf{Y}}$."
(e.) The order may be inverted to show a reference to the preceding sentence; as, "This was at first resolved, if we were wise,"
(f.) The logical order, once more, yields to the demrnds for consistency; as in the sentence, "Silver and gold have I none," emphasis having inverted the order by placing the object of the action first; the subject and the verb also in congistency elvange places, have $I$ instead of $I$ have.
(g.) Finally, in poetry there mont mider departures from the logieal order than in prose. This arises from the necessities of the metre, form, \&cc.

## Ruee. XeX.

354. It is generally improper to omit the subject of the verb, unless the verb is in the imperative mood, or closely connected with another verb relating to the same subject. Thus :-

He was a man had no influence. There is no man knows better how to make rsoney. Am sorry to hear of your misfortane; but hope you will recover.

Rule XX.
355. Words sinould not be plaralised when the sense does not require it. Thus :-

Few persons are contented with their lots. Let us drive on and get our suppers at the next house. He
went a long ways from home. They then took their leaves. I will go anywheres yon like.

## Rule XXI.

356. Nouns and pronouns should be so used as not to leave the case ambiguous. Pronouns should be so used that it may not be doubtful for what they stand. Thus:-

The settler here the savage slew. (Which slew the other?) Pyrrhus the Romans shall I say subdue. And thus the son the fervent sire addressed. You well the children knew. Poetry has a measure as well as music. If the lad should leave his father he would die. Religion will afford us pleasure when others leave us. John told James that his horse had run away. They flew to arms, and attacked Northumberland's horse, whom they slew.

## Rule XXII.

357. It is improper to mix different kinds of pronouns in the same construction. Thus:-

Know thyself, and do your duty. JEre you remark another's fault, bid thine own conscience look within. But what we saw liast and which pleased us most was the farce.

## Rule XXIII.

358. Do not make transitive verbs intransitive, by inserting a needless preposition. Thus :-

Pharoal and his host pursued after them. We had just entered into the house. I will consider of the matter. His salary will not allow of such extravagance.

## Rule XXIV.

359. Avoid needless passive forms,-and the passive forms of intransitive verbs. Thus:-

He is possessed of great talents. We are agreed on this. What is become of him? The tumult is entirely ceased. The greater part of the forces were retired into winter quarters.

## Rule XXV.

360. It is generally improper to use different forms of the verb in the same construction. Thus:-

Did you not borrow it, and promised to return it soon? To profess regard, and acting differently, discovers a base mind. Spelling is easier than to parse. 'To say he is relieved is saying he is dismissed.
361. There are many words whose classification is different in different circumstances. The number of such words is ever increasing. "The followins are amongst the most important.
A : adjective ; " $A$ book," $A$ great many," " $A$ hundred voices," (in the last two examples applied to the aggregate).
AN : preposition; " He went $a$ hunting."
An: adjective; "An apple."
conjunction; "Nay an thou dalliest, then I am thy foe." (See Appendix, 20).
About: preposition; " He is ambitious about reputation."
adverb; " How it came about, I am unable to tell."
Above: preposition; "The Sun was just above the horizon." adverb; "Look above," (may be regarded as a prep. with object understood).
adjective; "The above disceurse," (reprobated, but, found in good writers).
Adiev: interjection; "Adieu. adieu, my native land,"
noun; " He bade adieu to his friends."
After: preposition; "I will come after dinner."
adverb; " He came soon after."; (See remark under the adverb above).
adjective; "His after fate no more was heard."
Again: adverb; "Call again."
conjunction; "Again, it may be remarked, \&c."
Alike: adjective; "They are alike"
adverb; "They please rlike."
All: adjective; "All places," "all this," all ye," "wealth, pleasure and honor must all be given up."
noun; " Our little all," " take him for all in all." (noun phrase).
adverl; " Cheeks all pale."
Any: adjective; "Any person." adverb; "Are you any better?"
As: adverb; "He is as proud as poor," (deg.) "And as he plucked his cursed stcelaway," (time) "The field was as they ieft it." (Conjunctive adverb-Sec 235.) "As yet," (allv. phr.)

As: conjunction; "As the rain has ceased I will take a walk." "As if," (conj. phr.)
Are: $\quad \begin{aligned} & \text { monoun rel.; " (See 162, 312.) } \\ & \text { adverb; " All this ? aye more." }\end{aligned}$ noun; "The ayes have it."
Before: preposition; "Is that a dagger which I see before me?" adverb; "I knew him before." (See remark undeı advert, above.) "I was there before he left." (Conjunctive adv.-See 235).
Below: preposition; "His answering was below the average."
adverb; "He went below." (See remark under adverb above.)
noun; " He came from below."
Beside or
Besides : preposition; "That is beside the mark." "And besides this, there was another success."
adverb: "All the world besides." (See adverb above).
Best: adjective; " He took the best means."
adverb; " He best can tell."
noun; "He did his best." "At best it is but rhyme." (In the last two sentences, best may be considered as an adj. qualifying a noun understood.)
Better: adjective; "A better man:"
adverb ; "I could have better spared."
noun; "To get the better of." "For better or worse."
verb; "I will better the instruction."
Botir : adjective; "Both hands." "We both." "Both the one and the other cause, \&c."
conjunction; "She is both amiable and intelligent." "I both sent and wrote."
But : conjunction; " He came but did not remain long." preposition; "He lost all but honor."
adverb; "Man is but as summer's grass." " He can but refuse."
By; preposition; "That pass by me as the idle wind." adverb; "He laid it by." (See remark under adverb above.)
Close : verb; "Close the door. noun; "At the close of the day." adjective; "The close season."
adverb; "Close on his heels." (The last two are, in reality, from pronunciation, different words from the first two.)
Deep: adjective; "In deep distress."
noun; " Deep called on deep."

Else: adjective; "Any one else."
adverb; "How else can I do it ?" "He has not returned, else he would write to us." (Conjunctive adv.-See 235.)
Enough: adverb; "I am well enough.
adjective; "Now it is Rome indeed and room enough."
noun; " He has enough."
Except : conjunction; "Except he study hadd, he will not succeed."
verb; "If we except a few, the pupils were attentive."
Fair; preposition; "In nothing except* honesty was he rich." , adjective; "A fair day."
adverb; "He bids fair to succeed."
Far: adjective; "He came from a far country." "A far-off land."
adverb; "It is far better." "Thus far irto the land have we marched."
Farewell : interjection; "Farewell ! my friends."
noun; "A long farrewell to all my greatness."
adjective; "A farewell address."
FAST : noun; " Proclaim a fast."
adjective; "A fast horse." "Tie the knot fast." adverb; "He read too fust." "He was fast asleep."
First : adjective; "In the first place."
adverb; "First, Fear her hand its skill to try."
For: preposition; "Bought for Cash."
conjunction; "For I can raise no money by vile means."
Full: adjective; "He spoke from a full heart."
adverb; "Full many a flower is born to blush unseen." "And that they know full well."
Half: adjective ; "We want no half measures."
noun; "Half of the day was misspent."
adverb; " He was taken up half deal."
Hard: adjective; "It is a hard saying." adverb; "It will go hard with me." "" He worked hard." "He lives hard by."
High: adjective; "A high mountain."
noun; "God from on high looks down upon us." adverb; "He aimed too high."

[^6]However : adverb; " However small it may be."
conjunction; "However, it may not be so bad as reported.'
Ill : adjective; "How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds, makes ill deeds done."
adverb; " $11 l$ blows the wind that profits nobody."
noun; " Better bear the ills we have, \&e."
Late: adjective; "The late Governor of $\bar{\Gamma}$, jva Scotia." "Of late years"
adverb; "He worked late." "We heard no news of late." (Properly an adj. qualifying a noun understood.)
Like,
verb; "I like such sentiments."
noun; "We shall never look upon his like again."
adverb; "He dressed like his brother."
adjective; "A like result." "Like quantities with like signs."
Little: adjective; "A little boy."
adverb; " It is little better than a daub."
Long: adjective; "A long time ago."
adverb; "And longer had she sung."
verb; "I long to see the place again.",
noun; "The short and the long of it."
Low: adjective; "He was in low spirits.
adverb; "He spoke so low that we could not hear him."
More: adjective; "More work."
adverl; "More happy." "He sleeps no more." noun; "To get more," (properly an adjective.)
Much : - adjective; "He had much difticulty."
adverb; "It is much better."
noun; "To whom much is given, \&c." (Properly an adjective.)
Nay : adverb; "Nay; do not weep."
. noun; "He could not say nay to the proposal.', "The nays have it."
No : adjective; "No soundsof labor vexed the quiet air." adverb; "I can feel no longer." "Will you come? No."
Now : noun or adverb; "Now is the acceptable time."
conjunction; "Now Barabbas was a robber."
OFF : adverl ; "He went off this morning." preposition; "They got off the track."
adjective; "The off side." "The off horse." (Colloquial.)
ON : preposition; "On a rock."
adverb; "Mammon led them on."

Once: adverb; "He spoke but once."
noun; " Do it just this once."
Only : adjective; "The only course." "He only can do the work."
adverb; "He is cautious only, not fearful." "What he said was only to commend my prudence."
Over: preposition; "Over the sea."
adverb; " All is over."
Right: adjective; " He is the right man."
noun; " God and my right."
adverb; "Right well he knew it." "I only speak right on." "All is going right."
Short : adjectice; "Short days."
adverb; " He stopped short."
noun; " The short and the long of it."
Since: conjunction; "Since we ure to part, let us part in peace."
preposition; "Since that time I have seen him but once."
adverb; " A short time since."
So : adverb, "So work the honey-bees."
conjunction; "His speech was very wearisome, so I came away."
That: adjective; "That san."
pronoun; "Solomon was the wisest man that ever lived."
conjunction; "That he was in error, appeared at once."
Then: adverb; "Then came still evening on."
conjunction; "I am then to conclude that you will go."
adjective; "The then administration."
Ur: adverb; "He came up to the house." noun; "The ups and douns of life."
While adverb; "He came while I was there."
conjunction; "While I am prepared to admit some of the arguments, I cannot assent to all."
verb; "To while away a dull hour.'
noun; "It is not worth while."
Worsf: adjective; "There could be no worse employment." noul; " For better or worse."
Worth : noun; "Worth makes the man."
adjective; "The book is worth a dollar." (Prep.) verb; "Woe worth the chase, woe worth the day." (Betide).
Yet : conjunction; "Yet though destruction sweep thocs fertile plains, rise fellow men, \&c."
adverb; "He was yet alive."
Yonder: adjective; "Yonder hallowed fane."
adverb; " He lives yonder."

## EXEROISE XI.

The pupil will parso in full, according to the specimens given below, a sentence selected from any book.

| Word. | Class. | Sub-Class. | Inflexion. | Relatlon. | Rule. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The | adj. | defin. | invar. | qual. whistling | Adjectives qualify nouns |
| whistling | noun | participial | sing. 3d. no gen. nom. | subject of sounded | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { A noun or pron. in the } \\ \text { nom. case is general- } \\ \text { ly, \&c } \end{array}\right.$ |
| of | prep. |  |  | showing rel. between whistling and wind | Prep. show relation, \&c |
| the | adj. | defin. | invar. | qual. wind | Adj. qual. \&c |
| wind | noun | com. | sing. 3d. no gen. obj. | gov. by of | Prep. gov. \&c |
| through | prep. |  |  | showing rel. between whistling and rigging | Prep. show rel. \&c |
| the | adj. | 'defin. | invar. | qual. rigging | Adj. qual. \&c - |
| rigging | noun | com. or part. | sing. 3d. no gen. obj. | gov. by through | Prep. gov. \& $\mathrm{c}^{\prime}$ |
| sounded | verb | intrans. reg | act. indic., past, sing. 3d. | agreeing with whistl'g | A verb agrees \&c |
| like | adv. | manner |  | qual. sounded | Adv. qual. \&c. |
| funeral | adj. | attr. | var | qual. wailings | Adj. qual- \&c |
| wailings | noun | part. | plur. 3d, no gen. obj. | gov. by to (underst'd) | Prep. gov, \&c. |

"Many a crime deemed innocent on earth is registered in heaven."

| Word. | Class. | Sub-Class. | Infexion. | Relation. | Rule. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Many | adj. | defin. | pos. or invar. | qual. crime | Adj. qual. \& c |
| a | adj. | defin. | invar. | - qual. crime | Adj. qual. \&e |
| crime | noun | com. | sing. 3d, no gen. nom. | subj. of is registered | A noun or pron. in nom. case \&c |
| deemed | adj. | part. | invar. | qual. crime | Adj. qual. \&cc ${ }^{\text {c }}$ |
| innocent | adj. | attr. | pos. | qual. crime | Adj. qual. \&c |
| on | prep. |  |  | lhowing relation between innocent and earth | Prep. show relation \& c |
| earth | noun | com. | sing. 3d, no gen., olj. | gov. by on | Prep, gov. \&c |
| is registered | verb | trans. reg. | pass. indic., pres. sing. 3d | agr. with crime | A verb agrees \& c |
| in | prep. |  |  | showing relation between is registered and heaven | Prep. show relation \&c |
| heaven | noun | com. | sing. 3d. no gen., obj. | gov. by in | Prep. gov. \&c |

${ }^{3}$ I now sefe the old man coming, but, alas, he is too feeble to walk quickij."

| Word. | Class | Sub-Class. | Inflexion. | Relation. | Rule. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\pm$ | pron! | pexs: | sinc. 3d; masce or femi nom: | \{ put for \$pzakter | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Pronouns ̈̈gree \&c } \\ \text { A noun or providun in the } \\ \text { noth. \&e } \end{array}\right.$ |
| tov | adv. | time |  | qual. set | Advi qual. \&c |
| zee | verb | ttans irre家, | act. indic.; presi sing. 1st: | agr. with $I$ | A verb agrees \&ct |
| the | adj. | defin. | Var | - qual. math | Adj'. 'qual. \&t |
| old | 3dj. | attr: | pos. | quàl. m'án | Adj. quibl. \&c |
| man | houn, | com. | ilng. 3d, masc. obj | gov. by sece | Tratis. verbs gov. sic |
| coming | "̈dj. | part: |  | qual. mant | Adj. qual. \& c |
| but | conni. | cod-ord: |  | joiniling I see of with he is ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{c}$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Corj: connect words and } \\ \text { sentences } \end{array}\right.$ |
| alas | interj, |  |  |  |  |
| hé | pron. | pers. | sing. 3d, riasc: nom. | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { put for mats } \\ \text { subj: of }\{s \end{array}\right.$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Pronouns agfee \&t } \\ \text { A noun or pronoun } \mathrm{t} \text { c } \end{array}\right.$ |
| is | Verb | inact. irreg. | no vocice, indic., pres: sing: ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | agr. with $\lambda e$ |  |
| tod | adv. | degreè. |  | qual. feeble | Advarbs qual. \&c |
| feelle | ddj | attr. | 10S | qual. mat | Adj. qual. \&c |
| to walk | $\stackrel{\text { verb }}{ }$ | intrans: reg. | set. Infin. press | gov: hy feebte | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { A verb in the infin. mood } \\ \text { is gov. \&c }\end{array}\right.$ |
| quickly | adr. | manner. |  | qual. walk | Adverbs qual. \&c |

*Lifted up to so high a place or position.
The fullowing passage is from Satan's address to the Sun, taken from Milton's "Puradise Lost.'

| Word. | Clazs. | Śub-Claşs. | , Inflexion. | Relation. | Rule. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| subjection <br> and | noun | com. | sing. 3d, no gen., obj. | gov. by disdained. connecting diodained and thought. | Trans. verbs. gov. \&c. <br> Conj. connect \&c. |
| thought | verb | trans: *irreg. | act. indic., past, sing. 1st. | ) agr. with 1. | A verb agr. \&c. |
| one | adj. | defin. | invar | qual. step. | Adj. qual. nouns. |
| step | noun. | com. | sing., 3d, no gen., nom. | subj, of would set. | A noun or pron. in nom. case, \&ć. |
| higher | adj. | attr. | compar. | qual. step. | Adj. qual. nouns \&c. |
| would set | verb. | trans. irreg. | act. poten:, past, sing. 3d. | agr. with step. | A verb agr. \&cc. |
| me | pron. | pers. | sing. 1st, masc., obj. | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { put for Satan } \\ \text { gov. by would set } \end{array}\right.$ | \{ Pron. agr. \&c. <br> $\{$ Trans. verbs. gov. \&c. |
| highest | adi. | attr. | super. | qual. me. | Adj. qual, nouns \&c. |
|  |  |  |  | or |  |
|  |  |  |  | qual. place $\dagger$ (und.) | Adj. qual. nouns \&c. |
| and | conj. | co-ord. |  | con. would set and would quit. | Conj. con. \&c. |
| in | prep. |  |  | rel. quit and moment. | Prep. show rel. \&c. |
| a | adj. | defin. | invar. | qual. moment. | Adj. qual. \&c. |

* The object of thought is the sentence "one step, \& c., wruld set," \&c. tWould set me in the highest place.



| Word. | Class. | Sub-Class. | Injoxion. | Relation. | Rule. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| forgetful | adj, | attr. | pos, | quel. $I$. | Adj, qual, \&x. |
| what | adj. | detin. | invar. | qual. thingret (und.) | Adj. qual, \&c. |
| from | prep, |  |  | rel. received and him. | Prep. show rel. \&c. |
| Lim | pron, | pers. | sing. 3d, maEc, obj. | \{ put for God, I gov. by from. | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Pron, agr. \&c. } \\ \text { Prep. gov. \&c. } \end{array}\right.$ |
| I | pron, | pars, | siug. Ist., masc.. nom. | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { put for Satan. } \\ \text { subj. of receivcd. } \end{array}\right.$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Pron. agr, \&c. } \\ \text { A noun or pron. in nom. } \\ \text { ease, \&c, } \end{array}\right.$ |
| still | $a d v$, | time. |  | qual. recerves?, | Adv. qual. verbs \&c. |
| received | verb, | trans. reg, | aot., indic., past, sing. 1st. | agrs. with $I$. | A verb agr, \&o. |
| and | oonj, | co-ord, |  | oon. undei... $n$ )-: , - ith previous verbe (aght, \&c) | Conj. con. \&c. |
| understoad | verb, | trans. irfeg | ast., indic., yast. sing. 1st. | agr. with $I$. | A verb agr. \&c. |
| not | ady . | negative |  | qual. understood, | Adv. qual, vorbs \&zc, |
| that | 00iti. | sub-ord, |  | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { con. owes with under- } \\ \text { stood (introducing a } \\ \text { sub-or. olause.) } \end{array}\right.$ | Conj. con. \&c. |
| 5 | 2 dj . | defin, | invas. | qual. mind. | A'f. qual. \&c. |
| greful | adj. | attr. | poz. | 6 6 | 666 |

$\dagger$ Things, obj! gov, by rcceived; "what from him I still received," gev, by, of und,-forgetful of, \&e,

| $W^{\dagger}$ ord. | Class. | Sub-Class. | Inflexion. | Relation. | Rule. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { mind } \\ \text { by } \end{gathered}$ | noun. prep. | com. | sing., 3d, no gen., nom. | subj. of owes. <br> rel. ozets and owing. | A noun or pron. in nom. \&c. Prep. show rel. àc. |
| owing | noun. | part. | sing. 3d. no gen., obj. | gor. by by | Prep. gov. \&c. |
| owes | verb. | intrans. reg | act., indic., pres:, sing. 3 d . | agr. with mind. | A verb agr. \&c. |
| not | adv. | neg. |  | qual. owes. | Adv. qual. verbs \&c. |
| but | conj. | co-ord. |  | con. owes and pays. | Conj. con. es. |
| still | adv . | fime. |  | qual. pays. | Adv. qual. verbs \&c. |
| pays | verb. | trars. irreg. | act, incic. pres. singi $\mathrm{Sa}_{6}$ | agr. with mind. | A verb agr. \&c. |
| (at once) | adv.(phr.) | time. |  | qual. indebted and dischirged. | Adv. qual. adj. \&c. |
| indebted | adj. | part | pos. | qual. mind.* | Adj. qual. nouns, \&ec. |
| and | conj. | co-erd. |  | con. inciebted and discharged. | Conj. con. \&c. |
| discharged | afij. | part. |  | qual. mind. | Adj. qual, ncuns \&c. |
| what | adj. | defir | invar | qual. burden. | Adj. qual. \& c. |
| burden | noun. | com. | sing. 3d, no gen. nom. | after was $\dagger$ (und.) | The verb " to be," \&c. |

The following passage also is from "Milton's Paradise Lost."

*The obj. of bidllest is things. Biddest is here equal to recommenăest, dost place or set beferc mes

| Word. | Class. | Šub-Class. | Inflexion. | Relation. | Rule. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| daw <br> thed | noün. <br> pron. | com. <br> pers. | sing. 3rd, no §en. nom. sing. 2nd, masc. nom. | $\begin{gathered} \text { after is } \\ \left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { put for Adam } \\ \text { subj. of art (und.) } \end{array}\right. \end{gathered}$ | The verb "to be" \&c. <br> $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Pron. agr. \&c. } \\ \text { A noun or pron. in nom. \&c. }\end{array}\right.$ |
| mine <br> to know | pron. <br> verb. | pers. trans. irreg. | sing. 1st, fem. poss. act., infin. prea. | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { put for Ere } \\ \text { gov. by lawo }\end{array}\right.$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Pron. agr. \&c. } \\ \text { A noun or pron. in poss. \&c. }\end{array}\right.$ |
| no |  | defin | 1 invar | qual. mor | Adj. qual. nouns |
| more | $\begin{aligned} & \text { noun } \\ & \text { or } \end{aligned}$ | com | sing. 3rd, no gen., obj | gov. by know | Trans. verbs gov. \&c. |
| is | adj. <br> verb. | defin. inact. irreg. | invar. <br> no voice, indic. pres. sing. 3d. | qual. thengs (und.) agr. with to know | Adj. qual. nouns, \&c. A verb agr. \&ic. |
| woman's | noun | com. | sing. 3rd, fem. poss. | gov. by knowledge | A noun or pron. in poss. \&c. |
| happies | adj. | attr | sup | qual. knowledge | Adj. qual. nouns \&c. |
| knowledge | noun | com. | sing. 3rd, no gen., nom. | ter | The verb " to be ' \&c. |
| and | conj | co-ord. |  | con. knowledge and praise | Conj. con. \&c. |
| her | pron. | pers. | sing. 3rd, fem. poss. | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { put for woman } \\ \text { gov. by praise }\end{array}\right.$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Pron. agr. \&c. } \\ \text { A noun or pron. in poss. \&c. } \end{array}\right.$ |

## EXERCISE XII.

The pupil will correct the errors in the following: ntences, giving in eath case the particular part of the rule of syntue employed in correction.

## Rules I. II.

Children requires instruction. The streets is very dirty. His friends has forsaken him. The valiant never tastes of death but once. Not one in a hundred either read or speak with propriety. I always learns my lessons before I goes to school. He can do it as well as me. Thon ought to overcome evil with good. We was glad to hear it. He reads better than me. Them âre the best apples. Here he them that perceive it. Has the articles been sent away? He is taller than me, but I am taller than her. Was yon refused a hearing? Was you there. John and me went together. Him and James staid at home. Who were present on the oceasion? Him and me. Who saw the eclipse? Us. The horse and carriage was sold. Frugality and industry is the handmaid of fortune. We ought always to act as justice and honor requires. Each hour and moment are to be improved. Every bayonet ar 1 every $\varepsilon$ word glisten in the sunlight. Neither precept nor disciplins, are so forcible as example. John or James are to do it. Neither the seholar nor the master were present. Either disposition or power were wanting. No treaty and no signature are able to bind them. John as well as James were present. The regiment was tall. The company were large. The assemblage were namerous. The council was not agreed on that point. The number of soldiers in arms were more than two thousand. The legislature have adjourned. The flect were seen sailing up the channel. The people is sometimes punished for the guilt or ignorance of their rulers. John or I is to go. James or the servants has done it. Either thou or he deservest to be punished. I or thou am the person who must engage in that business She or I am lost. I or William am in fault. He or they is in fault. Neither poverty nor riches was injurious to him. The man oi his counsellors is to be censured. Whom did he think was absent? Whom three hours since were wrecked upon this shore. Whom do you suppose was the first we saw there?

## Rule III.

I will meet you at Mason's the apothecary's. John's, James's, and Henry's conduct incurred the master's displeasure. Smith's and Crowe's store is at the corner. My daughter's husband's sister is marricd to my son's wife's brother. Do you use Webster or Worcester's Dietionary? My hanks they are furnished with hees. Whatever is most attractive, it is sure to please best.

Prosperity, as truly asserted by Sencea, it very much obstructs the knowlege of ourselves. The cares of this world they often choke the seeds of virtue.

## Rule IV.

He spoke of Solomon, he who was the wisest of men. I nm going to see my friends in the country, they that we visited last summer. I have seen my cousin, she who is a year older than my brother John. Let us worship God, He who created and sustains us.

Rule V. (and Sec. 55.)
I have been reading tinis two hours. The weather has been very fine this two or three days. Those sort of remarks are uncalled for. Them boys are very ille. Give me them books. Take away them things. What's them ? Them are my sentiments. I bought three ton of hay. How do you like these kind of chains? Learn the sixth and seventh page. Much persons were present. The pleasure attends benevolence. A mercy is God's attribute. The prosperity in a nation endangers the good morals. I will walk in the ways of the righteousness. The rich and poor are alike mortal. The noble and peasant wero equally concerned. The old and young may alike profit by the instruction. The desires may be classed as twofold : the animal and rational. The eldest of her two sons is going to school. Which do you like best? tea or coffee. Of two evils choose the least. This is the best olan of the two. John is the cllest, but James is the tallest of the two boys. The latter of the three.

## Rule Vit.

Virus forces her way through obscurity ; and sooner or later it is sure to be rewarded. His form had not yet lost all her original brightness. The plaintiff's Counsel, now had a hard task imposed on it. Ther which seek wisdom will certainly find her. I love the boy which is diligent. The man of which he complains is honest. France, who was in alliance with England, sent an army. Was it thou or the wind, who shut the door? They are exactly like so many puppets who are moved by wires. He has a soul who cannot be influenced by such motives. The horse and rider which we saw fell in battle. Who is the man who dares to make these charges? Pitt was the pillar who upheld the State? The court who gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary. He cannot see one in prosperity wishout envying them. John and James are faithful to his studies. The committee were divided in its sentiments. One or the other will take their time. My brother and I, together with two cousins, wero at their respective tasks. Each man of the country eame with arms in their hands. Everybody is bound to do dili-
gently all the good they can. By discussing each particular in their order, w shall better understand the subject. As for wealth and the goods of this world, he has it all in contempt. The regiment was much reduced in their numbers. When a hird is caught, they of course try to eseape. Let every pen, every book, and every slate be put in their places. She fell to langhing, like one out of their right mind. John and James were punished for his bad conduct. Thou and James and John may divide the apples among them. You and your playmates must learn their lessons.

## Rule VII.

He invited my brother and I into his garden. Do you know who you are speaking to? He who committed the offence, you should correct, not I who am innocent. To poor I, there is not much hope remaining. I commend him for justifying his self. He that is idle reprove sharply. Let thou ard I imitate his example. By the exercising our jüdgment it is improved. A wise man will avoid showing of any excellence in trifles. $\Lambda$ wise man will ayoid the showing any excellence in trifles. Great benefit may he derived from reading of good books. He is not disturbed by dashing of the waves. I shall conclude by the recommending a practice for which every one has suffitient nhilities. By observing of thla rule you will avoid mistakes. The making ourselves clearly understood, is the chief mil of speech.

## Rute VIII.

It is me, I thought that it wif him. Let him be who he may. Ho so much resmbled ny hrother that I took it to be he It could not have been him. Wus it him or her? It wasn't me but him. It was them that did it. If I were him, I would not act so. Whom lid lre tell you it was ?

## Ruis 1X.

He appeared to me to have been a man of letters. I expeeted to have received an answer to my letter. You appear to me to have been justified. It was a pleasure to have received his approbation, "It would have afforded me still greater pleasure to receive his approbation at an earlier period, but to receive it at all, is a gratification to me.

## Rule X .

Thomas has acted very proper. Our wealth was near finished. The people are miserable poor. The task was the casier performed from the checrfu!ness with which he engaged in it. No person could behave nobler than he did on that occasion. We all wish a soon and happy termination to the war. He
acted agrecable to the dictates of prudence. Such genius is exceeding rare. You behave very bad. Apples are more plenty than peaches. From whence arose the misunderstanding? From thence proceeded all these misfortunes. He is like to be an exceeding useful member of society. Twelve o'clock is the soonest time at which I can go.

## Rule XII.

John thinks himself above thon aud I. With who do you live? Does that boy know who he speaks to. Associate not with those who none can speak well ot. Who was it from, and what was it about? He spoke of Solomon, he who was the wisest of men. For poor $I$, there is not much hope remaining

## Rule XIV.

What would he say if he were to coms and saw me idle? Did I not tell thee and besought thee to do better? Professing regard and to act differently, discover a base mind. My brother . and him are tolerable grammarians. On that occasion he could no: have done more, nor offer less. Whatever others do, let yon and I act wisely. You and me have enjoyed many a pleasant walk together. If he prefer a virtuous life and is sincere in his profession, he will succeed. Neither you nor them can answer properly. It is so clear as I need not explain it. Neither despise or oppose what you do not understand. $\Lambda$ metaphor is nothing eise but a short comparison.

## Rule XVI.

I don't see nobody. He will never be no better. I cannot walk no farther. I cannot by no means peanit you to do it. He saya he cannot give no more.

## Rule XVII.

I done su. They done the best they could. The sun has rose. I never seen it. I. am wore out. He might have went. They begun wrong. They come home long ago. I had drove the eattle to pasture. The ,bird has forsook its nest. He growed very much. He has spoke but once. Five were took prisoners. The river had sank below the ordinary level. He had mistook the way,

## Rule XVIII.

Be that as it will, he cannot justify his conduct. His sickness was so great that I often feared he would have died before our arrival. He would have assisted one of his friends if he could do it without injuring the other, but as that could not have been done, he avoided all interference.

## ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

362. It has been shown (See 260, 261) that no sentence is complete which does not include a subject and a predicate.
363. The simplest sentence consists of two words, the one a subject and the other a predicate; as, doys bark. 'The subject of the sentence is dogs; the predicate, bark.
364. In sentences like the following-the dogs are barking; the momit is bright ; the stars are shining, the words are and is are called copulas, but this distinction is not really necessary. Every sentence may be regarded as containing simply a subject and predicate; the subjeci being what we speak about; the predicate what we say of it ; as in the sentence given above.
365. The various kinds of subject have been explained under Syntax. (See 285.)

## SUBJECT.

366. In the sentence boys run, let us ask the question, What are we speaking about? Ans.-Boys. Boys is therefore the subject.

36\%. In the sentence little boys run, what are we talking about? Not about boys generally, but about little boys. This expression, we see, contains two ideas; the idea given by the word boys, and the qualifying idea, that of their being little. The word boys is, then, called the simple or grammatical subject; the word little is called the enlargement ; both together forming what is called, the whole, entire, enlarged, or logical subject.
368. The enlargement is; therefore, some qualifying word or expression, added to the grammatical subject, so as to give greater distinctness to its meaning, and called an adjunct.
369. The enlargement of the subject may be;
(1) An adjective-The little boy speaks the truth.
(2) A participial phrase-The boy, being a good boy, speaks the truth.
(3) A noun in poss. case-The farmer's boy speaks the truth.
(4) Preposition and its object-the boy of excellen habits speaks the truth.
(5) A noun in apposition-The boy, the son of virtuous parents, speaks the truth.
Note.-The whole or any number of these may unite to form an enlarged subject; as, "The farmer's little boy, in the school, being a good boy, the son of virtuous parents, speaks the truth.

## PREDICATE.

370. The Predicate may consist of an intransitive verb only ; as, the boy runs.
371. If the Predicate contains a transitive verb, it is plain that an object is wanted to complete the sense, which object may be a noun, pronoun \&c., (See 286) simply, or with adjuncts; the whole forming what is called the completion.
372. The adjuncts of the object may be any of those which we have seen attached to the subject. However, it is not usual, in Analysis, to break up the completion into object and enlargement.
373. Many verbs take what is called an indirect object. This is an object, which, although not governed in the objective case by the verb, is still required to complete the sens: and without which the sentence would appear wanting. Thus in the sentence "The judge declared the prisoner to be innocent;' the prisoner is the direct object, and to be innocent, the indirect, as it indirectly completes the verb declared. Again in the sentence "They made Edward king;" Edward is the direct and king the indurect object. This is a peculiarity of the verb make. And in the sentence "He gave a large dowry to his daughter," a large dowry is the divect, to lis daughter, the indirect object. This is called the dative complement.
374. "The Predicate, in addition to being com? ?eted by an object, may also be more accurately dined by enumerating any of the circumstances of, tine, place, manner, \&c., which tend to render our idea of the action more explicit and distiuct. 'These we term-Extensions of the predicate."


IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (MT-3)

375. These extensions may be any words or phrases, adverbial or prepositional that will express circumstances of time, place, manner, cause and effect (subdivided into ground or reason, condition, concession, purpose, material, and consequence.)

Thus:-
Time: Subdivided into
point of time; as, "I saw him this marning." (When.) duration " ; as, " He reigned ten years." (How long.) repetition " ; as, "Ho visits us daily." (How often.)
Place: Subdivided into
rest in a place; as, "He put his hat on his head." (Where.) motion to " ; as, "He went to school. (Whither.) motion from" ; as, " He came from town. (Whence.)
[Manner: Subdivided into
manner simply; as, "He speaks eloquently." (How.) |degree; as, "He speaks little."
measure ; as, "The book cost a shilling." agent ; as, "He was defeated by the rebelr.," instrument; as, "He stabbed him with a dagger." accompanying circumstances; as, "He came with a large retinue."
Cause and Effect : Subdivided into ground or reason; as, "He died of grief." condition; as, "With care, he may recover." concession; as, "We failed, in spite of our exertion." material ; as, "Houses are built of wood." purpose; as, "The Sun was made to give light and heat." .consequence; (Rare in simple sentences.)
376. The substance of most of the followingdirections for analysing simple sentences is given by Morell:
(1) Pick out the verb and put it under the head simple predicate.
(2) Remember, that as the participle and infinitive mood are the non-asserting parts of the verb, neither of them can form a predicate.
(3) Find tine grammatical subject by the rule laid down before for this matter (See 284) and place that subject under the head simple subject.
(4) Find the enlargement or enlargements of the subject, and place them in the proper column.
(5) Find the objects, direct and indirect, and place them accordingly.
(6) Find any expressions that qualify the verbs or simple predicate, and place them in the extension.
(7) Remember that nothing goes in the extension, which cannot lie referred to the verb or simple predicate. It often happens that a verb in the infinitive mood is the object. If an adverb occurs in as sentence of this kind, see whether it belong to the principal verb or not; if sit does, place it under the head extension, but not otherwise For example, in the sentence, " He appeared to valk slovoly," slowly goes with the completion, because it modifies wulk, not appeared.

## HXERCISE XIII.

Analyze the following sentences according to the tabulated form given below,
"Some of the greatest philosophers, in all ages, have followed the pursuits of active life."

| Subject. |  | Predicate. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Eniargement | Simple Swbj. | Simple Pred. | Completion | Extension |
| Some, of the greatest philosophers | philosophers (understood) | have followed | the pursuits of active life | in. all ages (time) |

All in the valley of death rode the six handred. Thus repulsed, our final hope is flat despair. We must exasperate the Almighty Victor to spend all his rage. He from Heaven's height all these our motions vain sees. To suffer, as to do, our strength is equal. They parted, heavy ard sorrowful. I here fetched a deep sigh. He would not allow me into the room because of the
sirck man. The glutton lives to cat. The wise man eats to livo Though deep, yet clear. Thanks to God for mountains. Now came the last and most wonderful sign. Cradled in the ficld, he was to the last hour the darling of the army. It is natural for every man to wish for distinction. We should labor to fulfil the purposes of our being. The wild quadrupeds were driven from their accustomed haunts I am blamed without reason, . We shall have finished before your arrival. Threa years she grew in sun and shower. The child was playing with some beads. Halifax is in Nopa Scotia. Up the hill he heaves a hugh round stone. With much difficulty we brought our ships to land. His poetry I prefer for these two reasons. He came from home. By sheer steel ana sheer courage, the soldiers were winning their way. Twice fell his eye. I should be much for open war, $\mathbf{O}$ peers. Man marks the earth with ruin. You have condemned Lucius Pella for taking bribes here of the Sardians

## COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

377. Although every sentence contains ore subject and one predicate, yet a sentence may include secondary or accessory sentences or clauses, and each such clause will necessarily contain its own subject and predicate.
378. A distinction must therefore be made between simple sentences and those which are not simple.
379. Take for example the two following sentences,
(a) The man tells me that it will rain.
(b) The sky is dark and the weather threatens.

Fach contains two complete sentences, but in (a) they are much more dependent on one another than in (b). In (a) the second clause is subordinate to the first, being, in fact, necessary to the completion of the sentiment intended to be conveyed. In (b) the second clause is co-ordinate with the first, and is not needed for the completion of its sense. We call (a) Complex, (b) Pure Compound. These terms have been already explained. (See 265, 266, 267.)

## NOUN .SENTENCE.

380. The second sentence in (a) is called a noun sentence, because it " occupies the place and follows the
construction of a noun." It is, in fact, the object of tells: The man tells what? (Question to find out the object of the verb) "it will rain." The noun sentence may be the subject of a verb; thus, "That you have wronged me doth appear in this." What doth appear? (Question to find out subject of the verb) "that you have wronged me." The noun sentence may be in apposition to a noun or pronoun ; thus, "My excuse is, I was delayed." "It is certain that he will not coms." The noun sentence may form a predicate with the verb "to be;".thus, "My hope is, that I shall succeed." The noun sentence may be the object of a preposition; thus, " He spoke of what I saw." It will be observed that all these positions which the noun sentence has been made to occupy, are natural positions for a noun.*
381. The noun sentence is very often introduced by the conjunction that.

## EXERCISE XIV.

Give, according to the tabulated form on next page, the general and particular analysis of the following complex sentences containing sub-ordinate noun sentences. Note-That general analysis means the breaking up of a Complex or Compound sentence into the clauses of which it is composed ; and particular analysis means the breaking up of these claises into their several parts.

[^7]＂He never told me that he w＂s going away．＂

| （1）M． | 2 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { E } \\ & \text { 苞 } \\ & \text { E } \end{aligned}$ |  |
|  | \％ |  |  |
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| $\begin{aligned} & \text { U్N゙ } \\ & \text { N్J } \\ & \text { W్ } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |

He replied that such symptoms could only have one meanmg． Why he did it is unknown to me．Say to the widow，I grieve， and can but grieve for her．Whether he goes or stays interests me not．I did mark how he did shake．＇Tis true，this god did shake．Methought that I had bruken from the tower．．I could not see why it happened so．How！will you tell me you have done this？Heaven and earth will witness that we are innocent． I perceive you feel the dint ot pity．That there is a power above us，all Nature cries aloud through all her works．＇Tis not enough no harshness gives offence．Of man＇s miraculous mis－ takes，this bears the palm ：－－That all men are about to live．He should know that time must conquer．You think，no doubt，he
sits and muses. That he never will is sure. Have you heard the saying, "Man was made to mourn." It is not meet that we should leave thee thus, alone. It is easy to show that there is a positive gratification resulting from the study of the Sciences. It may be you shall burst out into light and glory at the last. The difficulty was that he did not understand the language. The fact is, the position grows more dangerous every day.

ADJECTIVE SENTENCE.
382. The adjective sentence is so called, because, "in reference to the principal sentence it occupies the place and follows the construction of an adjective." As an adjective qualifies a noun or pronoun, the adjective sentence will always be found to do the same. In the sentence "Yon sun, that sets upon the sea, we follow in his flight," we have two assertions; "We follow yon sun in his flight;" and "that sets upon the sea." This last sentence tells us something, some quality, about the sun, a noun, and is consequently an adjective sentence. Again, in the sentence "It blesseth him that gives," we have two assertions, "It blesseth him" and "that gives." This last sentence tells us something about him, a pronoun, and, is consequently an adjective sentence. The assertions can be destroyed, and they become, simply, adjectives. Thus, "Yon setting-upon-the-sea sun, we follow \&c. "It blesseth a giving him." Such expressions do not sound as idiomatic, but they show the adjective nature of these sentences.*
383. An adjective sentence is often introduced by a relative pronoun.

## FXERCISE XV.

Analyze the following, containing adjective sub-ordinate clauses, as in Exercise 14.

Mountains interposed make enemies of nations, who had else like kindred drops, been mingled in one. I venerate the man whose heart is warm. I have often wished to revisit the place where I was born. Who, that saw the accident, could fail to sympathize with the sufferers. They that sow in tears, shall reap in joy. Who steals my purse steals trash. They that are whole need not a physician. This spirit shall return to Him who gave its heavenly spark. 0 thou! that, with surpassiug glory crowned, look'st from thy sole dominion. Our sweetest songs

[^8]are those that tell of saddest thought. Teaeh me half the gladness that thy brain must know. The sequel of to-day unsolders all the goodliest fellowship of famous Knights whereof this world holds record. I perish hy this people which I made. Happy are they, my son, who shall learn from thy example not to despair. With three steps I compass thy grave, $O$ thou who wast so great before. There are changes which may happen in $a$ single instant of time. Silent is the tongue to whose accents we surrendered up the soul. These are ties which, though light as air, yet are as strong as links if iron. That principle, which tells him, that resistance to power usurped is not merely a duty which he owes to himself and to his neighbor, but a duty which he owes to God.

## ADVERBIAL SENTENCE.

384. This sentence, "in reference to the principal sentence, occupies the place, and follows the construction of an adverb." It expresses the time, place, manner, reason, purpose \&c. of the action expressed by the verb or simple predicate of the principal sentence. Thus, in the sentence "When Jesus was twelve years of age, he went into the temple with his brethren," we have two sentences, "Jesus went into the temple" and "when he was twelve years of age." This last is an adverbial sub-ordinate sentence of time, becaus's it tells us the time at which the principal action of going took place. Again, in the sentence, "The ostrich is unable to fly, because it has not wings in proportion to its body," the last clause " because it has not wings \&c."" is the ground or reason of the truth of the first assertion. It is called, therefore, an adverbial sub-ordinate sentence, of ground or reason, to the principal sentence.*
385. Of adverbial subordinate clauses there are four principal kinds-clauses of time; of place, of manier, of cause and effect.
386. Adverbial subordinate clauses of time are subdivided into three classes-clauses expressive of point of time (answering to the question, when ?) ; as, 1 came when the sun o'er that beach was declining: duration of time (answering to the question, how long? ; as, I watched while he slept : repetition (answering to the question, how often ?) ; as, I drove whenever the weather was fine.
387. Adverbial subordinate clauses of place are subdivided into three classes-clauses expressive of rest in a place (answering to the question, where?) ; as, Near yonder copse, where once the

[^9]garden smiled, the modest mansion rose : motion to (answering to the question, whither?) ; as, He goes whither he is led: motion from (answering to the question, whence ?) He comes whence he resides. (Rare).
388. Adverbial subordinate clauses of manner are sưbdivided into two classes-clauses expressive of manner simply (answering to the question, how?) ; as. He ended as he had begun: manner by comparison; as, $\mathbf{A}$ bird flies swifter than a horse can run. A third class is sometimes given-degree; as, In summer it sometimes thunders, so that the very windows rattle. The subordinate clause here may be considered one of consequence.
389. Adverbial sutordinate clauses of canse and effect arc subdivided into five classes-clenses of condition; as, If ruins zoere there they had ceased to blaze: concession; is , Though we seldom follow advice we are ready enough to ask it:ground or reason; as, The boy cannot write because he has injured his hand: purpose; as, I came that I might accompany him home: consequence; as, I was so plcased with the place that I resolved to visit it again.

## EXERGISE XVI.

Analyze the following sentences, containing adverbial subordinate clauses, according to the tabulated form given under Exercise 14.

The field was as they left it. If ruins were there they had ceased to blaze. If blood were shed, the ground no more betrays. Where Britain's power is felt, mankind may feel her mercy too. Would I describe a preacher-such as Paúl, were he on earth, would hear, approve, and own,-Paul should, himself, direct me. Though he was rich, yet, for our sake he became poor. We read, that we may learn. The night was so dark that he missed his way. I saw from the beach when the morning was shining, a bark move over the waters. He did not come because he missed the train. This was at first resolved, if we vere wise, against so great a foe contending. I had rather be a dog, and bay the moon, than such a Roman. Hear me for I will speak. I am armed so strong in honesty that they pass by me as the idle wind. Do what you will, dishonor shall be humor. Now thou hast seen me, art thou satisfied. Stop them, Ventidius, or I shall blush to death. Though I mentioned a gift, I had nought to give. I read the scroll because it is the king's. If he spared not them, tremble and be amazed at thy escape, lest he spare not thee. Though he became poor, he continued honest. We should have gone, had it not rained heavily. Though Milton is most distinguished for his sublimity, there is much of the beautiful, the tender, the pleasing, in many parts of his work. Blessed are the merciful for they shall obtain mercy. Wherefore should not strength and might there fail where virtue fails. It is now three years since I last saw him.

EXERCISF XVII.
Analyze a sentence from any book according to specimest given below.

Pure Compound.

| Sentence. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Kind of } \\ \text { SENTENCE. } \end{gathered}$ | Subjict. |  | Predicate. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Enlargement. | Simple Subject. | Simple Predicate. | Compietiox. | Extexsiox. |
| (a) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight | Principal sentence | the glimmering | landscape | fades |  | now (time) on the sight (place) |
| (and) all the air a solemn stillness holds. | Principal sentence co-ord. with a | all, the | - air | holds | \& solemn stilluess |  |

MIXED COMPOUND.

| Sentence. | Kind of Sentence. | Subject. |  | Predicate. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Enlargement. | Simple Sub. | Simple Pred. | Completion. | Extension. |
| (a) <br> As the wolves, thus against the walls they went <br> (b) | prin. sent. to b |  | they | went |  | as the wolres (manner) <br> thus (manuer) <br> against the wall (place) |
| that headlong go on the stately buffalo | adj. sent. sub-or. to a. qual. wolves prin. to $c . \& d$. |  | that | go |  | headlong (manner) on the stately bufiaio (place) |
| (c) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (though) with flery eyes and angry roar, and hoofs, he tramples on earth the foremost. | ```adv. sent. sub-or. to b (concession.) prin, to e. & g.``` |  | he | tramples | the foremost | on earth (place) with houfs (instr) with fiery eyes \&c. (8i. cir.) |

## "As the wolves that headlong go

 On the stately buffalo,Though with fiery eyes, and angry roar,
And hoofs that stamp, and horns that gore,
He tramples on earth or tosses on high The foremost who rush on his strength but to die; Thus against the wall they went,
Evus as they fell, in files they lay,
Like the mower's grass 3 , the close of day."

Mised Compound.

That he is
That he is mad, 'tis true: 'tis true, 'tis pity;
And pity 'tis, 'tis true.

Mixed Compound．

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 思 } \\ & \text { 苟 } \\ & \text { 葸 } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 感 } \\ & \text { © } \\ & 00 \\ & \text { o } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  | 台 品 易 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | $\stackrel{\mathscr{E}}{\underline{E}}$ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \stackrel{0}{4} \\ & \stackrel{4}{6} \\ & \ddot{⿷ 匚} \end{aligned}$ |

He who reigns within himself，and rules
And who attains not，ill aspires to rule
Cities of men，or headstrong multitudes．

SYNTAX.
But that thou shouldst my firmness therefore doubt To God or thee, because we have a foe
May tempt it, l-expected not to hear.


## HXERCISE•XVIII.

## Sentences for Analysis.

1. Still, in the vale, the village bells ring round.
2. List! war-peals thunder on the battle-field.
3. Slacken not sail yet at iniet or island.
4. How often have I paused at every charm ;The sheltered cot, the cultivated farm, The never failing brook, the busy mill, The decent ehurch that topped the neighboring hill.
5. He advanced towards the light, and, finding that it proceeded from the cottage of a hermit, he called humbly at the door and obtained admission.
6. We rise in the morning of youth, full of vigor, and full of expectation.
7. Pursuing these ideas, I sat down close by my table, and leaning my head apon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement.
8. The Sacred Services in which the Soul Adores with awe the Power whence she sprung, May well the culture of the tongue demand.
9. The messenger of God will whisper, peace.
10. Room for the leper! room.
11. The voice was like the master-tone of a rich instrument -most strangely sweet.
12. But Linden showed another sight, When the drum beat at dead of night, Commanding fires of death to light ${ }^{\text {- }}$

The darkness of her scenery.
13. He stood-fleet, army, treasure, goneAlone and in despair! While wave and wind swept ruthless on, For they were monarchs there.
14. The clouds are divided in heaven; over the green hill, flies the inconstant sun; red,through the stony vale comes down the stream of the hill.
15. A breath of wind tears it from its stem, and it lights on the stream of water which passes underneath.
36. We kave already stated our doubis whether direct pecuniary aid, had it been offered, would hase bean aocepted, or could have proved very effectual.
17. Awake!'tis the terror of war.
18. The stir-the trainp-the bugle call-he heand their cumults grow.
12.

I sce before me the Giadiatar lie;; He leans upon his hand; his manly brow
Consents to death but:conquers a, pony.
20. No man suffers by bad fortune, but the who has beere deceired by good.
21. A pale light, like that of the rising moon, quivered are the horizon.
22. Fre heard the sound, and could almost teil The autlen words of the sentinel, As:his measured steps, on the stone below Clanked, as he paced it to and rio.
23. For Frame is there to say who bleeds:; And Honor's eye on daring deeds.
24. O thos that my boyhood's guide didst take fond joy tothe.
25.

These was a man,
A Roman soldier, for some daring deed That trespassed-on the laws, in dungeor low Chained down.
26. Grand, gloomy, and peculiar, he sat apon the throne, 2 sceptred hermit, wrapped in the solitude of lis own originality.
27. Without dividing, he.destroyed party ; withaut corruptang, he made a venal age unanimous.

28 A character so exalted, so stronuous, so warious, so authoritative, astonished a comrupt age.
29. Crafty men cortema studies, simple men admire themp and wise men use them.
30. To spend too much time instudies, is sloth; to ase theme too much Lor ornament, is affectation; to make judgmenc wholly dy thair mules, is the humor of a scholax.
31. And Ardennes waves above tham her:green leaved, Dewy with nature's tear-drops ; as they pass, 'Grieving-if aught inanimate ce'er griemesOwer the unreturning hrave.
32. Suppose a man gets all the world, what is it that he gets?
33. If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop was landed in my country, I never woald iay down my arms ;-never, never, never.
34. I come now to speak npon what indeed 1 wonld have gladly avoided, had I not been particularly pointed at for the part I have taken.
35. I trust that, at length, the time is come, when parliament will no longer bear to be told that slave owners are the best lawgivers on slavery.
36. Of the Three IIundred, grant kut threeTo make a new Thermopylx.
37. Thrice is he armed who hath his quarrel just.
38. Is this a dagger which I see before me, The handle toward my hand?
39.

All is gentle : nought Stirs radely ; bat, congenial with the night Whatever walks, is gliding like a spirit.
40.

Alas, poor conntry,
Almost afraid to know itself;-it cannet Be called our nother, but ouy grave.
41. I have but one hamp by which my feet are guineat, and that is the lamp of experience.
42. Although: I an neither his counsel, nor desire to have anything to do with his guilt or innocence, $;$ yet in the defence of my client, I am driven to state matter which may be consideres. by many as unnccessary.
43. Is there amongst you any one friend to freedom?
44.

Be't their comfort We're coming thither..
45. Power dwelleth not in sound, and fame hath garlands Brighter than diadems.
46. I would invoke those who fill the se $i_{i}$. of justice, and al? who minister at her altar, that they execute the wholesome and mecessary severity of the law.
47. I have admitted, they must necessarily be always the same, because they were founded in what was eternal truth.
48. I mist own, I have such an ind:ferent opinion of the vulgar, that $I$ am ever led to suspect thet merit which raises their shout.
49. Here he paused for a while that he might consider whether it were langer safe to forsake the known and comsmon track.
50. I that denied thee gold, will give my heart; Strike as thou didst at Cosar; for I know
When thou didst hate him worst, thou lovedst him better Than ever thou lovedst Cassius.

## ANALYSIS OR PARAPHRASE OF POETRY.

390. Poetry is not prose arranged after a certain measurs, and sometimes terminating line by line in the same soands; bat it possesses phrases and idioms, as well as thoughts, which are peculiar to itself and do not belong, properly speaking, to prose.
391. By paraphrasing poetry, we mean divesting it of whatever should be peculiar to poetry, whether in idiom or words, and expressing the same senteuces at greater length and in the plainer and less impassioned language of prose.
392. Prose, likewise, may be more or less poetical, more or leas figurative, more or less adorned, and by paraphrasing it, we mean stripping it of its poetical or figurative character, and so presenting it in a homelier, plainer, fuller dress.
393. To paraphrase well, we must enter fully into the writer's mind, clearly embrace his sentiments, see plainly and appreciate the beauty and force of every metaphor, simile, and even epithet employed, and then, when the mind has become fully penetrated with the author's meaning, remould the whole in our own minds, and rejecting all words, ideas, figures, and epithets that are inappropriate to prose, restore the full sentiments in a new form.

## 394. The following passage is from Mirtow-

Our supreme foe in time may mucts remit His anger; and perhaps, thus far removed, Not mind ns not offending, satisfied
With what is punished; whence these raging fircs
Will slacken, ff his breath stir not their flames.
Our purer essence then will overcome
This noxious vapor; or, inured, not feel, Or changed at length and to the place conformed
In temper and in nature, will receive
Familiar the fiesce heat, and void of pain ;
This horror will grow mild, this darkness light; Resides what hope the never-ending fight Of future days may bring, what chance, what change Worth waiting ; since otr present lot appears For happy though but ill, for ill not worst, If we procure not to onrselves more woe.
The paraphrase is as follows:
Our Sovereign foe may, in time, grently mitigate his anger* and, perhaps, ceasing to heed us at so remote a distance, if we avoid giving him offence, may become satisfied with the amonnt of punishment inflicted, and then these fires will abate their fierceness, when his breath ceases to excite their flames. The purer essence of our nature will then overpower the hurtfal influence of their vapor; or, through being inured, grow insensible or it, or may beoome eventually so changed and so adapted to the situation, in temper and constitution, as to sustain the fierce heat with familiar indfference, and without actual pain; this stern aspect of things will become mild; this darkness will grow light ; and, moreover, the never-ending prospect of futurity may bring us some hope, some opportunity, some alteration that is: worth waiting for; since, though our present state is positively ill, or the reverse ot happy, yet it is by no means ill in the degree: called worst, so long as we are careful not to bring upon ourselves additional calamity."
395. By paraphrasing we mean something more: than merely rendering into prose. We are at liberty: to expatiate and to make the original clear by: ezpansion.

## PROSODY.

## 396. Prosody treats of metre or rhythm.

307. Metre or rhythm, in its widest sense, is "the recurrence at certain regular intervals, of syllables similarly affected."
308. The syllables may be affected in their quantities, as in classic metres; in their soznds, either initial, as in Anglo Saxon and sometimes in old English, or final as in our common rhyme; or in their accents only, as in all English blank verse.
309. Metre, as far as the English tongue is concerned, is that kind of composition in which accented syllables recur at certain regular intervals; as, -
"The way was long, the wind was colld"
310. Prose is that kind of composition in which the sccented syllables recur at no particular interval; as,

 huíman oceupátions." $25085787^{28} 40$
311. Pootry is writtem in metre, and may be rhyme or blank verse.
312. The term, rhyme, is applied to lines which terminate in the same sound.
313. To form a perfect rhyme, three things are essential :-
(1) That the rowel sound and the letters following is be the same.
(2) That the letters preceding the vowel be differens
(3). Tliat the rhyming syllables be aceented alike. Thus ; buave sete; tenderly, slenderly.
314. Two lines rhyming togethr make a couplet also called a distich. Three lines rhyming together make a triplet.
315. The term Blank Verse is applied to poetry which does not rhyme.
316. A verse is properly a line of poetry.
317. A hemistich is half or other portion of a verse.
318. A stanza is a group of rhyming lines.
319. A strophe in the ancient theatre was that part of the song or dance around the altar which was performed by turning from the right to the left. It was followed loy the antistrophe in the contrary direction. Hence, in many lyric (See 478) poems we see the former of two stanzas called the strophe and the latter the antistrophe. For example, Collins's "Ode to Mercy."
320. An accented syllable taken with the syllable or syllables before it or after it which are not accented, constitutes a measure or foot.
321. Feet are so called, because it is ly their aid that the voice, as it were, steps along through the verse in a measured pace.
322. A measure or foot may vary in its size, that is, in the number of syllables it contains. It may comprise either two or three syllables, but all lines in poetry may be divided into some such feet. The number of accented syllables in a line determines the number of feet.
323. The feet of which English verse is chiefly composed are of five kinds: two, dissyllabic; three, tri-syllabic.
324. Dis:yllabic feet.
(1) Iambus; unaccented, accented; $\smile$-; as
control.
(2) Trochee; accented, unaccented; -し; as,

[^10]415. A third kind of dissyllabic foot sometimes occurs; the Spondee, two accented syllables. But it is rarely found, and then, only intermingled with the other kinds of feet.

## 416. Tri-syllabic feet.

(1) Dactyl; accented, unaccented, unaccented - $\smile$; as, beautiful.
(2) Anapæsst; unaccented, unaccented, accented; - - -; as, refugee.
(3) Amphibrach; unaccented, accented, unac-

$$
\text { cented; }-\backsim \text {; as, preserver. }
$$

Note.-Dr. Latham has adopted a new system of marking accented and unaccented syllables in scanning. In a dissyllabic foot, the accented syllable is marked by the letter a; the unaccented, by $x$.
Thus, control-measure. In tri-syllabic feet, $s$ marks the unaccented syllable. Thus, beautiful-refugee-preserver.
417. All English verse is reducible to these five kinds, each taking its name from the foot which prevails : Iambic, Trochaic, Ductylic, Anapastic, and Amphibrachic-monometer (one foot), dimeter (two teet), trimeter (three feet), tetrameter (four feet), pentameter (five feet), hexameter (six feet), heptameter (seven feet), octometer (eight feet), according to: the number of feet in each line.
418. Scanning means the dividing of a line inta the feet of which it is composed. When done orally, it means reciting the verse in such a way as to mark with prominence, by the voice, the accented syllable, and the end of each foot. Written Scanning is effected by drawing a vertical line after each foot, and placing over each syllable the mark used to express accentec or unaccented. This will be seen when we
come to examples of the different kinds of tines and feet.
419. The best aid in Scanning is the ear. We den cide at once and without rule what is the accented syllable and what the anaccented.

## 田XEROISE XIX.

State what kind of foot is each of the following words.
Village, resound, crowding, music, glitter, cottage, wilderness, oppression, suceessful, report, obrurute, brotherhood, natural, intersect, enemies, freedum, forbidden, universe, compose, syotem, respecting, movement, comprehend, perfect, imperfect, perfectly, perfection, knowledge, billow, solemnly, delight, Christian, merchandise, repose, advance, alas, unkind, begiu, tenderly, contending, deserted, modest, eternal, affection. tribunal, angel, relentless, register, iambus, trochee, dactyl, anapæest, amphibrach, careless, ignorance, describe, approve, discordant, orchantment, conjugate.

Place before or after, the following iambuses another iambus consisting of two monosyllables, or of a dissyllable.

Before, report, destroy, explore, unknown, asvay, receive, delay, renown, reprove, diselose, began, appear, respoct, maintain, between, decrease, forlorn, within, myfelf, demand, extreme. impeach.

Proceed in a similar manner ath the following trochees.
Brightest, glory, story, sleeping, summer, minstrei, fountain, iillow, spirit, fairest, morning, goodly, banner, chiottaing, slumber.

## IAMBIC METRE

## 420. Iambic Monometer.

> The liglxt
> Tas gone
> The nigitit
> Comes on.
421. Iambic Dimeter.

422. Sometires an additional syllable occurs in the sine. This additional syllable is called hyperweter: the line, hypermetrical.
423. Iambic Dimeter Hypermetrical.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { In woods | a rang | er } \\
& \text { To you | a strang | er. }
\end{aligned}
$$

424. Iambic Trimeter.

The Pol $\mid$ ar clouds $|$| uplift |
| :---: |
| A mo ment and |
| no more |
| And through \| the snow | y drift | |

We seo / them on | the shore |
425. Iambic Trimeter, Hypermetrical.

428. This measure is generally called Anacreontic, being the same as that used in the odes of the Greek poet, Anacreon.
427. Iambic Tetrameter.

> Clime of | the un | forgot | ten brave |
> Whose land | from plain | to mount |'ain cave |
> Was free | dom's home | or glo | ry's grave |
428. This metre is generally called Romance metre. 'The term Romance comes down to us from the 12 th century. It first meant the dialect prisalent in some of the Southern districts of Fraince, which sprung direstly from the Roman or Latin tongue. The term was then applied to stories in a poetic form, and writien in the Romance dialect. This Iambic Tetrameter or Romance metre is that found in Scott's and Byron's Tales, Butler's Hudib:as, Gay's Fables, \&c.
429. Iambic Pentameter.

Of man's | first dis †obe | dience and | the fruit | Of that | forbid | den tree | whose mor | tal taste | Brought aeath | into | the world \| and all | our woe |
430. This metre is generally called Heroic metre, from its constant use in the more dignified poetical compositions, such as Milton's Paradise Lost. It
was first used in English verse by the Earl of Surrey, who wrote in the reign of Henry VIII, and has been adopted by all the great English poets from Shake speare down to Tennyson. Dryden and Pope have used it chiefly in rhyming couplets.
431. Sometimes this metre is written in a Stanza of nine lines, the ninth being a line of six feet or Hexameter. This Stanza is called the Spenserian from the poet Spenser; and the ninth line, an Alexandrine, because it was employed in the 12 th century loy the Troubadours, in poems composed in honor of the deeds of Alexander the Great. The following from Spenser is an example of this kind of Staizza:

> A gentle knight was spurring on the plain; Yclad in mighty arms and silver shield, Wherein old dints of deep wounds did remain,
> The cruel marks of many a bloody field;
> Yet arms till that time did he never wield:
> His angry steed did chide his foaming bit, And much disdaining to the curb to yield: Full jolly knight he seemed, and fair did sit, As one for knightly jousts and fierce encounters fit.I
432. Thomson in his Castle of Indolence, and Byron in Childe Harold's Pilgri:nage, are chief among the more modern writers of this Stanza.
433. Elegiac metre is composed of Stanzas of four heroic lines rhyming alternately; as in Gray's Elegy, of which the following is the first Stanza;

The Curfew tolls the knell of parting day; The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea; The ploughman homeward plodis his weary way ; And leaves the world to darkness and to me.
434. Seven Heroir lines, the first five rhyming alternately, and the two last in succession form the Rhyme Royal, of Chaucer, and writers of the Elizabethan period. The following is from Chaucer : Suffise unto thy good though it be small, For horde hath hate, and climbing tikelnesse, Prease hath envy, and wele is blent over all, Savour no more than thee behove, shall, Rede well thy selfe that other fclk can'st rede,
435. Eight Heroic lines, the first six rhyming alternately, and the last two in succession, compose the Italian Ottava Rima. This metre is found in translations and in Byron's Don Juan. The following is from Don Juan:

Then rose from sea to sky the wild farewell-
Then shrieked the timid and stood still the brave,Then some leap'd overboard with dreadful yell, As eager to anticipate their grave;
And the sea yawn'd around her like a hell,
And down she sucked with her the whirling wave,
Like one wi:o grapples with his enemy,
And stríves to strangle him before he die.

## 436. Iambic Pentameter, Hypermetrical.


437. Iambic Hexameter.
 Tosing | the heav | en's praise | with such | an sarth | ly tongue.
438. This is the Alexandrine measure. It is seldom used except to complete the Spenserian Stanza, or occasionally vary heroic verse. Drayton's Poly Olbion is written in this metre. The foilowing is from that poem :

> Then from her burnished gate the goodly glittering East Gilds every lofty top, which late the humorous night Bespangled had with pearl to please the morning's Light; On which the mirthful quires, with their clear open throats Unto the jofful morn so strain their warbling notes,
> That hills and valleys ring, and even the cehoing air
> Seems all composed of sounds, about them everywhere.
439. Iambic Heptameter.

He loosed | the rein | his slack | hand fell | upon | the si| lent facc He cast | one long | deep mourn | ful glance | and fled | from that | sad place |
440. This kind of verse is generally divided into four lines; the first and third of four feet each; the second and fourth of three; as,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Oh call | my broth | er back | to me | } \\
& \text { I can ; not play | alone | } \\
& \text { The num } \mid \text { mer comes | with flow'r | and bee | } \\
& \text { Whe.e is } \\
& \text { my broth | er gone.- }
\end{aligned}
$$

441. This is called Ballad Metre, also Common Metre.

## 442. Iambic Octometer.

The hour | is come | the cher | ished hour | when from | the bu | sy world | set free |
I seek | at length | my lone |ly bow'r.| and muse | in si- | lent tirought $\mid$ on thee $\mid$
443. Couplets of this kind are now generally written as a Stanza of four lines of equal length, forming what is called Eong Metre. In Short Metre the stanza is composed of four lines; the first, second, and fourth, consist of three Iambuses, and the third of four; as,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Give to |the winds | thy fears | } \\
& \text { Hope and | be un | dismay'd | } \\
& \text { God hears | thy sigis | and counts | thy tears | } \\
& \text { God shall | lifi up | thy head | }
\end{aligned}
$$

## TRGCHAIC METRE.

444. This metre is more lively than the Iambic, In scanning Trochaic metre, when there is an additional syllable, the line may be called either hypermetrical, counting only the complete feet; or catalectic (wanting a syllable) counting the additional syllable as a foot. 'This will be seen below.
445. Trochaic Monometer.
446. Trochaic Trimeter.

$$
\overline{\text { When a | round thee | dying | }}
$$

Autumn | leaves are | lying |
450. Trochaic Trimeter Hyper, or Tetrameter Cat.
$\overline{\text { Aid the } \mid \text { duwning } \mid \text { tongne and } \mid \overline{\text { pein }}}$ Aid it $\mid$ hopes of $\mid$ honest $\mid$ men
451. Trochaic Tetrameter.

Spring goes \| by with $\mid \overline{\text { wasced }}$ | warnings Moonlit | evenings | sunlight | mornings |
452. Trochaic Pentameter.
$\overline{0}$ ye | voices | round my | own hearth | singing |
As the | winds of | May to | mem'ry | sweet;
Might I yet re | turn a | worn heart | bringing |
Would those | vernal | tones the | wand'rer | greet
Once again?

In this stanza the seeond and fourth lines are catalectic.
453. Trochaic Hexameter.
$\overline{\mathrm{On}}$ a monntain
Lay a | shepherd
stretched be $\mid \overline{\text { neath a } \mid \text { hoary } \mid \text { willow } \mid, ~}$ swain and | viewed the | rolling | billow
454. Trochaic Heptameter.
$\overline{\text { Hasten }}|\overline{\text { Lord to }}| \overline{\text { rescue }} \mid \overline{\mathrm{me}}$ and $|\overline{\text { set }} \underset{\mathrm{me}}{\sim}| \overline{\text { safe }}$ from $\mid$ trouble |
Shame Thou | those who | seek my | soul, re \| ward their \| mischief | double |
455. Trichaic Octometer Catalectic.

From their I nests be $\overline{\text { neath the } \mid \text { ratters } \mid \overline{\operatorname{san}} \text { the }}$ swallows $\mid$ wild and | high
And the | worid be | neath me | sleeping, | seemed more | distant | thaia the | sky
456. Trochaic Octometer.
 weak and I weary.

DACTYLIC METRE.
45\%. This metre is suited to lively or impassioned sentiment. It is not of such frequent use as Iambic or Trochaic. Below are a few examples of Dactylic Metre.
458. Dactylic Dimeter.

459. Dactylic Trimeter Hyper

Morn on the I waters and | purple and | bright
Bursts on the | billows the | flashing of | light
460. "Dactylic Hexameter Catalectic.

This is the | forest pri | meval. But | where are the | hearts that ben | eath it.
Leap'd like the | roe when he | hears in the | woodland the | voice of the / huntsman.
461. The Dactylic Hexameter is the Heroic Metre of the classic tongues. It does not suit the genius of the English language. Longfellow's Evangeline, from which the above extract is given, is, perhaps, the most successful attempt at its use in English poetry.

## ANAPIESTIC METRE.

462. This metre was originally introduced into long odes for the sake of relieving the ear and exciting the attention of the listener. Like Dactylic metre, it is not of such frequent. use as Iambic o: Trochaic.
463. Anapostic Dimeter, Hyper.
$\breve{H}_{e}$ is gone | on the mount I ain
He in lost | the for | est
Like a sum | mer-dried fount | ain
When our need | was the sor | est.
464. Anaposstic Trimeter.

I am mon |arch of anll| I survey |
My right | there is none | to dispnte |
From the cin | tre all round | to the sea | I am lord | of the fowl | and the brute |
465. Anapcestic Tetrametor.

To the foast | to the feast | 'tis the mon | arch commands |

## AMPHIBRACHIC METRE.

466. This metre is rarely found.
467. Amphibrachic Tetrameter.

Magregor! Magregor | remember I our foemen $_{\smile}^{\smile}$
The moon ris $\mid$ es broad from $\mid$ the brow of $\mid$ Ben Lomond |
468. It often occurs that a line of poetry consists of feet which are not all of the same kind. It is usual in such cases to name the line from the kind of foot which predominates, or that we know prevails throughout the rest of the lines; name it as if all the feet were of the kind predominating, and prefix the word "Mixed" to this name, afterwards mentioning the kud ot foot which is mixed with the predominani one.

Thus - My right $\mid$ there is none $\mid$ to dispute $\mid$ is Mixed Anapaestic Trimeter (first foot an Tambus)

## THE CESURA.

469. The Casurn or Casural Pause is a patuse in a line of poetry between one word and another, dividing the line into two parts. Sometimes, but very rarely, there are two or three such pauses. The Cæsura often corresponds, though not always, to a pause in the sense. Much of the harmony of our metres, and ot Iambic Metre especially, depends on the skilful disposition of the Cæsural pause.
470. The most appropriate place for such pauses in Iambic Metre is at the end of the second or third foot. Milton, however, who uses the pause with great skill, has introduced it in every part of the line. In this he contrasts with Pope, who uses the pause in a similar position in almost évery line. Milton's poetry is, therefore, the more varied and rich; Pope's being marked by too great a sameness in the cadence.
471. The pause may fall after the fourth, fifth, sixth, or seventh syllabic, and by this means the versification has that variety and richness, which we have said characterizes Milton's poetry.
472. When the pause falls earliest, that is, after the fourth syllable, the briskest melody is thereby formed-for example (the pause being marked by two parallel vertical lines).

> Tis not enough \| no harshness gives off nce, The sound must seem \|an echo to the sense; Soft is the strain \| when zephyr gently blows; And the smooth verse \|in smoother numbers flows.
473. When the pause falls after the fifth syllable, dividing the line into two equal parts, the melorly is sensibly altered, the verse loses the brisk air of the former pause, becomes more smooth and flowing. Ex.

[^11]474. When the pause follows the sixth syllable, the

Helody becomes grave, the movement of the verse is wore solemn and measured. Ex.
> "The wrath of Peleus' son \| the drreful spring Of all the Grecirn woes, || O Godidess-sing."
475. The grave cadence becomes still more seasible when the parse follows the seventh syllable. This kind of verse seldom occurs; and its effect is to diversify the melody. Ex.
" Long ioved, adoređ" ideas, If all adieu."
[The following remarks on Poetry and Figures of Specets, are taken, chiefly, from the works of Bain und Blair, to which works the pupil is referred for a thorough treatment of these subjects.\}

## POETRY.

476. Poetry is "an art which has the creation of intellectual pleasure for its object; which attains its end by the use of language natural in an excited state of the imagination and the feelings; and generally, though not necessarily, expressed in numbers."
477. Poetry is divided into three principal species ; Lyric, Epic and Dramatic.
478. The Lyric poem is an expression or effasion of some intense feeling, passion, emotion, or sentiment ; such as devotion, love, military ardor, \&c.
479. The word lyric shows that these poems were originally sung or pronounced with instrumental accompaniment.
480. Lyric poems may be classed as follows, (1) The Song, sacred or secular, (2) The Ode, (3) The Elegy, (4) The Sonnet, (5) The Nondescript Lyric.
481. The Song is usually short, simple in measure, broken up into stanzas each eomplete in meaning, yet falling into a place in the general arrangement.
482. The Ode is the loftiest effusion of intense feeling. Its chief mark is its claborate versification.

We have examples of this class of lyric poetry in Milton's "Hymn on the Nativity," Gray's "Bard." Collins's "Ode to the Passions" is an ode, in form only; it is not so much the display, as the description of feeling.
483. The Elegy in its original form in Greece, was an expression of plaintive, melancholy sentiment. It is now connected chiefly with the expression of regret for the departed. Of the same nature is the Dirge. We have an example of the Elegy in Milton's "Lycidas." Gray's Elegy is a diffused expression of feeling on mortality in general.
484. The Sonnet is sometimes descriptive, but is most commonly a concentrated expression of a single phase of feeling. It consists of fourteen lines.
485. The Nondescript Lyric comprehends a variety of effusions wanting in any of the specific aims above mentioned. Ex.-Burns' "Mountain Daisy."

## EPIC POETRY.

486. An Epic Poem is the recital of some one, great, interesting action ur subject, in poetical form, and in language suited to the sublimity of the subject.
487. Epic composition is distinguished from history by its poetic form and its liberty of fiction. The author appears in his own person; lays the scenes; introduces the actors; and narrates the events. In this it differs from Dramatic poetry where the author does not narrate nor appear in his own person.
488. The leading form of this class of poetry is styled The Great Epic or The High Epic. This is the Epic where supernatural agency is permitted, which supernatural agency is called the machinery of the piece.
489. The usual examples of the Great Epic are as follow:

| Name of Poem | Language | Author | Subject |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The Illiad | Greek | H | S |
| The Odyssey | Greek | H | Wanderings of Ulysses |
| The AEneid | Latin | Virgil | Wanderings of Aneas |
| The Divine Comedy | Italian | Danté | The future world |
| The Lusiad | Portugnese | Camoens | Voyage of Vasco di Gama to India |
| Jerusalem Delivered | Italian | Tasso | ry of Jerusa- |
| Paradise Lost | English | Milton | Loss of Paradise \&c |

490. The Pharsalia of Lucan (subject-the triumph of Cæsar over Roman liberty) is an example of the Great Epic degenerating into bombast, oratorical display, and prosaic feebleuess. The Henriade of Voltaire (subject-triumph of Henry IV of France over the arms of the League) is sometimes classed with the Great Epic poems. But the French language is not suited to Epic peetry; and, besides, the subject is of too recent date, and too much within the bounds of well-known history.

## DRAMATIC POETRY.

491. The Drama is guided in external form by its being acted on the stage. There is a story as in the Epic, but the author does not narrate nor appear in his own person. He appoints and groups the characters, lays the scenes, and provides the dialogue.
492. The Drama is divided into Tragedy and Comedy.
493. Tragedy is a direct imitation of what is great and serious in human manners and actions, the high passions, the virtues, crimes, and sufferings of mankind, by setting the personages before us, and making them act and speak for themselves.
494. Comedy is the adaptation of the Drama to the
exhibition of the follies, and vices, and whatever in the human character exposes to censure or ridicule.
495. The Greek Dramatists, and the French, following them, have laid down certain rules for the guidance of dramatic authors.
496. These are known by the name of "the three unities."
497. A tragedy, they say, should be characterized by, " unity of time," "unity of place," and "unity of action."
498. By "unity of time" was neant, that the events recorded in the play should take no more time for their natural occurence, than was taken up with their representation. Later critics extended the time to 24 hours.
499. By "unity of place" was meant that all the events should take place in one house, street, \&c.
500. English Dramatists aiming at giving higher enjoyment have disregarded these two unities, and change the scene from country to country, and put the events of years into one play. Thus, Shakespeare, in the play of "Macbeth," spreads his events over 14 or 16 years, and shifts the scene from Scotland to England and back again. But the third unity, "unity of action," is most important. This consists in the relation which all the incidents introduced, bear to some design or effect, combining them naturally into one whole. This unity of subject is most essential to tragedy.
501. The rules of dramatic action that are prescribed for tragedy belong also to comedy. The imitation of manners ought to be even more exact than in tragedy, for the subjects of comedy are better known.

## FIGURES OF SPEECH.

502. A Figure of Speech is a deviation from the plain and ordinary mode of speaking, with a view to greater effect.
503. This deviation is effected, either by using a peculiar form of expression, or by using words to signify something different from their original meaning.
504. Thus, when, instead of saying "that is very strange," we use the expression "how strange," wo use a figure, the figure consisting in the form of expression being different from the natural one.
505. Again, when we say, "Now is the winter of our discontent made glorious summer," the words winter and summer are diverted from their original meaning, seasons of the year, to express conditions of the human feelings. In this expression, therefore, we use a figare, the figure consisting in using certain words to signify something different from their original meaning.
506. The two examples now given will explain the distinction made by Ancient Rhetoricians between figures and tropes. The first example, where the words are used in their literal sense, but where there is the peculiar form of expression, they would call a figure. The second example, where a word is turned from its proper signification to another signification, they would call a trope.
507. The distinction is more in appearance than in substance, and has no practical value. The term figure is applied to both kinds. When we use the word trope, however, it can be applied to the latter kind only.
508. Figures first arose from the barrenness of language. Names were wanted for mental conceptious. Names already given to objects of sense were given to these mental conceptions, from some fancied similarity between them. Hundreds of words in the English language are of this kind, but from frequent use their figurative meaning has been quite forgotten.
509. Again, figures arose from the influence which
the imagination has over all language. The imaginaation never contemplates any idea or ohject alone, but as accompanied by other ideas or objects which may be considered as its ancessories. These accessories often operate more forcuoly upon the mind than the principal idea itself. They are, perhaps, in their nature, agreeable, or more familiar to our conceptions; or remind us of a greater variety of important circumstances. Hence, the name of the accessory or correspondent is substituted for the nume of the principal idea. The pupil will see this exemplified when wo come to give examples of the different figures. (Sce Synecdoche and Metonymy, 532 and 583). Hence, all the languages of savage nations are highly figurative.
510. Figures, first used of necessity, soon came to be recognised as beauties in language, and the great masters of composition in all tongues have used them extensively.
511. Figures (1) enrich langaage and make it more copious, (2) give a more clear and striking view of an object than if expressed in simple terms, (3) deepen the impression made on the feelings, (4) give pleasure.
512. The tracing of resemblances is the chief inventive faculty of the mind.
513. The figures depending on this faculty are (1) Simile or Comparison. (2) Metaphor. (3) Personification. (4). Allegory. (5) Synecdoche. (certain forms)
514. A resemblance is noi a figure, unless the things compared be different in kind. Thus, a comparison of Napoleon to Cæsar is not a figure, because the subjects compared are of the same kind. But if we compare either to a great conflagration, or a tempest, we then speak figuratively.
515. The principal figures, with explanations and examples, are the following :

## SIMILE OR COMPARISON.

516. A Simile or Comparison consists in likening one thing to another formally or expressly; as, " $\Lambda \mathrm{s}$ the stars, so shall thy seed be."
517. The designations simile and comparinon are sometimes considered ns shightly different in menning. When a likeness is followed out into detail, it is called a comparison in the strister *neaning of the term.

## METAPITO:

518. A Metaphor is a comparison implied in the language used, but not expressed; as "He bridles his anger,"', He was a lion in the combat."
519. It will be seen that in both Simile and Metaphor there is a comparison; the differense between them being, that in the Simile, the signs of comparison, as, so, like, are given ; in the Metaphor, omitted. Thus, "He was like a hon in the combat." (Simile) "He was a Fion in the combat." (Metaphor)
520. The Metapher has this advartage over the Simile; it, is brief, and consequently more pointed, and poverful. Take for example, the sentence given above. "He bridles his anger." Expressed as a Simile, it would be zomething like this, "Ho holds back his anger, as he would a horse by the bride."
521. Metaphors aid the understanding; as, "The wish is father to the thought"; "He is reasoning in a circle"; "A thens the eye of Greece; mother of arts and eloquence." Deepen the impression made on the feefings; as, "The town was stormed"; "The news was a dagger to hiis heart."
522. Personifying Metaphors are chiefly subservient to the uses of poetry; as, " $O$ gentle slecp, nature's soft nurse"; "Yonder comes the powerful King of day, rejoicing in the East."
523. Metaphor is largely employed in expressing the more hidden operations of the mind. Thus, we speak of knowledge, as light; passion, as fire; depression of spirits, as gloom. Wre say, "the thought struck him." We speak of "a ray of hope"," "a shade of doubt,"" "a flight of fancy," "a flush of wit," " ebullitions of anger."

E24. The greatest fault in the use of Metaphor arises, when, in the same expression metaphors from different subjects Ere combined; as "to kindle a seed," "to take t p arms against a sea of troubles."

## PERSONLFICATION.

5\%. By personification life and action are attributed to inanimate objects; as, "The mountains sixgh together, the hills rejoice'and clap Rands"
526. There are three different degrees of this figure. The sirst is, when some of the properties of living creatures are ascribed to inanimate objects st the second, when those inanimate: objects are described as acting like such as have lite; and the je third, when they are exhibited, eithes as speaking to us, or as listening to what we say tortbem.
527. The frist and lowest degree of ohis figure, raises the atyle so little, that the humblest discourse admits it without any bree. Thus, "a raginy storms," "thie angrysea," "a cruel disaster," the smiling year:"
528. The sceond degree of this figure rises step higher and the personification becomes semsible; as,

> "Her rash hand,in evil hour, Forth reaching o the fruit, sine plucked - shie ate ! Earth! felt the wound, and" Nature from her' seat, Sighing through all her worls gave sigus of woe, That all was lost!?
529. The third and hightest degree of this figape is the Boldest of all figures. It is the style of passion only, and shoulct never be attempted; except when the mind is considevably hestea* and agitated ; as,
"Must I then feave thee, Paradise? thus leave
Thee, native soil!

| $*$ | $*$ | $*$ | $*$ | $*$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $*$ | $*$ | $*$ | $*$ | $*$ |
| $\stackrel{*}{\circ}$ fovers |  |  |  |  |

Who now shall rear you to the sur, or rank


Thee lastly muptial bower:
530. The English language, by restrieting the inflection of gender to objects which have sex, gives especial scope for personification. isee 82, 89.)

## ALLEGORY.

531. An Allegory is a continned Metaphor. The best example, perhaps, of this figure, is found in the 80th psalm, where the pèople of Israel are represented mader the figure of a vine.

## SYNECDOCHE.

53\%. This name is given to different kinds of figures, some of which are figures of similarity ;
(1) Putting the species for the genus; as, bread. for the necessaries of life, generally; cut-throat for murderer or assassin ; sums for arithmetic.
(2) Putting the individual for the $\mathrm{s}_{1}$ geies (called Antonomasia); as, "Every 1 man is not a Solomon." And in Gray's Elegy, "Some village Hampdén \&c." (See 48, 50, 51.)
(3) Putting the genus for the species; as, vessel for shil; creature for man.
(4) Indicating something that delicacy forbids being specifically named(this form called Euphemism); as, fallen asleep or gone to rest, for dead.
(5) Putting the concrete for the atstract ; as, "Do not speak-wisely keep the fool within," (fool used for folly.)
(6) Employing numbers for amounts that are not estimable with -numerical precision; as, "It was broken into a thousand pieceṣ."

Forms not depending on Similarity.
(7) Naming a thing by some part of it; as, "a flcet of fifty sail," "all hands to work," "the rule of three."
(8) Naming a person by some part of his character; as, "Thus spoke the tenpter," "The avenger of blood wais on his track."
(9) Naming a part by the whole, as, "Cursed be the day on which he was born."
(10) Naming a thing by the material of which it is made; as, "He drew the glittering steel," "The marble speaks," "The canvas glows."
(11) Naming an object by the passion which it inspires; as, "My love," "My joy," "My delight." God is often styled "the terror of the oppressor," "the refuge of the oppressed."

## METONYMY.

533. Metonymy names a thing by some accompaniment. Its chief forms are,
(1) Naming a thing by some sign or symbol, or signficant adjunct; as, "He petitioned the crown."
(2) Putting fice instrument for the agent; as, "It was settled by the arbitration of the suvrd," "A thousand horse." (See 68.)
(3) Putting the container for the thing contained ; as, "They smote the city," "The kettle boils," "He ciesnk the fatal cup."
(4) Putting an effect for the cause; as, " Gray hairs should be respected."
(5) Putting an author for his works; as, "They have Moses and the prophets."
(6) Putting the cause for the effect; is, "Streaming grief his aged chcek bedewed."

## ANTITHESIS.

534. Wher ir are contrasted, and this contrast is shown by the form of the words used, the ex pression is called an Antithesis; as,
"Though deep, yet clear ; though gentle, yet not dull;
Strong, without raye; without overflowing, full."
HYPERBOLE.
535. Hyperbole consists in magnifying the qualities of, or other circumstances connected with, objects, beyond their natural bounds, so as to make them more impressive or more intelligible; as, "Swift as the wind,". "White as snow," "Rivers of blood and hills of slain."

## CLIXX

536. Climax consists in the arranging of the particulars of a sentence, or other portion of discourse, so as to rise-in strength to the last. The common example of this figure is from the Oration of Cicero against Verres; "It is an outrage to bind a Roman citizen; to scourge him is an atrocious cime; to put him to death is almost a parricide ; Dut to crucify him-what shall I call it?" 'We have also an excellent example in Burke's Impeachment of Warren Hastings, beginning with the words, "I impeach him in the name of, \&c."

## INTERROGATION.

537. Interrogation aims at conveying an opinion more strongly by giving it the form of a question ; as, "Hath the Lord said it, and shall He not do it?" The interrogation is very judiciously introduced into the climax given above from Cicero; "but to crucify him-what shall 1 call it?"

## EXCLAMATION.

538. When from some sudden and intense emotion, we give utterance to an abrupt, inverted, or elliptical expression, we are said to make an Exclamation; as, " lravo," "dreadful," "how strange," "what a pity."

## APOSTROPHE.

539. When, in an address, we turn aside from the regular discourse to speak to some person or thing suggested by what we are saying, we use an Apostrophe ; as, " O death where is thy sting, O grave where is thy victory." This figure is allied to personification.

## VISION:

540. When, in relating what is past, or what is to come, we use the present tense, and describe it as passing before our eyes, we use Vision; as,
"For a field of tie dead rushes red on my sight, And the clans of Culloden are scattered in flight, They rally, they bleed."

## IRONY.

541. In Irony we use words to express the contrary of their natural meaning, there being something in the tone or manner to show the real drift of the speaker; thus, to call an ignorant person a Solomon; or a noisy one, a lamb.

## EPIGRAM.

542. In Epigram the mind is roused by the conflict or contradiction between the real meaning of the ex-
pression, and the meaning intended to be conveyed; as, "He was conspicuous by his absence," "When you have nothing to say, say it."

## PARALEPSIS OR OMISSION.

543. By this figure the speaker pretends to conceal what he is really deciaring and strongly enforcing; as, "Horatius was once a very promising young gentleman, but in process of time he became so addicted to gaming, not to mention his drunkenness and debauchery, that he soon exhausted his estate and ruined his constitution."

## PUNCTUATION.

544. Punctuation is the method of using certain grammatical points, or stops, as helps to indicate the structure and impor of discourse. These points or stops are the following:

The Period<br>"The Colon<br>The Semicolon<br>The Comma

- The Parenthesis

| $:$ | The Dash |
| :--- | :--- |
| ; | The Note of Interrogation ? |
| , | The Note of Exclamation |

545. As these poinis mark divisions of the thoughts in discourse, they also naturally indicate the positions at which a reader should make pauses of greater or less duration.
546. It is therefore laid down, that the comma, semicolon, and colon, denote respectively, that the reader should pause a fourth, a half, three fourths as long as he would at the end of a sentence, where the full stop or period is placed.
547. But, frequently, a pause (called a Rhetorical pause) may be made in reading where no written stop is requisite; and, occasionally, a pause may be neglected in reading where a written stop occurs.
548. Again, in the use of stops there is much diversity of practice, which the taste of various :oriters may exemplify. This diversity is so great that, it has been seriously recommended by more than one writer on this subject, to omit all marking by stops, and, as in legal documents (which, generally speaking, are not punctuated), leave to the intelligent reader the exhibiting of the proper pauses from the sense of the passage.
549. A system of rules, therefore, for punctuation, will merely exhibit the general principles by which punctuation is mainly regalated.

## THE PERIOD.

550. The Period or full stop marks the conclasion of a simple, complex, or compound sentence that is not dependent on one following.

## Examples.

Idleness is the parent of want.
The brief revival $\quad$ i elegant literature, which took place in the twelfth century, was a premature spring.

I cannot, my dear friend, accomplish all that you desire; but I will do all that is in my power.
551. The period is generally used after abbreviations ; as, N. S., A. D., B. C., Mr., Dr.

THE COLON.
552. The Colon divides a sentence into members, generally into no more than two members, which are themselves not syntactically united, and of which the latter generally serves to increase the force or meaning of the former.

> Examples.

Nothing has been created in vain : everything has its use.
Shakespeare had not the advantage of birth : he came to $L_{1}$ don a needy adventurer, and lived for a time by very mean em ployments.
553. The Colon (often followed by a dash) is sometimes used before a quotation or example.

## Examples.

Yet he pleased the ear.
And with persuasive accents thus began :
"I should be much for open war, 0 peers,
As not behind in hate, \&c."
Among the words in the English language derived from the Celtic are the following :-basket, button, \&c.
554. However, when the quotation is not formally introduced, and when its dependence on the principal clause is very close, it is introduced by a comma.

Example.
He very lately said to one of those whom he most loved, " You know that I never feared death."

## THE SEMICOLON.

555. The Semicolon is used, as a general rule, to separate co-ordinate clauses.

## Examples.

Justice is not a halt and miserable object; it is not the ineffective bauble of an Indian pagod; it is not the portentous phantom of despair.

Reading maketh a full man; conference, a ready man; and writing, an exact man.

All Jerusalem saw the sign ; and the shout that, in the midst of their despair, ascended tron the thousands and tens of thousands, told that proud remembrances were there.
556. A Semicolon is used when several words that are separated by the comma, stand in the same relation to other words in the sentence.

## Example.

A noun is the name of anything; as, John, London, house, tree, hope.

## THE COMMA.

557. It is of general service, in the study of Punctuation, to remember, that a phrase or short sentence, if not disturbed by interposition of words, should not be disturbed by the interposition of points.
558. There should, therefore, generally spaking, be no comma, nor a point of any kind, between a subject and its verb, an adjective and its noun, a preposition and its oljject, a conjunction and two words con nected by it, a transitive verb and its object, the infinitive and its governing word, the auxiliary and its principal verb, the adverb and the word it modifies.
559. When, however, the subject of a verb consists of many words, it is sometimes expedient to indicate the collectiveness or unity of the subject by placing a comma between it and the verb.

Examples.
The veil that covers from our sight the events of futurity, is a veil drawn by the hand of mercy.

The giddy laughter of the illiterate and the profane, quelled not the ardour of this advocate of truta.
560. Every accessory or subordinate clause of a sentence, should be separated from the principal sentence by a comma.

> Examples.

We are taught by the study of nature, that her Author has the happincss of His creatures in view.

There is sweet music here, that softer falls than petals from blown roses on the grass.

While the earth remaineth, seed time and harvest shall not fail.

Thou shalt honor thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long.

Whether the Trojan war was an actual occurence, we have no positive means of determining.
561. But a relative pronoun, adverb, or conjunction, when introducing a clause which forms an inseparable adjunct of the preceding term, should not have a comma before it.

> Examples.

Reverence that being who is the author of all that is sublime, and beautiful, and good in nature.

The time when I shall arrive is quite uncertain.
Live so that thou mayest never have reason to repent.
562. Clauses, phrases, or words, introduced parenthetically, but not so abruptly or incidentally as to require the parenthetic curves, are often, at the beginning of a sentence, followed by a comma; at the end, preceded by a comma; and in the middle, preceded and followed by a comma.

## Examples.

Pursuing these ideas, I sat down close to my table.
The knife, being a good one, was highly valued.
Stand forth, my Lord, for thou art the man.
Farewell, thou bravest of men.
Death, however, approaches.
O Cassius, yon are yoked with a lamb.
Trust it not, Sir.
Yonder is a little drum, hanging on the wall.
And so they died by thousands, the unnamed demigods.
Look, for example, on the catastrophe of the deluge.
In the meantime, as soon as Clodius knew.
The story, perhaps, is not entitled to much credit.
563. In a series of three or more words of kindred grammatical character, a comma shovid follow each word except the last, unless that last be a noun, in which case the last, also, will be followed by a comma.

## Examples.

His solution of the problem was neatly, correctly, and expeditiously performed.-

Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America, and Oceanica, are the six great divisions of the land.

And nearer, clearer, deadlier than before.
How poor, how rich, how abject, how august, how com plicate, how wonderful is man.

Let Geography, History, or Grammar, be the subject of the lesson.
564. Two words of kindred grammatical character connected by one of the conjuctions, and, or, are not separated by a comma; unless where the former conjuction is, for rhetorical effect, suppressed.

> Examples.

Europe and Asia are Continents.
Reason, passion answer one great aim.
565. When the natural orxler of a sentence is inwerted, a comma should be inserted between the transsosed parts, unless the inverted part is very short.

Examples.
The better to deceive the enemy, a pertion of the fleet sailed far above the town.

No delight, the minstrel's bosom knew.
566. When words cennected by a conjunction, follaw in successive pairs, a comma shovld be insented after each pair.

Example.
There is a natural difference between virtue and viee, wisdon and folly, merit and demerit.
567. When 2 verb is understeod in the clauses of a compound sentence, a comma must be inserted in its place. (See 2nd Ex. under 555..)

## THE PARENTHESIS.

568. The Parenthesis encloses a word, phrase, or elause, abruptly introduced in a sentence, and not necessary to the grammar or sense.

Examples.
The noble lord (Lord North) shall tell you that the restrainte an trade are fatile and useless.

The present ministry thought it expedient to repeal five of the tuties, and to leave (for reasons best thown to themselvest only sthe sixth standing.
569. Brackets ([ ]) are sometimes used for the same purpose as the pasenthesis, to indicate an extrameous part of a sentence, but chiefly,-

1. When the extraneous part of the sentence consains another parenthesis; or
2. When it is inserted is correction, a comment, or an addition.

## Examples.

I know the banku. 1 deal with, or the physician I usually calk in [there is no need, cried Dr. Slop (waking) to call in any physician in the case] to be neither of them of much religion.

The last twelve books [of the Qdyesey] are in sererad parte tedious and languid.

At present there is a tendency to get rid of the nse of the parenthesis. Some writers use commas; others, dashes. Blair, in his lectures on Rhetoric, says, "But in general the effect of parentheses is extremely bad; being a perplexed method of disposing of some thought, which a writer has not art enough to introduce in its. proper place."

## THE DASIF.

570. The Dash, precedes an abrupt diversion from the subject of discourse.

## Examples.

If I were-but it is needless to dwell on what is now impossible.

His children-but here my heart began to bleed, and I was. forced to go on with another part of the picture.

## THE NOTE OF INTERROGATION.

571. This point is a period surmounted by a corrupted form of the letter Q, and denotes that the words. preceding it form ak dinest question.

## Examples.

Is there no place left for repentance? None for pardon left?
What villain touched his body that didi stab and not for justice?

## THE NOTE OF EXCLAMATION.

572 This stop is used after a word or phrase expressive of some sodden emotion.

## Examples.

Stop! for thy tread is on an Empire's dust.
How stern he looks! Amazemont! it is Marius!
Ha! Marius, think'st then now upon Jugurtha?
He turns! he's.caught mey eye! I sce no more!
573. Quotation Marks are generally used to indicate that a word, phrase, or: larger portion of discourse is borrowed. The double points ("s ") are used in primary or leading quotations; the single points ('), in secondary or included quotations. Rixam.
the nes ; others, s, "But y bad hought, e in its.
n from
now im-
1 I was
a corn words.
on left? not for

Quoth Toby, "If you write up ' Please ring the bell,' common politeness makes me stop and do it."
574. The Apostrophe (') is use to show the omission of a letter or letters; as, John's,' Tis.
575. The Caret $(\Lambda)$ is used to show some omission in a manuscript; as, "Were ne'er prophetic so full of woe."
576. The Diaresis (. .) is placed over the latter of two vowels coming together, when it is intended that they should be placed in separate syllables; as coöperate.
577. The Hypher ( - ) is used to separate syllables; as, ad-ject-ive; at the end of a line to show that part of the word is carried to the next line; as, conoey; or to mark an ellipsis; as, the Q-n. A series of asterisks or of dots, is sometimes ased for this last purpose.
578. The Paragraph (T), which is chiefly used in the Bible, marks the commencement of a new subject.
579. The Seciion (§) marks the smaller divisions of a book or chapter; and when used with numbers, helps to abridge references; as, $\S 6$, i. e., Section Six.
580. Printers use the following marks, and in the following order, as marks of reference to notes. (Asterisk, dagger, doulle dagger, section, parallels, \&c..)

| Note 1, ${ }^{*}$ | Note 3, $\ddagger$ | Note 5, $\\|$ | Note 7, ** |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| " 2, † | " 4, § | " 6, 11 | " 8, $\dagger \dagger$ |

When there are many references, figures or the small Letters of the alphabet are more convenient.
581. The Index or Hand (唒) points to something that deserves to be earefally obseryed.
582. The Cedilla, (,) piaced under e, denotes that the $c$ is sounded like $s$; under $g$, like $j$; under $s$, like $z$; and under $x$, like $g z$.

## APPENDIX.

## ORIGIN OR DERIVATION OF WORDS.

1. Words are either Primitive or Derivative.
2. A Primitive word is one which cannot be traced back to any simpler word as its origin ; but is itself the simplest form, as strike.
3. A Derivative word is one which is formed from a primitive word; as stroke, striker. The primitive word in this case is calfed the root.
4. Derivatives are formed in two ways; (1) by as change or modification in some letter or Fetters of the root; (2) by adding an affi; or a prefix to the root.
5. For the sake of distinction, some writers on Grammar call those words formed in the first way, Primary Derivatives; those fo:med in the second way, Secondary Derivatives.
6. The Primary Derivative strolie is formed by tlie change of $i$ in strike to a The Secondary Derivative striker is formed by the addition or the affix er.

## PRIMARY DERTVATIVES.

7. Primary Derivatives are formed-(1), By changing or: modifying the vowel of the root; as, bind, bond. (2), By changing or modifying the last consonant or consonants ; as stick, stitch. (3), By changing or modifying both; as, weave, woof:
8. The following are a few examples of each kind. Fall, fell Rest, roost Rise, raise Din, dun Cbor, chip

Cling, clinch
Jog, dodge Strive, strife Prove, proof Mg , efitci

Hound, hunt Wake, watch Drag, dredge, Choose, choice Hold, hils

Bless, bliss Feed, food Click, clock Heat, hot Shine, sheen

Speak, speech
Gird, girth
Lay, law Devise, device Milk, milch

Secthe, sud
Lose, loss
Weave, woof
Grass, graze
Love, lief.

## SECONDARY DERIVATIVES.

9. Secondary Derivatives, as has been stated before, are formed by adding Affixes or Prefixes to the roots.
10. Affixes are letters or syllables put at the end of words; as the letter $t$ in voeight, and the syllable ly ir king-ly. Prefixes are letters or syllables put at the beginning of words, as the letter a in $a$-board, and the syllable mis in mis-take.
11. Affixes are either mere terminations, as er, ness, in leader, voeakesess; or distinct words which have come to be used as terminations; as, line, ful, voarlike, fearful.
12. There are Affixes and Prefixes of Saxon, and of other origin. Now, generally speaking, Saxon affixes are added to Saxon words, as in handsome, some is a Saxon affix, and hand is a Saxon word; while Latin and other foreign affixes are added to Latin and other foreign words, as in final, fin (finis) is a Latin word, al is a Latin affix. But to these general rules there are some exceptious. In the first place, we have many foreign words which take Saxon affixes or prefixes; as in un-just, $j u s t$ is a Latin word, but un is a Saxon prefix. So, in the second place we have many Saxon words which take foreign affixes; as in truism, true is a Saxon word, but isen is a Latin and Greelz affix. But the former case is much more common than the latter; that is we fird it much more common for fereign words to have Saxon, than for Saxon words to have foreiger affixes and prefixes.
13. The following table, taken from Angras's Grammar, gives the meaning of Anglo-Saxon prefixes with the corresponding prefixes of Latin and Greek origins.

A before verbs, gives a transitive force; as, wait, a-wait.
And, 'zgainst,' rare in E., common in A. S.; an-swer, o-thwayt.
About, 'round,' not now common.
Aft, behind, baek, afterwards.
All, almighty, aiways.
Back, backward, backslider.
Between, "between whiles.'
Ry, near, by-stander.
beyond, (rare),
aside, byr play, by-path.
Be, in A. 'S., oftem makes intrans. verbs trans.e fall, be-fall, forms verbs from nouns and adjectives, becloud, be-dim; privative, bchead, intensive; besprinkle. -
耳or, 'away,' against; forbid.
Intensity, forlorn, forgive.
Negative, forget.
Tore, before (in time.) forctell, for:stall. befone, (in spare) forward.
Fro, from, froward.
Hand, hand-mill.
IIl, evil, ill-willed, illstarred.
In , em, en, A. S., in or on, enthrone, income, onlist.
To make err-rich, enlarge.
Eike, tikelihood.
Mil, middle, midland, mided ding,

Latin.
'In,' with nours, insular, incarcerate.
Exppannel, to put on the list as a jurow.

Contra-dict, counteract (Fr.), sometimes $x_{u}$; as, re-sist.
Circumference, ambient.
Post-pone, sometimes re-linquish.
Omni-potent.
Retro-spect, roject, repel.
Interluck, intercede.
Prop-inquity, juxtaposition.
Exatro-ordinary, pretexnatural.
Sycret, suspeat.

Obstacle, appose, pol-(pro)-lute.
Pardon.
Omit, perfidious, displease.
Prediet, antocement.
Prociaim, purpose, pursue (pur. Fr. forin.)
Averse, abstain, abjeet.
Manu-facture.
Mlal-conteat.

Infuse, imped, illude.
Irradiate, illumine àrrigate.
Similitude.
Mediocrity, Mediterraneal, mizen (through the Italian, .

Crock.

Epi-taph, on a tomb.
En-demie, among the people.

Anti-Christian.
Asati-pathy.
Periphrasis, amphistheatre.
Rarely, meta-physics.
Pan-oply, pantheism.
Rarely, ana-tomy.
Mesentery.
Para-phrase, parallel.
blyper-critical.
Fiypo-crite, par-ody.

Catalogue, catogory.

Prophesy.
Probiem, prostyle.
Apo-logy, apo-gee.
Cheir-urgeon, surgeom
Dis-astrous, cacophony.

Entomology.
Enallage (change for another).
Homoopathy.
Mesoporamia.
$\xrightarrow[\begin{array}{c}\text { Mis, error, evil, mis- } \\ \text { deed. }\end{array}]{\text { Saxon. }}$

N', not, n'ever, n'either.
Of, off, source, offspring, off-shoot.
On, onslaught, onwand.
One, on-ly, ox-ion.
Other, otherwise.
Out, external source, -ut-goings.
Over, up above, "owerhand,'
over=upon, overcoat,
Superiority, ocersule,
excess, ozverlogd.
Self, self-control, selflove.
Side, silleways, sidings.
To, together, towards.
Through, througenout, thoroughfare.
Two, tweive, twilight, twin-children.

Nin, before adj. or nouns, not, uxhappy. Before verbos rewerses the action, untie.
Sometimes intensive, unloose.
©Under, beneath, underground.
Inferior, underlings, under-secretary.
©p, upward, upioot, up-land.
Yond, yonder, beyord.
Well, uelcome.
With, opposition, roith--stand.
With, withal.
Within, rare as prefix.
Without, rare as prefix.

## Latuu.

Proscribe, perjure, perverse, maltreat, abuse. Sometines, seduce, derange.
Ne, nec, ne-utral, ragotiate.
Extract, abs-ent.

## Invade.

Unanimity, unity. Alternate!y, aliens. Exit, ef-fulgenoe.
Supramundane, proternatural.
Survey, stearstructure.
Superfine, extra, ultra.
Superfluous, extravagant.
Suicide, suicism.
Secession, seclusion.
Adhere, ac, af, ag, al, $a m, \& a c$.
Pervade, perfect.
Ambidexterous, dubiolls, doubt, biped, binary.
Innocent, il, im, ir, ìn, \&e.
Reveal, develop, disarm.
In or endure, can, (sometimes), cogent. Subterraneas:, subterfuge.
sub-demen, subacid.
Suspend, sustain.
Transpert,transparent, ultramarine.
Bemefit.
Resistance, obstacle, contradiotion.
Co-erce, contend, cog, col, cor.
Iutroduce, in tramural.
Extravagaint, sinecure, simple.
14. The following tables give the meaning of the Anglo-Saxon affixes, with the corresponding affixes .of Latin and Greek origins.

Noun terminations and their meaning :-

| Indicating. | Anglo-Saxon. | Latin. | Greek. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The agent or doer. | Beggar, speaker, sailor. | Actor, sponsor, secretary, operative. | Poet, athlete, politician. |
| Augmentative. | Sluggard, braggart, lawyer, sawyer. | Cashier, engineer. | Hellenist. |
| Male agent. | Wheel-wright, barrister. | Student, occulist, linguist. | Sophist. |
| Female agent. | Spinster, shepherdess, vixen. | Executrix. | Heroine. |
| Objcct of an act. Act, state, being, quality. | Trustee, nominee, | Captive. |  |
|  | Bondage, ditch, blotch, hatred, hundred, freedom. | Homage, fallacy. <br> Domintor. <br> Sanctimony, trentment. |  |
|  | Beggary, mockery. <br> Know-ledge, wed-lock. | Modesty, misery. <br> Vigilance, somnolency, marriage. | Eulogy, anatomy. |
|  | Good-ncss. | Fortitude. |  |
|  | Finery. | Verdure, creature. | Panorama. |
|  | Eriendship. | Justice, delicacy. | Hero-ism, aneur . ism. |
| $\cdots$ | Joint, weight, gift, flood, cold. | Fact, date, effect. |  |
|  | Wealth, death, sloth. | Unity. | Triad. |
|  | Fodder, lair, praycr. | Oration. Honor, color. |  |
|  | Laughter, slaughter. | Torper, valor. | Analysis. |
| Augmentative. | Riding. <br> Dastard (dazedard), standard, curd, bombard. | Motzon, creation. |  |
| Place or Office. | Brewery, found$r y$. | Granary, laboritory. | Monastery. |
|  | Earldom. ${ }_{\text {Bishopric. }}$ | Prætorium. Sepulchre. | Theatre, cen |
|  | Mastership. | Magistraey, curacy. | Theatre, cent |
|  | Bailiwick. | Pal-ace. |  |
| Diminutives. | Satchel, hurdle. | Libel, circle. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Basilisk (little } \\ & \text { king). } \end{aligned}$ |
|  | Poeket, streamlet. | Animalcule, vehicle. | Asterisk (little star). |
|  | Duckling, hillock, shadou, lassie, maiden, lambkin | Glob-ule, obstacle. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Obelisk } \\ & \text { spire). } \end{aligned}$ |
| Frequentatives. | Teamster, brewster. | Poetastcr, linguist. | Hellenist. |

Patronymies are formed in various ways; as,

| By a Genitive Case. | By Affi | By Prefic. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A. S.-Hard-ing. | A. S.-Duck-ling. | Heb.-Ben-Oleil. |
| Athel-ing | Dan.-Petersen, An- | Syr.-Bar-Jesus. |
| Tull-ius, Marcius. | dersen. <br> Slav.-Paulovitch. | Norman.-Futz-Urse. Celtrc.-O'Connor, |
| 1.-Orsini. | Pol.- Petrow-sky. | Dona |
| Eng.-Richards, Wil- | Span.-Fernand-ez. | Welsh.-Ap Hu |
| kins. | Eng.-Johnson. |  |

Adjective terminations:-

| Indicating. | Anglo Saxon. | Latin. | Greck. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (a) Absence of a quality. | Thoughtless. |  |  |
| (b) Having a | Reddish. |  |  |
| quality in a small degree. | Childish. |  |  |
| In respect of | Southern, ernly. |  |  |
| (c) place. | Southward. |  |  |
| (c) Having a quality. | Glowing, freezing. | Patient, tolerant. |  |
|  | Ragged,lefthanded. | Fervid, confederate. |  |
| Made of materrial | Wooden. | Signeous, marine, saline. | Cedrinc, petrine |
| Belong to or like a class or thing. | Irish (dim, " sh," | Romanesque. | Pythagorean, ab |
|  | tsh ck). | Veronese. | deritc, ophite. |
|  | Lifelike. <br> Lovely. | Alimentary, lunar. Sylvan, mental, | Angelic. |
|  |  | civil, peas-a-nt. canine. | Arithmetical. |
|  | Wintry, clayey. | Argillaceous. |  |
|  | Righteous (A. S. wise.) | For-ens-ic. |  |
|  | Frolicsome, lightsome. |  |  |
| (d) Full of a quality. | Truthful. | Pestilent, fraudulent. |  |
|  | Beauteous. | Verbose, curiors. |  |
|  | Glittering. Learned. | Torrid, fert-ile. Literate, consider- |  |
|  |  | ate. |  |
|  | Blithesome. |  |  |
|  | Rocky. | Aqueous. |  |
|  | Fourfold. ${ }^{\text {Drunkard, }}$ brag- | Quadruple, triplc. |  |
|  | gart, coward. | cious. |  |
| (e) Causing or imparting a quality. | Winsome (caus- | Consolatory. |  |
|  | ing delight, wearisome, |  |  |
|  | troublesome. |  |  |
|  | Tiring, pleasing. | Terrific, pesti- |  |
| (f) Fit to exercise a quality. | Talkative (act.) | Destructive. | Cathartic. |
|  | Eatable (pass.) | Legille, amiable. |  |

## r.

eil. sus. $z$-Urse. nor, onald. [ugh, h-ard, owell. $=$ reck. nc, petrine. gorean, abite, ophite. ic.
metical.

Verb terminations:-

| Indicating. | Anglo Saxor. | Latin. | Greek. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Causutive. | Linger, lower. <br> Whiten, softex. Cleanse, rinse. Finish, burnish. Sully, worry. | Facilitate, exped. te, magnify. | Civilize,harmon ixc. |
| Frequentative and diminutive. | Glimmer, Dattcr | Agitate, accent, recant. <br> Perambulate. |  |
| Kepetition of an act. | - | Somnambulist. | Botanize. <br> Hellenize. <br> Philosophize. |

15. In connexion with this subject of Derivatives, it may be instructive to give some account of the celebrated theory of Horne Tooke with regard to the meaning and classification of words.
16. He says "There is nat, nor is it possible there should be, a word in any language which has not a complete meaning and siguification, even when taken by itself. Adjectives, adverbs, \&c., have all complete eoprarate meanings, not difficult to be discovered."
17. In other words, he lays down that the so-called adjectives, adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions are but nouns or verbs in disguise.
18. His investigations with regard to conjunctions and propositions are so ingenious, that I will give them here.
19. The conjunctions he reduced to one general scheme of explication, this :-

| If |  | Gif |  | Gitan | To give. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| An |  | An |  | Anan | To grant. |
| Unless | ¢ | Onles | - | Onlesan | To dismiss |
| Fke | E | Each | ¢ | Eacan | To add. |
| Yet | ¢ | Get | $\bigcirc$ | Getan | To get. |
| Still | \% | Stell | E | Stellan | To put. |
| Else | g | Ales | \% | Alesan | To dismiss |
| Tho' or | - | Thaf, or | 尔 | Thafian, or | To allow |
| Though | $\pm$ | Thafig |  | Thafigan | o allow |
| Bŭt | ¢ | Bot | \% | Botan | To b |
| Būt | 4 | Be-utan | $\pm$ | ISeon-utan | To be out. |
| Without |  | Wyrth-utan | 4 | Wyrthan-utan | To be out. |
| And |  | An-ad |  | Anan-ad | To add. |

Lest is the past participle of Lesan, to dismiss.
Since is the participle of Seon, to see.
That is the neuter of The.
Or is a contraction of the Saxon oder, other.
20. A few examples will still further explain the theory, and the scheme just given. If and an were used indifferently by old writers, "If that the King have in any way your good deserts forgot, he hids you name your grief." =The King hath your deserts forgot ; give or grant that ; he bids you name your gricf." "Nay, an thou dalliest, then I am thy foe." $=$ Give or grant, that thou dalliest, then, f.c.
"No man cometh to me unless my father draweth him." $=$ Dismiss the fact that my father draweth him, no man cometh to me.
"Yet a little while am $I$ wihh you." $=A$ little while being got or obtained, I am with yon.
"You and I and John rode to London." =You rode; add, I rode; add, John rode.
[The pupil can supplement these examples by others, showing the meaning of the other conj.]

## PREPOSITIONS.

21. With is the imperative of withan, to join ; A house with a Gothic roof=A house, join a Gothic roof.

Through is the Gothic noun dauro, or the Tentonic noun thurah, and means door, gate, passage ; "The splendid Sun, with his beams genially warmeth thro' the air the fertile earth. $=$ The splendid Sun, join his beams, genially warmeth passage the air (or the air being the passage or medium) the fertile carth.

From i: the Anglo-Saxon noun frum, beginning, origin, source, fountain, author; Figs came from Turkey=Figs came beginning Turkey ; that is, Turkey the place of beginning to come.

For is the Gothic noun fairina, cause ; Christ died for us= Christ died cause us; or we being the cause of his dying.
$O f$ is the Anglo-Saxon af, a fragment of the noun afara, meaning consequence, offspring, \&c.; He was a man of ancient family-A man, consequence or offspring; ancient family, cause or source.

By is the imperfect byth of the Anglo-Saxon beon to be; She would hold by him-Him being the cause of holding. ntly by r good $g$ hath e your dive or
im." $=$ neth to
ing got
; add,
ing the
se with
noun
in, with '=The the air 1.
source, ginning

$$
r \mathrm{us}=
$$

afara, ancient y, cause e; She
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[^0]:    * Cleave, to arthere, is reguiar ; clave, is an old form of its past tense.
    $\dagger$ Dare, to challenge, is regular.

[^1]:    * Forego has no past tense. $\dagger$ Hang, to take away life by hanging, is regular. $\ddagger$ Lie, to tell an untruth, is regular.

[^2]:    Participles.
    荡
    $\dagger$ or can $\ddagger$ could, would, or should

[^3]:    Perfect, Having moved
    $t$ or can. $\ddagger$ vould, would or showld.
    Participles:
    Past, Moved

[^4]:    * You always takes the phural form of the verb. $\dot{L}$

[^5]:    *The object generally comes after the verl; but sometimes, especially, in poetry, it preceds the verb:-"And all the air a solemn stillness holds."

[^6]:    *We often find save in a position similar to this. Properly, save and except in such positions are verbs in the imperative mood.

[^7]:    * It may be easily seen that the noun clause will not make sense of itself. "(ised alone, it tells at once it is only a fragment, thus showing its subordinate position. The principal clause makes sense of itself, thus showing that it holds the chief position in the whole sentence. This fact may be used with advantage in distinguishing what clauses are principal, and what are sub-ordinate, as it holds for the adjective, and adverbial clauses also.

[^8]:    * See note under page 95, reading adjective for noun

[^9]:    * See note under page 95, reading adverbial for noun.

[^10]:    measure.

[^11]:    "Eternal sunshine \|f of the spotless mind;
    Each prayer accepted \|and each wish resigned."

