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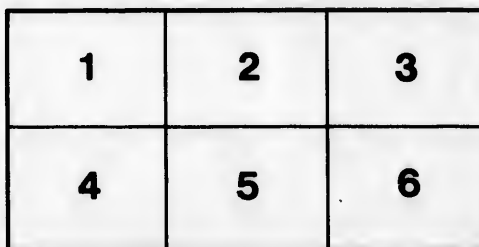
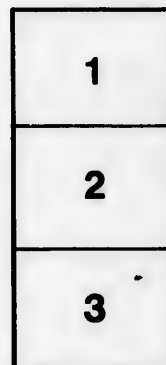
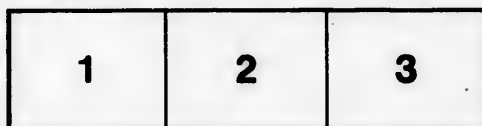
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A
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE
TO WHICH IS ADDED
AN ELEMENTARY TREATISE
ON
COMPOSITION.

By B. C. S.

QUEBEC:
ELZ. VINCENT, PRINTER & BOOKSELLER.
224, St. John Street,
—
1880.

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Q72

Enregistré, conformément à l'Acte du Parlement du Canada,
en l'année mil huit cent quatre-vingt, par J. F. N. Dubois, au
Bureau du Ministre de l'Agriculture.

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PREFACE.

We trust that, on examination, this work will be found to be plain and practical, simple in its outlines and details, and well adapted to the class-room. Our aim has been to pursue a course midway between the extremes of prolixity and conciseness. We hope to have sufficiently explained the subject by examples and models, and to have enforced it by numerous exercises involving the principles which they are designed to illustrate.

Each division of Grammar is treated of before the introduction of the succeeding part, because it is believed to be the experience of the best teachers that the pupil can acquire a knowledge of the subject more easily and more thoroughly by having his attention directed to but one thing at a time.

Syntax is introduced with explanations of sentences and of their different kinds and forms. A division of this part into Analysis and Synthesis is then made. Under Synthesis, the Rules of Syntax, with accompanying notes and exercises, are given in a form well adapted to didactic instruction. Although the analysis of sentences is regarded as of paramount importance, it has been left to the discretion of the teacher whether parsing and analysis shall be taught together, or shall be taught separately.

The "Elementary Treatise on Composition"—a very important branch—has been carefully prepared, and it will doubtless commend itself to both Teachers and Pupils.

We have made free use of the works of Gould Brown, Fawcett, Singer, Weld, Quackenbos, Wells, Hart, and

others; and we gladly avail ourselves of the opportunity of acknowledging the valuable assistance which we have derived from their respective Grammars.

A separate Key to the Exercises in Analysis, and False Syntax is published for the convenience of private learners. For an obvious reason, this Key should not be put into the hands of the school-boy. Being a distinct volume, it may be had, separately bound or with the Grammar.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Grammar is the science which treats of the principles of language.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR teaches the correct use of the English language, both in speaking and in writing.

Grammar is divided into four parts; namely, *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.

NOTE.—This four fold division has been retained here in deference to long established custom. In the present Treatise, however *Prosody*, which belongs so manifestly to Rhetoric, has not been treated.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography treats of letters, and the method of combining them to form syllables and words.

LETTERS.

A Letter is a mark or character used to represent an elementary sound of the human voice.

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

The names of the letters, as now commonly spoken and written in English, are *A, Bee, See, Dee, E, Eff, Jee, Aitch I, Jay, Kay, Ell, Em, En, O, Pee, Kue, Ar, Ess, Tee, U, Vee, Double-u, Eks, Wy, Zee.*

THE CLASSES OF LETTERS.

Letters are either *Vowels* or *Consonants*.

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

A **Consonant** is a letter which cannot be perfectly uttered till joined to a vowel; as, *b, c, d.*

The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

W or *Y* is a vowel when it ends a word or a syllable; when it is not followed in the same syllable by a vowel; or, when it is followed in the same syllable by a vowel not sounded; as, *boy, lowly; style, owe.* In every other position, *w* or *y* is a consonant.

The consonants are *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*, and sometimes *w*, and *y*.

Consonants are divided into *Semi-vowels* and *Mutes*.

A **Semi-vowel** is a consonant which can be imperfectly sounded without the aid of a vowel. The semi-vowels are *f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, w, x, y, z*, and *c* and *g* soft. Of these, *l, m, n*, and *r*, are called *liquids*, on account of their smooth and flowing sound.

A **Mute** is a consonant which cannot be sounded without

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the aid of a vowel. The mutes are *b, d, k, p, q, t*, and *o* and *g* hard.

FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

The letters have severally two forms, by which they are distinguished as *Capitals* and *Small letters*.

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

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITALS.

The following classes of words should commence with capital letters:—

1. The first word of a sentence.
2. The first word of every line in poetry.
3. Proper names, and words derived from them; as, *Canada, Canadian; John Davis; Broadway.*
4. All names applied to the Deity; as, *God, the Supreme Being; Providence.*
5. Common nouns personified; as, "*Cease rude Winter.*"
6. Words used as titles of office or honor, when prefixed to proper names; as, *Chief Justice Duval; General Beauregard.*
7. The first word of a direct quotation; as, "Remember the ancient maxim, " *Know thyself.*"
8. Words or expressions denoting remarkable events, or things long celebrated; as, the *French Revolution; the Middle Age; the Crimean War.*
9. Most adjectives derived from proper names, and personal pronouns referring to the Deity; as, "A *Grecian* education was considered necessary to form the *Roman* orator, poet, or artist?"—"All that we possess is God's, and we are under obligation to use it all as *He* wills."

Title-pages, heads of chapters and pages, side titles, etc., are usually composed wholly of capitals.

The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are always capitals.

SYLLABLES.

A **Syllable** is one or more letters pronounced in one sound, and is either a word or part of a word; as, *a*, *an*, *far*, *a-far*.

A word of one syllable is called a **Monosyllable**; one of two syllables, a **Dissyllable**; one of three, a **Trisyllable**; and one of more than three, a **Polysyllable**; as, *in*, *intend*, *intention*, *intentionally*.

DIPHTHONGS AND TRIPHTHONGS.

A **Diphthong** is the union of two vowels; as, *ou*, in *out*, *ea* in *meat*.

A **Proper Diphthong** is one in which both vowels are sounded; as, *oy* in *boy*, *ou* in *mouse*.

An **Improper Diphthong** is one in which but one of the vowels is sounded; as, *ea* in *beat*, *oa* in *loaf*.

A **Triphthong** is the union of three vowels in one syllable; as, *eau* in *beauty*, *iew* in *view*.

A **Proper Triphthong** is one in which all three vowels are sounded; as, *uoy* in *buoy*.

An **Improper Triphthong** is one in which but one or two of the vowels are sounded; as, *eye*, *ieu*, in *lieu*.

WORDS.

A **Word** is one or more syllables spoken or written as the sign of an idea; as, *I*, *man*, *army*, *science*.

Words are distinguished as *Primitive* or *Derivative*, and as *Simple* or *Compound*.

A **Primitive** or **Radical** word is one that is not derived from any other word in the language ; as, *hill, tree, great, consider*.

A **Derivative** word is one that is formed from some primitive word in the language ; as, *hillock, greatness, inconsiderate*.

A **Simple** word is one that is not formed by uniting other words ; as, *man, hand, fortune*.

A **Compound** word is one that is formed of two or more simple words ; as, *countryman, nevertheless, commonplace book*.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of the classification of words, their derivation, and their various modifications.

THE CLASSES OF WORDS.

Words are divided into ten classes, called *Parts of Speech*.

The **Parts of Speech** are the *Article*, the *Noun*, the *Adjective*, the *Pronoun*, the *Verb*, the *Participle*, the *Adverb*, the *Preposition*, the *Conjunction*, and the *Interjection*.

THE DEFINITIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

An **Article** is the word *the* (le, la, les,) *a* or *an* (un, une), used before a noun to limit its meaning ; as, *The stars, a man, an eagle*.

A **Noun** is a word used to express the *name* of any thing ; as, *John, Canada, book, wisdom.*

An **Adjective** is a word joined to a noun, or a pronoun, to qualify or define its meaning ; as, *Wise men ; five days ; this pen.*

A **Pronoun** is a word used in stead of a noun ; as, " Frank is a good boy ; *he* obeys *his* teacher."

A **Verb** is a word used to assert action, being, or state ; as, " John *studies.*"—" I *was* there."—" He *sleeps.*"

A **Participle** is a word derived from a verb, partaking of the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun ; it is generally formed by adding *ing, d, or ed,* to the verb : thus, from the verb *love,* are formed three participles, two simple and one compound ; as, *loving, loved, having loved.*

An **Adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, a participle, an adjective, or another adverb ; as, " He is *now here,* working *very steadily.*"

A **Preposition** is a word used to express the relation of a noun or pronoun depending upon it, to some other word in the sentence ; as, " He went *from* Quebec to Montreal *in* three days."

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction ; as, " James *and* he are happy, *because* they are good."

An **Interjection** is an exclamatory word,

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used merely to express some passion or emotion ; as, *Oh ! Ah ! alas !*

PARSING.

PARSING is the resolving or explaining of a sentence, according to the definitions and rules of grammar.

A *Sentence* is an assemblage of words, making complete sense ; as, " The tree bears fruit."—" A cheerful temper is a great blessing."

EXERCISE.—Tell to which *part of speech* each word in the following sentences belongs, and give the reason :—

MODEL.—" Alas ! how we miss the kind words and the gentle touch of our dear mother !"

Alas is an interjection, because it is an exclamatory word used to express an emotion.

How is an adverb, because it is a word used to modify the meaning of the verb *miss*.

We is a pronoun, because it is a word used in stead of a noun.

Miss is a verb, because it is a word used to assert the action of *we*.

The is an article, because it is a word used before the noun *words* to limit its meaning.

Kind is an adjective, because it is a word joined to the noun *words* to qualify its meaning.

Words is a noun, because it is the name of a thing.

And is a conjunction, because it is the word used to connect the nouns *words* and *touch*.

The is an article, because it is a word used before the noun *touch* to limit its meaning.

Gentle is an adjective, because it is a word joined to the noun *touch* to qualify its meaning.

Touch is a noun, because it is the name of a thing.

Of is a preposition, because it is a word used before the noun *mother*, to show its relation to the nouns *words* and *touch*.

Our is a pronoun, because it is a word used in stead of a noun.

Dear is an adjective, because it is a word joined to the noun *mother* to qualify its meaning.

Mother is a noun, because it is the name of a person.

1. History is a useful study.
2. A good boy obeys his parents.
3. The earth is not flat ; it is round.
4. Men can sail round the world in ships.
5. John is a dishonest and idle lad.
6. The day was hot, so we sat in the cool shade of the trees.
7. The industrious and attentive scholar learns with great ease and rapidity.
8. A beautiful picture hung in the window of a print-shop in King Street.
9. The morning was bright, and, at an early hour, the driver of the sleigh-stage was at the door.
10. Hark ! the trumpet sounds.
11. No man is truly great unless he is truly good.
12. Virtuous youth gradually brings forward accomplished and flourishing manhood.
13. Oh ! how the bright sun pours its beams over hill and vale !
14. Industry in brown clothes is better than idleness in splendid rags.
15. The bell rang, and they soon stopped their play and went to bed.

ARTICLES.

An **Article** is a word used before a noun to limit its meaning ; as, *The* air, *the* winds, a man, *an* island.

There are two articles. *The*, and *A* or *An*.

The is called the **Definite Article**, because it refers to a particular person or thing ; as, *The* boy, *the* apples.

A is called the **Indefinite Article**, because it does not point out a particular person or thing ; as, *A* boy, *an* apple.

An is used before a vowel, or silent *h*, and words beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable ; as, *An* art, *an* hour, *an* heroic action.

H is used before a consonant, and *e* sounded, before *u* and *y*, and the long sound of *u* ; as, *A* magistrate, *a* hand, *a* week, *a* unit.

EXERCISE I.—State before which of the following words *a* should be used, and before which *an* should be used, and give the reasons :—

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Ear, honest, oyster, horse, onion, union, European, hundred, watch, humble, youth, order, unit, umbrella, use, orchard, iron, hour, history, age, hero, truth, height, eye, dream, eagle, usurper, humane.

EXERCISE II.—Write twelve sentences, each containing the indefinite article *a* or *an* properly used.

Parse the *articles* in the following sentences:—

MODEL.—"The old general has won a victory."

The is an article, "An Article, is a word, etc."; it is a definite article, because it refers to a particular person.

A is an article, "An Article is a word, etc."; it is an indefinite article, because it does not point out a particular thing.

1. The rose is a beautiful flower. 2. An amusing story was read to the children. 3. The crow built its nest in a high tree. 4. A peach, an apple, a pear, or an orange is very delicious. 5. The scholars are at play on the lawn. 6. The hunter shot a deer as it fed in an open plain. 7. An honest boy will never hesitate to tell the truth. A large vessel struck upon the rocks.

NOUNS.

A Noun is a word used to express the *name* of any thing; as, *John, Canada, desk, wisdom.*

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

Nouns are divided into two general classes; *Proper* and *Common*.

A Proper Noun is a name used to distinguish a particular object or collection of objects, from others of the same class; as, *James, Quebec, Ontario, the Laurentides.*

A Common Noun is a name that may be applied to any object of the same class; as, *man, town, river, valleys.*

Nouns embrace also the particular classes, termed *Collective*, *Complex*, and *Compound*.

A **Collective Noun** is a name that denotes a collection of beings or of things, regarded as a unit ; as, *people*, *school*, *herd*, *committee*.

A noun is called **Complex**, when it is formed of two or more words not united, but used together as one name ; as, *Red Sea*, *Count of Dufferin*.

A noun is called **Compound**, when it is formed of two or more words united, and used as one name ; as, *landlord*, *spelling-book*, *man-of-war*.

EXERCISE I.—Tell to which *class* each of the following nouns belongs, and give the reason :—

Henry, Robin Hood, islands, flock, bird, fire-engine, Leo, March, mountain, corkscrew, Nova Scotia, word, Thomas, day, statesman, class, month, handkerchief, South America, regiment, the Indians, fractions, Laval University, cloud, Ottawa City, senate, strawberry, Duke of Clarence, bookcase, meeting, navy, King Louis, Water-crest, steamboat.

EXERCISE II.—Write six sentences, each containing a *common* noun ;—six, each containing a *proper* noun ;—five, each containing a *collective* noun ;—five, each containing a *compound* noun ;—and five, each containing a *complex* noun.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

The properties belonging to nouns are *Gender*, *Person*, *Number*, and *Case*.

GENDER.

Gender, in grammar, is the distinction of objects in regard to sex.

There are three genders ; the *Masculine*, the *Feminine*, and the *Neuter*.

The **Masculine Gender** is that which deno-

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tes beings of the male sex; as *man, brother, king, stag*.

The **Feminine Gender** denotes beings of the female sex; as, *woman, sister, queen, hind*.

The **Neuter Gender** denotes objects that are without life; as, *milk, pen, wind, knowledge*.

Some nouns are equally applicable to both sexes: as, *cousin, parent, child, friend*.

The sexes are distinguished in three ways.

I. By different names:—as, *bachelor, maid; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cow; cock, hen; drake, duck; carl, countess; father, mother; horse, mare; husband, wife; king, queen; lord, lady*.

II. By different terminations: as, *abbot, abbess; administrator, administratrix; bridegroom, bride; duke, duchess; executor, executrix; hero, heroine; widower, widow*.

II. By prefixing another word: as, *man-servant, maid-servant; male-child, female-child; he-goat, she-goat*.

EXERCISE I.—Name each *noun* in the following sentences, the *class* to which it belongs, and its *gender*, and give the reasons:—

MODEL.—“The flowers bloom.”

Flowers is a noun, because it is a word used to express the name of a thing; it is a common noun, because, etc.; it is of the neuter gender, because, etc.

1. The horse with the boy upon his back, walked slowly up the hill. 2. When Frank reached the school, all the pupils had taken their seats. 3. The Jews are scattered over the whole world. 4. Heirs are often disappointed. 5. The lion meets his foe boldly. 6. A family settled on this river. 7. How sweet the flowers smell! 8. John looks as pale as a sheet. 9. Mother, where do the bees find the wax to make their cells? 10. The clouds moved slowly across the blue vault of heaven.

EXERCISE II.—Write eight sentences, each containing one noun or more in the masculine gender;—eight, each containing one or

more in the feminine gender ;—eight, each containing one or more in the neuter gender.

PERSON.

Person, in grammar, is that property which distinguishes the speaker or writer, the person or thing addressed, and the person or thing spoken of.

There are three persons ; the *First*, the *Second*, and the *Third*.

The **First Person** denotes the speaker or writer ; as, “ I, *Peter*, have done it.”

The **Second Person** denotes the person or thing addressed ; as, “ *John*, who did this ? ”

The **Third Person** denotes the person or thing spoken of ; as, “ *James* studies his *lesson*.”

EXERCISE I.—State to which *class* each *noun* in the following sentences belongs ; name its *gender* and its *person*, and give the reasons :—

MODEL.—“ Henry, never tell a lie.”

Henry.—is a noun, because, etc. ; it is a proper noun, because, etc. ;—of the masculine gender, because, etc. ;—in the 2nd pers., because, etc.

1. Dependence and obedience belong to youth. 2. The salutation of me, Paul, with mine own hand. 3. I, who command you, am the general. 4. Friends, Romans, countrymen ! lend me your ears. 5. The city is in a bowl of mountains. 6. We are strangers here. 7. The father and his sons were walking through the green fields. 8. That gentleman will not take an oath. 9. At an early hour, the group of children were ready to start. 10. Boys, let me entreat you to avoid falsehood and profanity.

EXERCISE II.—Write five sentences, each containing a noun in the first pers. ;—five, each containing a noun in the 2nd pers. ;—five, each containing one noun or more in the 3rd person.

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NUMBER.

Number, in grammar, is the distinction of *unity* and *plurality*.

There are two numbers; the *Singular* and the *Plural*.

The **Singular Number** denotes one object, or a collection of objects considered as a unit; as, *table, bench, nation, flock*.

The **Plural Number** denotes more than one object or collection of objects; as, *tables, benches, nations*.

THE FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular; as, *home, homes; key, keys; clock, clocks; cameo, cameos*.

This rule always applies to nouns ending with *o, u, or y* immediately preceded by a vowel; as, *day, days; folio, folios; purlieu, purlieus*.

Nouns ending in *ch* (not sounded as *k*), *s, sh, x, or z*, form the plural by adding *es* to the singular; as, *bench, benches; gas, gases; sash, sashes; fox, foxes; waltz, waltzes*.

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, become plural by the change of *y* into *i*, and the adding of *es*; as, *fly, flies; army, armies*.

The following nouns in *f*, change *f* into *v*, and add *es*, for the plural; *beef, calves, elf, halves, loaf, selves, sheaf, shelves, thief, wolves*; as, *leaves, calves, etc. Knife, knives; life, lives; wife, wives*; are similar.

The greater number of nouns in *f, fe, and ff*, are regular; as *fifes, chiefs, gulfs, stripes, muffs, etc. Staff* has *staves* in the plural, but its compounds are regular; as, *flagstaffs*.

Nouns ending with *o*, immediately preceded by a consonant, differ in the formation of the plural. Some become plural by the adding of *es*; as, *hero, heroes*; *potato, potatoes*;—others by the adding of *s* only; as, *zero, zeros*; *solo, solos*; *piano, pianos*; *trio, trios*.

The following nouns are still more irregular; *man, men*; *child, children*; *woman, women*; *foot, feet*; *tooth, teeth*; *ox, oxen*; *goose, geese*; *louse, lice*; *mouse, mice*.

Many foreign nouns retain their original plural; as, *radius, radii*; *vortex, vortices*; *axis, axes*; *basis, bases*; *crisis, crises*; *thesis, theses*; *phenomenon, phenomena*; *cherub, cherubim*; *focus, foci*; *ellipsis, ellipses*.

When proper nouns become plural, they follow the analogy of common nouns; as, *the Stuarts, the Oatos*.

Some nouns are always in the singular; as, *gold, goodness, idleness, meekness, milk, pride, wisdom*.

Some nouns are plural only; as, *annals, ashes, cattle, drugs, goods, manners, morals, oats, scissors, tongs, victuals*.

Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *apparatus, deer, fish, hose, news, odds, series, sheep, species, swine*.

Compounds consisting of a noun and an adjective connected by a hyphen take the sign of the plural upon the noun only; as, *court-martial, courts-martial*.

EXERCISE I.—Apply the rule for forming the plural of each of the following nouns:

MODEL.—*Glory*.—The plural of *glory* is *glories*.

"*Glory*" is a noun ending in *y* preceded by the consonant *r*; therefore the plural is formed by the change of *y* into *i* and the adding of *es*, according to the Rule, "Nouns ending in *y*, etc."

Nymph, church, brush, tax, echo, octavo, pony, mass, calf, valley, piano, ditch, wolf, folly, block, colony, sheaf, loss, strife, grief, grotto, street, alley, wish, muff, trio, scarf, pulley, ellipsis, peach, topaz, atlas, stratum, vespers, miss, negro.

EXERCISE II.—Spell the singular of each of the following nouns:—

Selves, porticos, cities, tomatoes, torches, tongues, crucifixes,

rhymes, countesses, riches, ax

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rhymes, yachts, wives, geese, horses, ladies, priests, lice, cabbages, countesses, stories, isthmuses, halves, oxen, muskittoes, teeth, beeves, riches, axes, folios, paths.

EXERCISE III.—Name each noun in the following sentences, and the class to which it belongs; also its gender, person, and number, and give the reasons:—

MODEL. —“He has lost his book.”

Book is a noun, because, etc.; it is a common noun, because, etc.; — in the neuter gender, because, etc.; — in the 3rd person, because, etc.; — in the singular number, because, etc.

1. Lenses are glasses used for changing the direction of the rays of light. 2. Mild words disarm anger. 3. The handles of scythes are called snaths. 4. Vast herds of buffaloes once roamed over the fertile prairies of Illinois. 5. Secret meetings are called juntas. 6. Benjamin West made his first drawings with charcoal. 7. Sweet potatoes were first brought from the Malayan peninsula. 8. The army passed over the river on pontoon bridges. 9. Early in the morning, the fleet left the harbor of Halifax.

EXERCISE IV.—Write eight sentences, each containing one noun or more in the singular number; —eight, each containing one noun or more in the plural.

CASE.

Case, in grammar, denotes the relation of nouns and pronouns to other words.

There are three cases; the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*.

The **Nominative Case** denotes the subject of a verb; as, *The boy plays; I play.*

The *subject* of a verb is that which answers to *who* or *what* before it; as, “*The boy plays.*”—*Who plays? The boy.* *Boy*, therefore, is here in the *nominative case*.

The **Possessive Case** denotes *ownership* or *possession*; as, *The boy's pen; my pen.*

The possessive case of nouns is formed, in the singular number, by adding to the nominative *s* preceded by *an apostrophe*; and, in the plural, when the nominative ends in *s*, by adding *an apostrophe only*; as, singular, *boy's*; plural, *boys'.*

The **Objective Case** denotes the object of a verb, a participle, or a preposition; as, "I love my *father*; he loves *me*."—"The Dominion of *Canada*."

The *object* of a verb, a participle, or a preposition, is that which answers to *whom* or *what* after it; as, "I love my father."—I love *whom*? My *father*.—"The Dominion of Canada."—The Dominion of *what*? *Canada*. *Father* and *Canada* are therefore here in the *objective case*.

THE DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

To Decline a noun, is to express its cases and numbers.

EXAMPLES OF DECLENSION.

Singular.

<i>Nom.</i>	Yard,	Box,	Man,	Sky,	Glass,
<i>Poss.</i>	yard's,	box's,	man's,	sky's,	glass's
<i>Obj.</i>	yard;	box;	man;	sky;	glass;

Plural.

<i>Nom.</i>	yards,	boxes,	men,	skies,	glasses,
<i>Poss.</i>	yards',	boxes',	men's,	skies',	glasses'
<i>Obj.</i>	yards.	boxes.	men.	skies.	glasses.

EXERCISE I.—Decline each of the following nouns:—Army, bay, block, body, brother-in-law, brush, buffalo, Charles, child, chimney,

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colony, dwarf, fife, folio, foot, goose, James, knife, lady, ladle, lash, loaf, miss, money, mouse, muff, page, peach, princess, sash, study, thief, torch, trio, waltz, wife, year.

EXERCISE II.—Name the nouns in the *nominative*, and those in the *objective* case in the following sentences, and give the reasons :—

1. The stars shone brightly in the quiet sky. 2. Romulus founded the city of Rome. 3. The bad boy struck the dog. 4. The deer ran to the hills. 5. Genius lies buried on our mountains and in our valleys. 6. The men cut down the trees. 7. A tall, kind-looking man stepped up to the stranger. 8. The day for the commencement arrived, and they prepared to attend. 9. Tall maples crowned the summit of the hill. 10. The exercises were long and tiresome, and we were glad when they came to a close.

EXERCISE III.—Write ten sentences, each containing one noun or more in the *nominative* case ; —ten, each containing one or more in the *possessive* ;—ten, each containing one or more in the *objective*.

EXERCISE IV.—Parse the *nouns* in the following sentences :—

MODEL.—“ Philip has found a bird’s nest in the hedge.”

Philip is a noun, “ A noun is a word, etc.” ; it is a proper noun, because, etc. ;—of the masculine gender, because, etc. ;—in the 3rd pers., because, etc. ;—in the singular number, because, etc. ;—in the *nominative* case, because it is the subj. of the verb *has found*.

Bird’s is a noun, “ A noun is a word, etc.” ; it is a common noun, etc. ;—of the masculine or the feminine gender, because, etc. ;—in the 3rd pers., because, etc. ;—in the singular number, because, etc. ;—in the *possessive* case, because, etc.

Nest is a noun, “ A noun is a word, etc.” ; it is a common noun, because, etc. ;—of the neuter gender, because, etc. ;—in the 3rd person, because, etc. ;—in the singular number, because, etc. ;—in the *objective* case, because it denotes the object of the verb *has found*, and answers to *what* after it.

Hedge is a noun, “ A noun is a word, etc.” ; it is a common noun, because, etc. ;—of the neuter gender, because, etc. ;—in the 3rd person, because, etc. ;—in the singular number, because, etc. ;—in the *objective* case, because it denotes the object of the preposition *in*, and answers to *what* after it.

18 ADJECTIVES.—CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Nova Scotia was settled at Port Royal. 2. The king's heart is in the hand of the Lord. 3. The wreck was washed upon the shore. 4. A gloomy house stood by the roadside. 5. The eagle has a strong and piercing eye. 6. Bleak winds whistled through the pines around the cabin. 7. A wise man's anger is of short continuance. 8. The broad flakes of snow soon hid the ground from view. 9. An ice-boat was rigged, and the wind blew the party across the pond. 10. The Indians' hunting grounds are now cultivated. 11. Travelers suffer from heat and thirst as they cross the desert. 12. The Falls of the Chaudiere are in the Ottawa River.

EXERCISE V.—Parse also the *articles* in the preceding sentences.

ADJECTIVES.

An **Adjective** is a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a noun or a pronoun ; as, A *good* apple ; *five diligent* boys ; *unhappy* me.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives may be divided into four classes ; namely, *Proper*, *Common*, *Numeral*, and *Pronominal*.

A **Proper Adjective** is one that is derived from a proper noun ; as, *Canadian*, *English*, *Ciceronian*.

A **Common Adjective** is one that qualifies or limits a noun or a pronoun, but which is not derived from a proper noun ; as, *good*, *bad*, *honest*, *upper*.

A **Numeral Adjective** is one that is used to express number ; as, *two*, *second*, *twofold*.

Numeral adjectives are of three kinds ; *Cardinal*, *Ordinal*, and *Multiplicative*.

The **Cardinals** tell *how many* ; as, *one, two, ten*.

The **Ordinals** tell *which one* ; as, *first, second, tenth*.

The **Multiplicative** tell *how many fold* ; as, *single, double or twofold, triple or threefold*.

A **Pronominal Adjective** is a word which either limits a noun mentioned, or represents a noun understood ; as, “ *This boy is good.* ” — “ *This is a good boy.* ”

In the first example, *this* “limits” the noun *boy*, and is used as an adjective ; in the second, *this* “represents” the noun *boy*, and is used as a pronoun.

The principal pronominal adjectives are : *all, another, any, both, each, either, enough, every, few, former, latter, little, less, least, much, many, more, most, none, neither, one, other, same, several, some, such, this, that, these, those*.

Which and *what*, and their compounds, are *pronominal adjectives* when used to limit nouns, or placed before them to ask questions.

REMARKS.

Adjectives, like nouns, may be *compound* in form ; as, *Home-made bread* ; *one-leaved* ; the *Anglo-Saxon* race.

A noun becomes an adjective, when it is used to qualify another noun ; as, *Gold chain, evening school, South-Sea dream*.

Adjectives are sometimes used as nouns, and, as such, they have all the properties of nouns ; as, “ *The good will be rewarded.* ” — “ *They love their inferiors.* ”

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences, each containing one or more

proper adjectives ;—ten, containing, common adjectives ;—ten, containing numeral adjectives ;

--ten, containing, pronominal adjectives.

EXERCISE II.—Name the *adjectives* in the following sentences, state to which *class* each belongs, and give the reasons :—

MODEL.—“ This child is of French descent, and that, of English.”

French and English are adjectives, because, etc.; they are proper adj., because they derived from the proper nouns, *France* and *England*.

This is a pronominal adjective, because it *limits* the noun *child*.

That is a pronominal adjective, because it *represents* the noun *child*.

1. Spain was once under the Moorish dominion. 2. The red squirrel is a blithe creature. 3. He leaps among the topmost branches of the great oak. 4. Three heavy wagons passed along the street. 5. The same duties were expected of each. 6. A single mistake may cause a great loss. 7. Every spot to which these little ones would probably have strayed, was searched. 8. The brutal murderer had a low, narrow, and flat forehead. 9. In such a peaceful village there was no need of those precautions. 10. Kind words are light-winged messengers that soften the hardest hearts. 11. The Indian chief glared at him with a savage scowl. 12. They lay down to sleep, each clasping the other in his arms. 13. Remember that a heedless, careless word may cause a bitter heart-pang. 14. Few of us do what we are able to do. 15. Many a poor, idle, miserable, pitiable outcast owes his wretchedness to strong drink.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

The **Comparison** of adjectives is the variation by which they express quality in different degrees ; as, *soft*, *softer*, *softest*.

There are three degrees of comparison ; the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

The **Positive Degree** is that which is expressed by the adjective in its simple form ; as *good*, *soft*, *wise*.

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The **Comparative Degree** is that which exceeds the positive in a higher, or a lower degree; as, *better, softer, wiser, less wise*.

The **Superlative Degree** is that which is not exceeded, either in the highest, or in the lowest degree; as, *best, softest, wisest, least wise*.

Adjectives whose signification does not admit of increase or diminution, cannot be compared; as, *equal, two, second, total, all, blind, deaf, infinite*, etc.

The comparative of adjectives of one syllable is commonly formed by adding *r* or *er* to the positive; as, *wide, wider; great, greater*; and the superlative, by adding *st* or *est*; *wide, widest; great, greatest*.

Adjectives of more than one syllable, are generally compared by prefixing *more* and *most* to the positive; as, *amiable, more amiable, most amiable*.

Diminution of quality is expressed by *less* and *least*, whether the adjective is of one syllable or more than one; as, *good, less good, least good; famous, less famous, least famous*.

Adjectives of two or more syllables ending in *y* or in *le* after a consonant, or accented on the second syllable, are generally compared by *er* and *est*; as, *happy, happier, happiest; feeble, feebler, feeblest*.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: *good, better, best; bad or ill, worse, worst; far, farther or further, farthest or furthest; fore, former, foremost or first; late, later,*

latest or *last* ; *little*, *lest*, *least* ; *much* or *many*,
more, *most* ; *near*, *nearer*, *nearest* or *next* ; *old*,
older or *elder*, *oldest* or *eldest*.

Numeral adjectives, most proper, and pronominal adjectives, those denoting *material*, *position*, or *shape*, and a few others, such as *whole*, *universal*, *exact*, *supreme*, etc., by reason of their use and meaning, are not compared.

EXERCISE I.—*Compare* such of the following *adjectives* as admit comparison :—

Pleasant, soft, ill, able, late, sour, noble, tough, American, Russian, dry, many, supreme, cheerful, brave, English, preferable, good-natured, certain, old, thoughtless, lovely, evil-minded, perfect, acceptable, juicy, sweet, few, ill-mannered, sad, round, humble, generous, diligent, universal, handsome, far, warm, timid, sure.

EXERCISE II.—Use *adjectives* before the following nouns, and tell to what class each adjective belongs :—

Senate, dollar, sun, navy, rock, moon, lake, soldiers, nation, commander, lily, Cartier, rose, tyrant, happiness, industry, tiger, deer, life, pride, books, war, obedience, army, prairie, Champlain, mind, pleasure, mountain, tree, river, ocean, valley, home, face, death.

EXERCISE III.—Parse the *adjectives* in the following sentences:

MODEL.—“ Two honest men were they.” —“ This question is less important than that (is).”

Two is a numeral adjective, because it is one, etc. ;—cardinal, because, etc. ; it cannot be compared ; it limits the noun *men*.

Honest is an adjective, because, etc. ;—compared (pos. *honest*, comp. *more honest*, sup. *most honest*), and qualifies the noun *men*.

This is a pronominal adjective, because, etc. ; it cannot be compared ; it limits the noun *question*.

That is a pronominal adjective, because, etc. ; in this sentence it represents the noun *question*, and is, therefore, in the 3rd person, singular number, and of the neuter gender ; it is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *is*.

1. The wind roars through the leafless forest. 2. The true hero appears in the great, wise man of duty. 3. Tall houses make the

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street gloomy. 4. Autumn winds strew the ground with a soft carpet of leaves. 5. A little flower sprang up amidst the coarse weeds of a long neglected garden. 6. These wishes had long been indulged. 7. Either course is better than remaining in idleness. 8. The plant raised its beautiful head, and its delicate buds burst forth in gladness. 9. All honorable means should be used to advance. 10. Shakspeare stands above all other poets, above all other human writers. 11. More than four thousand years have passed since this world was created. 12. An avaricious man uses every effort to make money, but he cannot enjoy his ill-gotten wealth.

EXERCISE IV.—Parse the articles and the nouns in the preceding sentences.

PRONOUNS.

A **Pronoun** is a word used in place of a noun; as, "The father and *his* son cultivated the farm *which they* had purchased."

In this sentence, the word *his* is used in place of the noun *father's*; *which*, in place of the noun *farm*, and *they*, in place of *father* and *son*; the words *his*, *which* and *they* are, therefore, called *pronouns*,—a word which means "for nouns".

A pronoun is used to avoid the unpleasant repetition of a noun.

The word, for which a pronoun is used, is called it *antecedent*, because it usually precedes the pronoun.

Pronouns often stand for persons or things not named, the antecedent being *understood*.

Pronouns have the same properties as nouns; namely, *Gender*, *Person*, *Num'ber*, and *Case*.

24 DECLENSION OF THE SIMP. PERS. PRONOUNS.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

Pronouns are divided into three classes ; *Personal*, *Relative*, and *Interrogative*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

A **Personal Pronoun** is one that expresses person and number of itself.

Personal pronouns are either *Simple* or *Compound*.

The **Simple Personal Pronouns** are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, and their variations in the singular and in the plural.

I is of the first person ; *thou* is of the second ; and *he*, *she*, and *it*, are of the third.

THE DECLENSION OF THE SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Singular.

	First Person. Masc. or Fem.	Second Person. Masc. or Fem.	Masc.	Third Person. Fem	Neut.
Nom.	I,	Thou	He,	She,	It,
Poss.	my, or mine,	thy, or thine,	his	her, or hers,	its,
Obj.	me ;	thee ;	him ;	her ;	it ;

Plural.

Nom.	we	you or ye	they,	they	they,
Poss.	our, or ours,	your, or yours,	their, or theirs,	their, or theirs,	their, or theirs,
Obj.	us.	you.	them.	them.	them.

In the possessive case, *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are

used when the noun denoting the thing possessed is mentioned, and *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs*, when it is omitted; as, "This book is *mine*."—"This is *my* book."

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Compound Personal Pronouns are formed by subjoining, in the singular, the word *self* to the simple personal pronouns *my, thy, him, her, and it*; and, in the plural, the word *self* to *our, your, and them*.

The *Compound Personal Pronouns* are *myself, thyself, himself, herself, and itself*, and their plural forms, *ourselves, yourselves, and themselves*.

THE DECLENSION OF THE COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Singular.

	<i>First Person.</i> <i>Masc. or Fem.</i>	<i>Second Person.</i> <i>Masc. or Fem.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Third Person.</i> <i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Myself,	Thyself,	Himself,	Herself,	Itself.
<i>Poss.</i>	—	—	—	—	—
<i>Obj.</i>	myself;	thyself;	himself;	herself;	itself;

Plural.

<i>Nom.</i>	ourselves,	yourselves,	themselves,	themselves,	themselves,	selves.
<i>Poss.</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—
<i>Obj.</i>	ourselves.	yourselves.	themselves.	themselves.	themselves.	selves.

The compound personal pronouns have no form for the possessive case, either in the singular or in the plural.

EXERCISE I.—State the *gender*, the *person*, the *number*, and the *case* of each of the following pronouns:—

My, ours, himself, it, we, thee, I, herself, you, thyself, us, he, themselves, ours, mine, your, thine, itself, thou, its, myself, they, ourselves.

EXERCISE II.—Write six sentences containing different pronouns in the first person;—six, containing different pronouns in the second person;—twelve, containing different pronouns in the third person.

EXERCISE III.—Parse the *personal pronouns* in the following sentences:—

MODEL.—“As the man appeared honest, I employed him.”

I is a pronoun, because, etc; it is a pers. pron., because, etc.; of the masculine or the feminine gender, first pers., singular number;—in the nom. case, because it is the subj. of the verb *employed*.

Him is a pron., because, etc.; it is a pers. pron., because, etc.;—of the masc. gender, because, etc.;—in the 3rd. pers., sing. number;—in the objective case, because it is the object of the action expressed by *employed*.

1. Andrew has a little carriage, and he often rides in it. 2. Indians are treacherous in their character. 3. The old hen calls her young ones when she finds a worm for them. 4. Make the best of life, for it is short. 5. A scorner seeketh wisdom, and findeth it not. 6. There goes Lucy with her satchel of books. 7. The snow spreads its white sheet over the whole country. 8. The soldiers threw themselves upon the ground, and the balls passed over their heads. 9. Come, we must now commence our studies. 10. Louis struck his brother with his fist. 12. Love thy neighbor as thou lovest thyself. 12. Mary lost her books and could not find them.

EXERCISE IV.—Parse also the articles and the nouns in the preceding sentences.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A **Relative Pronoun** is one that represents an antecedent word or phrase, and serves to connect sentences.

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Relative pronouns are of two kinds ; *Simple* and *Compound*.

SIMPLE RELATIVES.

The Simple Relative Pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

THE DECLENSION OF THE SIMPLE RELATIVES.

Singular.

<i>Nom.</i>	Who,	Which,	What,	That,
<i>Poss.</i>	whose,	whose,	—	—
<i>Obj.</i>	whom;	which;	what;	that;

Plural.

<i>Nom.</i>	who,	which,	what,	that,
<i>Poss.</i>	whose,	whose,	—	—
<i>Obj.</i>	whom.	which.	what.	that.

REMARKS.

Who is used in referring to persons ; as, "The boy *who* studies will learn."

Which is used in referring to inferior animals and to things without life ; as, "The hare *which* was killed."—"I have found the knife *which* I had lost.

What is used in referring to things without life only, and is always of the neuter gender. It is equivalent to *the thing which* (or *that which*) in the singular, and to *the things which* (or *those which*) in the plural. Thus, "He obtained *what* he wanted," in the singular, means, "He obtained *the thing which* he wanted;" and, in the plural, "He obtained *the things which* he wanted."

28 RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

That is sometimes used in referring to persons, animals, or things without life; as, "The person *that* we know."
—"The last book *that* was sold."

COMPOUND RELATIVES.

The **Compound Relative Pronouns** are formed by subjoining the word *ever* and *soever* to the simple relatives *who*, *which*, and *what*.

The compound relatives are *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*.

THE DECLENSION OF THE COMPOUND RELATIVES.

Singular and Plural.

<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
Whoever,	whosoever,	whomever.
Whosoever,	whosoever,	whomsoever.
Whichever,	—	whichever.
Whichsoever,	—	whichsoever.
Whatever,	—	whatever.
Whatsoever,	—	whatsoever.

A compound relative includes, in meaning, an antecedent and a simple relative. *Whoever* and *whosoever* mean *any one who*; *whichever* and *whichsoever* mean *any one which*; *whatever* and *whatsoever* mean *any thing which*, or *all things which*.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

An Interrogative Pronoun is one used to

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ask a question ; as, “ *Who* came with you ? ”
—“ What do you want ? ”

The *Interrogatives* are *who*, *which*, and *what*. They are declined like the simple relatives.

Who is used in asking about persons ; as, “ *Who* founded Quebec ? ”

Which and *what* are used in asking about persons, animals, or things ; as, “ *Which* of the men fled ? ”—“ *Which* of the horses won the race ? ”—“ *What* is he ? An orator.”

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences each containing simple relative pronouns ;—ten, each containing compound relative pronouns ;—ten, each containing interrogatives.

EXERCISE II.—Parse the *relative* and the *interrogative pronouns* in the following sentences :—

MODELS.—1. “ The boy who studies, will learn.”

Who is a relative pronoun, because, etc. ; it is of the masculine gender, in the 3rd person, singular number ;—in the nom. case, because it is the subj. of the verb *studies*.

2. “ Whose knife is this ? Henry’s.”

Whose is an interrogative pronoun, because, etc. ; it is of the neuter gender, 3rd person, singular number ;—in the possessive case, because it denotes possession.

1. Nobody knows who invented the letters. 2. He was the soul which animated the party. 3. Riches that are ill gotten, are seldom enjoyed. 4. I will take what you send. 5. Which of you will go with me ? 6. Remember the good advice which is given to you. 7. The gardener whose flowers we admired, plucked a few for us. 8. Do you know who broke the window ? 9. All the money that was given to him, was lost. 10. To whom were they sent ? To their uncle. 11. There is in my carriage what has life, soul, and beauty. 12. This is the hardest lesson that we have yet had.

EXERCISE III.—Parse the articles, the nouns, and the personal pronouns in the preceding sentences.

VERBS.

A **Verb** is a word used to assert action, being, or state; as, "John *studies*"—"I *was* there."
—"He *sleeps*."

In these sentences, *studies* asserts *action* of the subject *John*; *was* asserts *being* of the subject *I*; and *sleeps* asserts *state* of the subject *he*; *studies*, *was*, and *sleeps* are, therefore, *verbs*.

Verbs are the most important words in any language, because no sentence can be made to express complete sense without the use of a verb.

EXERCISE I.—Name the *verbs* and their *subjects* in the following sentences, and give the reasons:—

MODEL.—"John writes well.

Writes is a verb, because, etc. Its subj. is *John*, because the action expressed by the verb is asserted of John.

1. The moon now rose. 2. The sun shines brightly. 3. Winter passed, and spring came. 4. Thomas studies diligently. 5. It rained fast. 6. The man walks. 7. The boy told an untruth. 8. All consented to the plan. 9. He followed good examples. 10. How far it flew! 11. A wood fire blazed upon the hearth. 12. She whispered in low tones. 13. Misfortune comes to all. 14. With the spring his health returned. 15. Sweet blooms the rose.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

Verbs are divided into two general classes: *Transitive* and *Intransitive*.

A **Transitive verb** is one that has an object or requires one to complete the sense; as, "The garden *has* flowers."

The term *transitive* signifies *passing over*.

An **Intransitive Verb** is one that has no object, or does not require an object to com-

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plete the sense; as, "The horse *runs*."—"Truth is mighty."—"Experience *teaches* better than books."

The term *intransitive* means not *passing over*.

A transitive verb asserts *action* only; as, "Mary *learns* her lessons."

An intransitive verb asserts *being* or *state*; as, "The sky *is* cloudy."—"The book *lies* on the table."

Some verbs may be used either transitively or intransitively, the construction alone determining to which class they belong.

EXERCISE I.—Name the verbs in the following sentences, state to which *class*, according to meaning, each belongs, and give the reasons :—

MODEL.—"John wrote his exercise, while his brother remained idle."

Wrote is a verb, because, etc.; it is transitive, because it has an object (*exercise*).

Remained is a verb, because, etc.; it is intransitive, because, it has no object.

1. The lightning struck the oak. 2. Martha learns fast. 3. He studies in the morning, and rides in the evening. 4. He is a bold speaker. 5. A good tree bears good fruit. 6. The camel carried him safely. 7. He died a miserable death. 8. Andrew always studies well his lessons. 9. The pulse fluttered, then stopped. 10. A storm gathered in the west. 11. A certain man had two sons. 12. Breezes played among the foliage. 13. The prince succeeds the king. 14. In every undertaking he succeeds.

EXERCISE II.—Write ten sentences, each containing a *transitive* verb;—ten, each containing an *intransitive* verb.

PROPERTIES OF VERBS.

The properties of verbs are *Voice*, *Mode*, *Tense*, *Person* and *Number*.

Voice is that property of a transitive verb

which shows whether the subject, or nominative, *does* or *receives* the action asserted by the verb.

Voice belongs to transitive verbs only.

There are two voices ; the *Active* and the *Passive*.

The **Active Voice** is that form of a transitive verb which shows that the *subject does* the action asserted by the verb.

The **Passive Voice** is that form of a transitive verb which shows that the *subject receives* the action asserted by the verb.

In the sentence, " Champlain *founded* Quebec ", the subject *Champlain* does the action asserted by the verb *founded*. " Founded " is, therefore, in the active voice. But in the expression, " *Quebec was founded by Champlain*," the subject *Quebec* does not act, but receives the action asserted by the verb *was founded*. " Was founded " is, therefore, in the passive voice.

Although intransitive verbs have no voice, yet they have the *form* of the *active* voice.

EXERCISE I.—Name the verbs in the following sentences, tell which are *transitive* and which *intransitive* ; tell in what *voice* each is, and give the reasons :—

MODEL.—" The lightning had no sooner struck the edifice than it fell, and many persons were buried in its ruins."

Had struck is a verb, because, etc. ; it is transitive, because it has an object (*edifice*) ;—in the active voice, because it shows that the *subject (lightning)* does the action asserted by the verb.

Tell is a verb, because, etc. ; it is intransitive, because it has no object ; it has no voice, because it is an intransitive verb.

Were buried is a verb, because, etc. ; it is transitive, because the action which it asserts, is exerted upon some object ;—in the pas-

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sive voice, because it shows that the *subject (persons)* receives the action asserted by the verb.

1. The frost broke the pitcher. 2. To be ridiculed is unpleasant. 3. Heroes fought and bled. 4. The voyage was undertaken at an evil time. 5. The girls are learning their lessons. 6. Thick clouds obscured the sun. 7. I was awaked by a loud knock at the door. 8. This field ploughs well. 9. My motives were slandered. 10. Actions are governed by circumstances. 11. The bayonet receives its name from Bayonne in France ; it was first used in 1603. 12. Old letters become very dear to us.

EXERCISE II.—Write ten or more sentences, each containing a verb in the *active voice*.

Change the sentences just written, so that the verb shall be in the *passive voice* ; Thus, Active Voice, " John killed a snake ; " Passive Voice. " A Snake was killed by John."

MODE.

Mode is a term used to denote the *manner* in which the verb is employed.

Verbs have five modes ; the *Infinitive*, the *Indicative*, the *Potential*, the *Imperative*, and the *Subjunctive*.

The **Infinitive Mode** is that form of the verb which is *not limited to any particular person or number* ; as, to rest ; to learn.

The **Indicative Mode** is that form of the verb which expresses *direct assertion or interrogation* ; as, he teaches ; do they teach ?

The **Potential Mode** is that form of the verb which expresses assertions implying *possibility, liberty, or necessity* ; as, " I can write." —" He may go." —" They must study."

The **Imperative Mode** is that form of the verb which is used to express *entreaty, permis-*

sion; command, or exhortation ; as, “ Depart thou.”—“ Let us stay.”—“ Obey me.”

The **Subjunctive Mode** is that form of the verb which implies *condition, supposition, or uncertainty* ; as, “ If he come, he will be received.”—“ O that I *were* happy ! ”

The form of the *Infinitive* is usually denoted by the particle *to*, which is to be regarded as a part of the verb.

The *Potential Mode* is known by the signs *may, can, must, might, could, would, and should*.

The *Subjunctive Mode* is always connected with an other verb. It is commonly denoted by a conjunction ; as, *if, lest, though, that, unless*.

EXERCISE I.—Name each *verb* in the following sentences, the *class* to which it belongs, its *voice* and *mode*, and give the reasons :—

MODEL.—“ Cartier discovered Canada.”

Discovered is a verb, because, etc. ; it is transitive, because it has an object (*Canada*) ;—in the active voice, because it shows that the subj. (*Cartier*) does the action asserted by the verb ;—in the indicative mode, because it expresses a direct assertion.

1. Evil may befall us. 2. The bank has failed. 3. If he were studious he would excel. 4. He arose to speak. 5. Do come to see us. 6. The deer, having seen me, tried to escape. 7. I would go with you, if I could spare the time. 8. Employ time profitably. 9. They went to travel in foreign lands. 10. If he be respected, he will be contented. 11. A quiet tongue prevents strife. 12. We should speak kindly to our friends of their faults.

EXERCISE II.—Write sentences each containing verbs in the various modes.

TENSE.

Tense is the distinction of time.

Verbs have six tenses ; the *Present*, the *Im-*

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perfect, the *Perfect*, the *Pluperfect*, the *First Future*, and the *Second Future*.

The **Present Tense** denotes what now *exists*, or is *taking* place ; as, *I speak* ; *I am speaking*.

The **Imperfect Tense** denotes what *took* place, or *was occurring*, in time fully past ; as, “*I spoke* to him yesterday.” — “*I was writing* a letter.”

The **Perfect Tense** denotes what *has taken* place, within some period of time not yet fully past ; as, “*I have met* him to-day.”

The **Pluperfect Tense** denotes what *has taken* place, at some past time mentioned ; as, “When he *had delivered* the message, he took his departure.”

The **First Future Tense** denotes what *will take* place hereafter ; as, “*I shall write* to him again.”

The **Second Future Tense** denotes what *will have taken* place, at some future time mentioned ; as, “*I shall have finished* the letter before he arrives.”

EXERCISE I.—Name the *verbs* in the following sentences, state the *class* to which each belongs, its *voice*, *mode*, and *tense*, and give the reasons :—

MODEL.—“The snow will melt.”

Will melt is a verb, because, etc. ; it is intransitive, because it has no object ; it has no voice, because it is an intransitive verb ; it is in the indicative mode, because, etc. ;— in the first future tense, because it denotes what will take place hereafter.

1. I shall have finished the letter before he arrives. 2. I had seen him when I met you. 3. I saw him yesterday : he was walking out.

36 CLASSES OF VERBS ACCORD. 'TO FORMATION.

4. Long icicles glistened in the sunlight. 5. Trials will come to us all. 6. I hear a noise ; somebody is coming. 7. Woes cluster ; they love a train. 8. His request has been granted. 9. Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves. 10. A cry was heard. 11. He who will make no effort to gain friends, can not expect sympathy. 12. They had been reprov'd often, before they ceased to annoy.

EXERCISE II.—Write sentences containing verbs in the various tenses.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

Verbs have two numbers and three persons.

The person and number of a verb are always the same as the person and number of its subject or nominative.

Singular.

Plural.

1st per. I love,	1st per. We love,
2nd " thou lovest,	2nd " you love,
3rd " he loves ;	3rd " they love.

A verb in the infinitive mode has no number or person, because it has no subject.

Some verbs can be used only in one person ; as, " It rains." They are called *Unipersonal Verbs*.

CLASSES OF VERBS ACCORDING TO FORMATION.

Verbs are divided, according to their formation, into two classes ; *Regular* and *Irregular*.

A **Regular Verb** is one that forms its past tense and perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present ; as, present, *love* ; past, *loved* ; perf. part., *loved*.

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" Beseech

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" Bind,

" Bite,

" Bleed,

" Blow,

" Break,

" Breed,

" Bring,

" Burst,

" Buy,

" Cast,

" Catch,

" Choose

" Cleave

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Regular verbs ending in silent *e*, form their past tense and perfect participle, by the addition of *d* only; and those ending in any other letter, by the addition of *ed*.

An **Irregular Verb** is one that does not form its past tense and perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present; as, present, *break*; past, *broke*; perf. part., *broken*.

Present.	In French.	Past.	Perf. part.
To Abide,	<i>demeurer.</i>	abode,	abode.
" Arise,	<i>se lever.</i>	arose,	arisen.
" Awake,	<i>éveiller, s'éveiller.</i>	awoke*, (1) awoke *	
" Bear (to carry),	<i>porter, supporter.</i>	bore,	borne.
" Bear (to bring forth),	<i>porter, produire.</i>	bore, bare, born.	
" Beat,	<i>battre.</i>	beat.	beat, beaten.
" Become,	<i>devenir.</i>	became,	become.
" Begin,	<i>commencer.</i>	began,	begun.
" Bend,	<i>plier, courber.</i>	bent,*	bent.*
" Beseech,	<i>supplier.</i>	besought,	besought.
" Bid,	<i>commander.</i>	bid, bade,	bid, bidden.
" Bind,	<i>lier, relier.</i>	bound,	bound.
" Bite,	<i>mordre.</i>	bit,	bitten, bit.
" Bleed,	<i>saigner.</i>	bled,	bled.
" Blow,	<i>souffler.</i>	blew,	blown.
" Break,	<i>casser, rompre.</i>	broke,	broken.
" Breed,	<i>engendrer, élever.</i>	bred,	bred.
" Bring,	<i>apporter, amener.</i>	brought,	brought
" Burst,	<i>crever.</i>	burst,	burst.
" Buy,	<i>acheter.</i>	bought,	bought.
" Cast,	<i>jeter.</i>	cast,	cast.
" Catch,	<i>attraper.</i>	caught,*	caught.*
" Choose,	<i>choisir.</i>	chose,	chosen.
" Cleave (to split),	<i>fendre.</i>	clove, cleft, cloven, cleft.	

(1) Those which are marked thus * take also the regular form.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>In French.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>
To Cling,	<i>s'attacher.</i>	clung	clung.
" Clothe,	<i>habiller.</i>	clad,*	clad.*
" Come,	<i>venir.</i>	came,	come.
" Cost,	<i>coûter.</i>	cost,	cost.
" Creep,	<i>ramper, se glisser.</i>	crept,	crept.
" Cut,	<i>couper.</i>	cut,	cut.
" Dare (to } venture.) }	<i>oser.</i>	durst,*	dared.
" Deal,	<i>trafiquer.</i>	dealt,*	dealt.*
" Dig,	<i>bécher.</i>	dug,*	dug.*
" Do,	<i>faire, agir.</i>	did,	done.
" Draw,	<i>tirer, dessiner.</i>	drew,	drawn.
" Dream,	<i>rêver, songer.</i>	dreamt.*	dreamt.
" Drink,	<i>boire.</i>	drank,	drunk.
" Drive,	<i>{ chasser devant soi, conduire une voiture. }</i>	drove,	driven.
" Dwell	<i>habiter, demeurer.</i>	dwelt,*	dwelt.*
" Eat,	<i>manger.</i>	eat or ate,	eat or eaten.
" Fall,	<i>tomber.</i>	fell,	fallen.
" Feed,	<i>nourrir.</i>	fed,	fed.
" Feel,	<i>sentir, tâter.</i>	felt,	felt,
" Fight.	<i>se battre.</i>	fought,	fought.
" Find,	<i>trouver.</i>	found,	found.
" Flee,	<i>{ se sauver, s'en- fuir. }</i>	fled,	fled.
" Fling,	<i>jeter.</i>	flung,	flung.
" Fly,	<i>voler en l'air.</i>	flew,	flown.
" Forget,	<i>oublier.</i>	forgot,	forgotten.
" Forgive,	<i>pardonner.</i>	forgave,	forgiven.
" Forsake,	<i>abandonner.</i>	forsook,	forsaken.
" Freeze,	<i>geler.</i>	froze,	frozen.
" Get,	<i>gagner, obtenir.</i>	got,	got, gotten.
" Give,	<i>donner.</i>	gave,	given

P.
To Go,
" Grind
" Grow
" Hang,
" Have,
" Hear,
" Hide,
" Hit,
" Hold,
" Hurt,
" Keep,
" Kneel,
" Knit,
" Know,
" Lay,
" Lead,
" Leave,
" Lend,
" Let,
" Lie (to
" Lose,
" Make,
" Mean,
" Meet,
" Mow,
" Pay,
" Put,
" Read,
" Rend,
" Ride,
" Ring,
" Rise,

<i>f. part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>In French.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>
To Go,	<i>aller.</i>		went,	gone.
" Grind,	<i>moudre.</i>		ground,	ground.
" Grow,	<i>croître, devenir.</i>		grew,	grown.
" Hang,	<i>pendre.</i>		hung.*	hung,*
" Have,	<i>avoir.</i>		had,	had.
" Hear,	<i>{ entendre (par) l'ouïe. }</i>		heard,	heard.
" Hide,	<i>cacher.</i>		hid,	hid, hidden.
" Hit,	<i>frapper.</i>		hit,	hit.
" Hold,	<i>tenir.</i>		held,	held.
" Hurt,	<i>faire mal à..</i>		hurt,	hurt.
" Keep,	<i>garder.</i>		kept,	kept.
" Kneel,	<i>s'agenouiller.</i>		knelt,*	knelt.*
" Knit,	<i>tricoter.</i>		knit,*	knit.*
" Know,	<i>savoir, connaître.</i>		knew,	known.
" Lay,	<i>poser, placer.</i>		laid,	laid.
" Lead,	<i>mener, conduire.</i>		led,	led.
" Leave,	<i>laisser.</i>		left,	left.
" Lend,	<i>prêter.</i>		lent,	lent.
" Let,	<i>{ laisser, donner en louage. }</i>		let,	lent.
" Lie (to recline,)	<i>reposer.</i>		lay,	lain.
" Lose,	<i>perdre.</i>		lost,	lost.
" Make,	<i>faire, fabriquer.</i>		made,	made.
" Mean,	<i>vouloir dire.</i>		meant,	meant.
" Meet,	<i>rencontrer.</i>		met,	met.
" Mow,	<i>faucher.</i>		mowed,	mown.*
" Pay,	<i>payer.</i>		paid,	paid.
" Put,	<i>mettre.</i>		put,	put.
" Read,	<i>lire.</i>		read,	read.
" Rend,	<i>déchirer.</i>		rent,	rent.
" Ride,	<i>monter à cheval.</i>		rode,	ridden.
" Ring,	<i>sonner.</i>		rang,	rung.
" Rise,	<i>se lever.</i>		rose,	risen.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>In French.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>
To Run,	<i>courir.</i>	ran, run,	run.
" Say,	<i>dire.</i>	said,	said.
" See,	<i>voir.</i>	saw,	seen.
" Seek,	<i>chercher.</i>	sought,	sought.
" Sell,	<i>vendre.</i>	sold,	sold.
" Send,	<i>envoyer.</i>	sent,	sent.
" Set,	<i>placer, poser.</i>	set,	set.
" Shake,	<i>secouer.</i>	shook,	shaken.
" Shed,	<i>répandre.</i>	shed,	shed.
" Shine,	<i>luire, briller.</i>	shone,*	shown.*
" Shoe,	<i>chausser, ferrer.</i>	shod,	shod.
" Shoot,	<i>{ tirer avec une } { arme. }</i>	shot,	shot.
" Show,	<i>montrer.</i>	showed,	shown.*
" Shrink,	<i>se rétrécir.</i>	shrunk,	shrank.
" Shut,	<i>fermer.</i>	shut,	shut.
" Sing,	<i>chanter.</i>	sung, sang,	sung.
" Sink,	<i>s'enfoncer.</i>	sunk, sank,	sunk.
" Sit,	<i>s'asseoir.</i>	sat,	sat.
" Slay,	<i>tuer.</i>	slew,	slain.
" Sleep,	<i>dormir.</i>	slept,	slept.
" Slide,	<i>glisser.</i>	slid,	slid, slidden
" Sling,	<i>fronder.</i>	slung,	slung.
" Smite,	<i>frapper.</i>	smote,	smitten.
" Sow,	<i>semer.</i>	sowed,	sown.*
" Speak,	<i>parler.</i>	spoke,	spoken.
" Spell,	<i>épeler.</i>	spelt,*	spelt.*
" Spend,	<i>dépenser.</i>	spent,	spent.
" Spill,	<i>répandre, verser.</i>	spilt,	spilt.*
" Spin,	<i>filer.</i>	spun,	spun.
" Split,	<i>fendre.</i>	split,	split.
" Spread,	<i>étendre, répandre.</i>	spread,	spread.
" Spring,	<i>s'élancer, jaillir.</i>	sprung, { sprang. }	sprung.

<i>Perf. part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>In French.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>
" Stand,	<i>{ se tenir de- bout, s'arrêter. }</i>	stood,	stood.	
" Steal,	<i>voler, dérober.</i>	stole,	stolen.	
" Stick,	<i>{ coller, affi- cher, percer, s'attacher. }</i>	stuck,	stuck.	
" Sting,	<i>piquer.</i>	stung,	stung.	
" Strike,	<i>frapper.</i>	struck,	struck.*	
" String,	<i>enfiler.</i>	strung,	strung.	
" Strive,	<i>s'efforcer, tâcher.</i>	strove,	striven.	
" Swear,	<i>jurer.</i>	swore,	sworn.	
" Sweep,	<i>balayer.</i>	swept,	swept.	
" Swell,	<i>enfler.</i>	swelled,	swollen.*	
" Swim,	<i>nager.</i>	<i>{ swam, } { swum, }</i>	swum.	
" Swing,	<i>se balancer.</i>	swung,	swung.	
" Take,	<i>prendre.</i>	took,	taken.	
" Teach,	<i>enseigner.</i>	taught,	taught.	
" Tear,	<i>déchirer.</i>	tore,	torn.	
" Tell,	<i>dire, raconter.</i>	told,	told.	
" Think,	<i>penser.</i>	thought,	thought.	
" Thrive,	<i>prosperer.</i>	thrived,	thriven.*	
" Throw,	<i>jeter.</i>	threw,	thrown.	
" Thrust,	<i>{ pousser, faire } { entrer. }</i>	thrust,	thrust.	
" Tread,	<i>{ marcher, fou- } { ler aux pieds. }</i>	trod,	<i>{ trod, trodden. }</i>	
" Wear,	<i>{ porter des vé- } { tements, user. }</i>	wore,	worn.	
" Weave,	<i>tisser.</i>	wove,	<i>{ woven, wove. }</i>	
" Weep,	<i>pleurer.</i>	wept,	wept.	
" Win,	<i>gagner, emporter.</i>	won,	won.	
" Wind,	<i>{ tourner, filer, } { devider. }</i>	wound,	wound.	

<i>Present.</i>	<i>In French.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>
" Work,	<i>travailler.</i>	wrought,*	wrought.*
" Wring,	<i>tordre.</i>	wrung,	wrung.
" Write,	<i>écrire.</i>	wrote,	written.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

An **Auxiliary Verb** is one that is used to aid in the conjugation of other verbs.

The auxiliary verbs are *be, do, have, will, can, may, shall, must, and need.*

THE USES OF AUXILIARY VERBS.

Be, do, have, need, and will, are also complete, or principal verbs; they are auxiliary, when used with a participle or with any other part of a principal verb.

Can, may, must, and shall, are auxiliary verbs only.

Be, and its variations (*am, art, is, are, was, wast, were, wert, been, being*), when used with the perfect participle of a principal verb, form the passive voice of that verb; as, "I *am loved.*"—"If I *be loved.*"—When used with the imperfect participle of a principal verb, they form what is called the *Progressive Form* of that verb; as, "Thou *art eating.*"

Do, in the active voice, makes what is called the *Emphatic Form* of the present tense in the indicative mode, in the subjunctive, and in the imperative; as, "They *do wish* to walk."—In the passive voice, the emphatic form is used in the imperative mode only; as, "*Do thou be loved.*"

Did, the past form of *do,* in the active voice, makes the emphatic form of the imperfect tense in the indicative mode and in the subjunctive; as, "We know that he *did expect* to go."—*Did* is not used in the passive voice.

Have helps to form the perfect tense; and its past, *had*, the pluperfect; as, “*I have studied.*”—“*We had spoken.*”

Will and *shall* help to form the first future tense; and *will have* and *shall have*, to form the second future tense; as, “*I shall or will write*; thou *shalt or wilt write.*”—“*He shall have written.*”

Can, *may*, *must*, and *need*, help to form the present tense of the potential mode; as, “*I can, may, must, or need write.*” *Can have*, *may have*, *must have*, and *need have*, help to form the perfect tense of the potential mode; as, “*Thou mayst have been there.*”

Might, *could*, *would*, and *should*, (the past of *may*, *can*, *will*, and *shall*,) help to form the imperfect tense of the potential; as, “*He might go.*”

Might have, *could have*, *would have*, and *should have*, help to form the pluperfect of the potential; as, “*I could have told.*”

CONJUGATION.

The **Conjugation** of a verb is the regular arrangement of its several *voices*, *modes*, *tenses*, *persons*, and *numbers*.

CONJUGATION OF THE INTRANSITIVE VERB.

TO BE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Imperfect Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Am.	Was.	Being.	Been.

INFINITIVE MODE.

<i>Present Tense.</i> —To be.	<i>In French,</i> —Etre.
<i>Perfect Tense.</i> —To have been.	“ “ Avoir été.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	1. I am,	Je suis,
	2. Thou art,	Tu es,
	3. He is ;	Il est ;
Plural.	1. We are,	Nous sommes,
	2. You are,	Vous êtes,
	3. They are.	Ils sont.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I was,	J'étais or je fus,
	2. Thou wast,	Tu étais or tu fus,
	3. He was ;	Il était or il fut ;
Plural.	1. We were,	Nous étions or nous fûmes,
	2. You were,	Vous étiez or vous fûtes
	3. They were.	Ils étaient or ils furent.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I have been,	J'ai été,
	2. Thou hast been,	Tu as été
	3. He has been ;	Il a été ;
Plural.	1. We have been,	Nous avons été,
	2. You have been,	Vous avez été,
	3. They have been.	Ils ont été.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I had been,	J'avais or j'eus été,
	2. Thou hadst been,	Tu avais or tu eus été,
	3. He had been ;	Il avait or il eut été,
Plural.	1. We had been,	Nous avions or nous eûmes été,
	2. You had been,	Vous aviez or vous eûtes été,
	3. They had been.	Ils avaient or ils eurent été.

First Future Tense.

Singular.	1. I shall (1) be,	Je serai,
	2. Thou shalt be,	Tu seras,
	3. He shall be ;	Il sera ;

(1) See *will* and *shall*, page 43.

Plural.	1. We shall be,	Nous serons,
	2. You shall be,	Vous serez,
	3. They shall be.	Ils seront.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	1. I shall have been,	J'aurai été,
	2. Thou shalt have been,	Tu auras été,
	3. He shall have been ;	Il aura été ;
Plural.	1. We shall have been,	Nous aurons été.
	2. You shall have been,	Vous aurez été,
	3. They shall have been.	Ils auront été.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	1. I may (1) be,	Je peux <i>or</i> je pourrai être,
	2. Thou mayst be,	Tu peux <i>or</i> tu pourras être,
	3. He may be ;	Il peut <i>or</i> il pourra être ;
Plural.	1. We may be,	Nous pouvons <i>or</i> nous pourrions être,
	2. You may be,	Vous pouvez <i>or</i> vous pourrez être,
	3. They may be.	Ils peuvent <i>or</i> ils pourront être.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I might (2) be,	Je pouvais <i>or</i> je pourrais être,
	2. Thou mightst be,	Tu pouvais <i>or</i> tu pourrais être,
	3. He might be ;	Il pouvait <i>or</i> il pourrait être :
Plural.	1. We might be,	Nous pouvions, etc., être,
	2. You might be,	Vous pouviez, etc., être,
	3. They might be.	Ils pouvaient, etc., être.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I may have been,	Je peux, etc., avoir été,
	2. Thou mayst have been,	Tu peux, etc., avoir été,
	3. He may have been ;	Il peut, etc., avoir été ;

(1) See *can*, *may*, etc., page 43.—(2) See *might*, *could*, etc., page 43.

- Plural. { 1. We may have been, Nous pouvons, etc., avoir été,
2. You may have been, Vous pouvez, etc., avoir été,
3. They may have been. Ils peuvent, etc., avoir été.

Pluperfect Tense.

- Singular. { 1. I might have been, Je pouvais, etc., avoir été,
2. Thou mightst have been, Tu pouvais, etc., avoir été,
3. He might have been; Il pouvait, etc., avoir été;
Plural. { 1. We might have been, Nous pouvions, etc., avoir été,
2. You might have been, Vous pouviez, etc., avoir été,
3. They might have been. Ils pouvaient, etc., avoir été.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

- Singular. { 1. If, though, etc., I be, Si, quoique, etc., je sois,
2. If thou be. Si tu sois,
3. If he be; Si il soit;
Plural. { 1. If we be, Si nous soyons,
2. If you be, Si vous soyez,
3. If they be. Si ils soient.

Imperfect Tense.

- Singular. { 1. If I were, Si je fusse,
2. If thou wert, Si tu fusses,
3. If he were; S'il fût,
Plural. { 1. If we were, Si nous fussions,
2. If you were, Si vous fussiez,
3. If they were. S'ils fussent.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

- Singular. 2. { Be, or be thou, } Sois, sois-tu.
{ Do be, or do you be. }
Plural. 2. { Be, or be you. } Soyez, soyez-vous.
{ Do be, or do thou be. }

EXERCISE
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Present
Love.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Preperfect.</i>
Being.	Been.	Having been.

EXERCISE I.—Mention the *mode* the *tense*, the *person*, and the *number* of each part of the verb "to be", in the following expressions:—

To have been. If he were. They might have been. We had been. Be. If I were. Do you be. The men have been. If he be. You shall have been. We were. Thou hast been. I may be. They will or shall have been. He will be. Thou art. We might be. If thou be. To be. She will have been. She may have been.

EXERCISE II.—Name the first persons singular, and the first persons plural, of the indicative mode;—of the potential mode;—of the subjunctive mode.

The second persons singular, and the second persons plural, of the imperative mode;—of the potential;—of the indicative;—of the subjunctive.

The third persons singular, and the third persons plural, of the indicative;—of the imperative;—of the subjunctive;—of the potential.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

TO LOVE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Imperfect Participle.</i>	<i>Perf. Participle.</i>
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

To love.	<i>French,—</i>	Aimer.
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*Perfect Tense.*To have loved. *French*,—Avoir aimé.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular. { 1. I love,
2. Thou lovest,
3. He loves ;

J'aime,
Tu aimes,
Il aime ;

Plural. { 1. We love,
2. You love,
3. They love.

Nous aimons,
Vous aimez,
Ils aiment.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular. { 1. I loved,
2. Thou lovedst,
3. He loved ;

J'aimais or j'aimai,
Tu aimais or tu aimas,
Il aimait or il aima,

Plural. { 1. We loved,
2. You loved,
3. They loved.

Nous aimions or nous aimâmes,
Vous aimiez or vous aimâtes.
Ils aimaient or ils aimèrent.

Perfect Tense.

Singular. { 1. I have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,
3. He has loved ;

J'ai aimé,
Tu as aimé,
Il a aimé ;

Plural. { 1. We have loved.
2. You have loved,
3. They have loved

Nous avons aimé,
Vous avez aimé,
Ils ont aimé.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular. { 1. I had loved,
2. Thou hast loved,
3. He had loved ;

J'avais or j'eus aimé,
Tu avais or tu eus aimé,
Il avait or il eut aimé ;

Plural. { 1. We had loved,
2. You had loved,
3. They had loved.

Nous avions or nous eûmes aimé,
Vous aviez or vous eûtes aimé,
Ils avaient or ils eurent aimé.

First Future Tense.

Singular.	1. I shall love,	J'aimerai,
	2. Thou shalt love,	Tu aimeras,
	3. He shall love ;	Il aimera ;
Plural.	1. We shall love,	Nous aimerons,
	2. You shall love,	Vous aimerez,
	3. They shall love.	Ils aimeront.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	1. I shall have loved,	J'aurai aimé,
	2. Thou shalt have loved,	Tu auras aimé,
	3. He shall have loved ;	Il aura aimé ;
Plural.	1. We shall have loved,	Nous aurons aimé,
	2. You shall have loved,	Vous aurez aimé,
	3. They shall have loved.	Ils auront aimé.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	1. I may love,	Je peux or je pourrais aimer,
	2. Thou mayst love,	Tu peux, etc., aimer,
	3. He may love ;	Il peut, etc., aimer ;
Plural.	1. We may love,	Nous pouvons, etc., aimer,
	2. You may love,	Vous pouvez, etc., aimer,
	3. They may love.	Ils peuvent, etc., aimer.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I might love,	Je pouvais or je pourrais aimer,
	2. Thou mightst love,	Tu pouvais, etc., aimer,
	3. He might love ;	Il pouvait, etc., aimer ;
Plural.	1. We might love,	Nous pouvions, etc., aimer,
	2. You might love,	Vous pouviez, etc., aimer,
	3. They might love.	Ils pouvaient, etc., aimer.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I may have loved,	Je peux, etc., avoir aimé,
	2. Thou mayst have loved,	Tu peux, etc., avoir aimé,
	3. He may have loved ;	Il peut, etc., avoir aimé,
Plural.	1. We may have loved,	Nous pouvons, etc.
	2. You may have loved,	Vous pouvez, etc.
	3. They may have loved.	Ils peuvent, etc.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I might have loved,	Je pouvais, etc., avoir aimé,
	2. Thou mightst have loved,	Tu pouvais, etc.
	3. He might have loved ;	Il pouvait, etc.
Plural.	1. We might have loved,	Nous pouvions, etc.
	2. You might have loved,	Vous pouviez, etc.
	3. They might have loved.	Ils pourraient, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	1. If I love,	Si j'aime,
	2. If thou love,	Si tu aimes,
	3. If he love ;	S'il aime ;
Plural.	1. If we love,	Si nous aimions,
	2. If you love,	Si vous aimiez,
	3. If they love.	S'ils aiment.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	1. If I loved,	Si j'aimasse,
	2. If thou loved,	Si tu aimasses,
	3. If he loved ;	S'il aimât ;
Plural.	1. If we loved,	Si nous aimassions,
	2. If you loved,	Si vous aimassiez,
	3. If they loved.	S'ils aimassent.

Singular

Plural.

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IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. { Love, or love thou,
 { Do love, or do thou love. } Aime, aimes-tu.

Plural. 2. { Love, or love you,
 { Do love, or do you love. } Aimez, aimez-vous.

PARTICIPLES.

*Imperfect.**Perfect.**Preperfect.*

Loving.

Loved.

Having loved.

EXERCISE I.—Conjugate the verbs *to reward, to learn, to rule, to hide, to listen, to obey, to fear, to leave, to begin, to take, to write, to teach, and to sell*, in the active voice in the same manner as the verb *to love* is conjugated.

EXERCISE II.—Mention the *mode, the tense, the person, and the number*, of each verb in the following expressions:—

You might have lost. They had spoken. Awake. We may walk. He shall or will have drunk. If thou broke. If they did bleed. Thou wilt cease. Do thou drive. To have striven. If she sing. I had eaten. They might, could, would, or should have forsaken. You must stay. We could have. He will or shall have kept. They may have succeeded. Thou hadst gained. She should read. They sought. You paint. Thou mayst have slept.

PASSIVE VOICE.

The **Passive Voice** of a verb is formed by combining with its perfect participle the variations of the auxiliary verb *to be*.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

To be loved,

French,—Etre aimé.

*Perfect Tense.*To have been loved. *French,— Avoir été aimé.*

INDICATIVE MOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	{ 1. I am loved,	Je suis aimé,
	{ 2. Thou art loved,	Tu es aimé,
	{ 3. He is loved ;	Il est aimé ;
Plural.	{ 1. We are loved,	Nous sommes aimés,
	{ 2. You are loved,	Vous êtes aimés,
	{ 3. They are loved.	Ils sont aimés.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	{ 1. I was loved,	J'étais or je fus aimé,
	{ 2. Thou wast loved,	Tu étais, etc., aimé,
	{ 3. He was loved ;	Il était, etc., aimé ;
Plural.	{ 1. We were loved.	Nous étions, etc., aimés,
	{ 2. You were loved,	Vous étiez, etc., aimés,
	{ 3. They were loved.	Ils étaient, etc., aimés.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	{ 1. I have been loved,	J'ai été aimé.
	{ 2. Thou hast been loved,	Tu as été aimé,
	{ 3. He has been loved ;	Il a été aimé ;
Plural.	{ 1. We have been loved,	Nous avons été aimés,
	{ 2. You have been loved,	Vous avez été aimés,
	{ 3. They have been loved.	Ils ont été aimés.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	{ 1. I had been loved,	J'avais or j'eus été aimé,
	{ 2. Thou hadst been loved,	Tu avais, etc., été aimé,
	{ 3. He had been loved ;	Il avait, etc., été aimé ;
Plural.	{ 1. We had been loved,	Nous avions, etc., été aimés,
	{ 2. You had been loved,	Vous aviez, etc., été aimés,
	{ 3. They had been loved.	Ils avaient, etc., été aimés.

First Future Tense.

Singular.	1. I shall be loved,	Je serai aimé,
	2. Thou shalt be loved,	Tu seras aimé,
	3. He shall be loved ;	Il sera aimé ;
Plural.	1. We shall be loved,	Nous serons aimés,
	2. You shall be loved,	Vous serez aimés,
	3. They shall be loved.	Ils seront aimés.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	1. I shall have been loved,	J'aurai été aimé,
	2. Thou shalt have been loved,	Tu auras, etc.
	3. He shall have been loved ;	Il aura, etc.
Plural.	1. We shall have been loved,	Nous aurons, etc.
	2. You shall have been loved,	Vous aurez, etc.
	3. They shall have been loved.	Ils auront etc.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	1. I may be loved,	Je peux être aimé,
	2. Thou mayst be loved,	Tu peux être aimé,
	3. He may be loved ;	Il peut être aimé ;
Plural.	1. We may be loved,	Nous pouvons être aimés,
	2. You may be loved,	Vous pouvez être aimés,
	3. They may be loved.	Ils peuvent être aimés.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I might be loved,	Je pouvais être aimé,
	2. Thou mightst be loved,	Tu pouvais être aimé,
	3. He might be loved ;	Il pouvait être aimé ;
Plural.	1. We might be loved,	Nous pouvions être aimés,
	2. You might be loved,	Vous pouviez être aimés.
	3. They might be loved.	Ils pouvaient être aimés.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I may have been loved,	Je peux avoir été aimé,
	2. Thou mayst have been loved,	Tu peux, etc.
	3. He may have been loved ;	Il peut, etc.

54 CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO LOVE."

Plural.	1. We may have been loved,	Nous pouvons, etc.
	2. You may have been loved,	Vous pouvez, etc.
	3. They may have been loved.	Ils peuvent, etc.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.	1. I might have been loved,	Je pouvais avoir été aimé,
	2. Thou mightst have been loved,	Tu pouvais, etc.
	3. He might have been loved ;	Il pouvait, etc.
Plural.	1. We might have been loved,	Nous pouvions, etc.
	2. You might have been loved	Vous pouviez, etc.
	3. They might have been loved.	Ils pouvaient, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	1. If I be loved,	Si je sois aimé,
	2. If thou be loved,	Si tu sois aimé,
	3. If he be loved ;	S'il soit aimé ;
Plural.	1. If we be loved,	Si nous soyons aimés,
	2. If you be loved,	Si vous soyez aimés.
	3. If they be loved.	S'ils soient aimés.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	1. If I were loved,	Si je fusse aimé
	2. If thou were loved,	Si tu fusses aimé,
	3. If he were loved ;	S'il fût aimé ;
Plural.	1. If we were loved,	Si nous fussions aimés,
	2. If you were loved,	Si vous fussiez aimés,
	3. If they were loved.	S'ils fussent aimés.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	2. { Be loved, be thou loved, }	{ Sois aimé, sois-tu }
	{ or do thou be loved. }	{ aimé. }
Plural.	2. { Be loved, be you loved, }	{ Soyez aimés, soyez }
	{ or do you be loved. }	{ vous aimés. }

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PARTICIPLES.

<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Preperfect.</i>
Being loved.	Loved.	Having been loved.

THE INTERROGATIVE FORM.

The **Interrogative Form** of a verb is that which is used *to ask a question*; as, "*Can they hear?*"—" *Shall he be pleased?*"

The interrogative form is used only in the indicative and potential modes.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively*, by placing the subject immediately after the verb, between the auxiliary and the verb, or after the first auxiliary when two or more auxiliaries are used; as,—

Ind. Do I love? Did I love? Have I loved? Had I loved? Shall I love? Shall I have loved?—*Pot.* May, can, or must I love? Might, could, would, or should I love? May, can, or must I have loved? Might, could, would, or should I have loved?

THE NEGATIVE FORM.

The **Negative Form** of a verb is that which is used to express *negation* or *denial*; as, "*He does not hear.*"

A verb is conjugated *negatively*, by placing the adverb *not* immediately after it, or after the first auxiliary; but the infinitive and the participles take the negative first; as,—

Inf. Not to love, not to have loved.—*Ind.* I love not, or I do not love, I loved not, or I did not love, I have not loved, I had not loved, I shall not love; I shall not have

56 NEGATIVE-INTERROGATIVE FORM—EXERCISES.

loved.—*Pot.* I may, can, or must not love ; I might, could, would, or should not love ; I may, can, or must not have loved. I Might, could, would, or should not have loved.—*Subj.* If I love not, If I loved not.—*Part.* Not loving, Not loved, not having loved.

THE NEGATIVE-INTERROGATIVE FORM.

The Negative-Interrogative Form of a verb is that which is used to ask a question with negation ; as, “*Shall they not be taught ?*”

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively* and *negatively*, in the indicative and potential modes, by placing the nominative and the adverb *not* after the verb, or after the first auxiliary ; as,—

Ind. Do I not love ? Did I not love ? Have I not loved ? Had I not loved ? Shall I not love ? Shall I not have loved ?—*Pot.* May, can, or must I not love ? Might, could, would, or should I not love ? May, can, or must I not have loved ? Might, could, would, or should I not have loved ?

EXERCISE I.—Conjugate the verbs *to take, to rule, to catch, to teach, to draw, and to hold*, in the passive voice ;—in the interrogative form, active and passive voices ;—in the negative form, active and passive voices ;—in the negative-interrogative form, active and passive voices.

EXERCISE II.—Mention the *voice*, the *mode*, the *tense*, the *person*, and the *number*, of each verb in the following expressions :—

They are pleased. He was taught. We may not be heard. Do thou be thrown. Thou art admired. Might I not know ? If they were torn. Do not disobey. They might have been struck. You may be injured. When will it be done ? We shall have been sought. He shall be shot. Shall they not be taught ? I have been sent. Be thou put. Having written a letter, he mailed it. You could be lost. If he be found. We might not have been seen. To be clad. I may have been harmed. Has he been punished ?

EXERCISE
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EXERCISE III.—Parse the *verbs* in the following sentences :—
MODELS.—I. “ Success will attend his efforts, if he continue atten-
tive ”.

Will attend is a verb, because, etc.; it is transitive, because it has
an object (*efforts*) ;—regular, because, etc.;—in the active voice,
because, etc.;—in the indicative mode, because, etc.;—in the first
future tense, because, etc.;—of the third person, singular number,
because, etc.

Continue is a verb, because, etc.;—it is intransitive, because,
etc.;—regular, because, etc.;—it has no voice, because, etc.; in the
subjunctive mode, etc.;—present tense, because, etc.;—of the third
person, singular number, because, etc.

2. “ A large tree, which stood in the field, had been struck by
lightning.”

Stood is a verb, because, etc.; it is intrans., because, etc.;—irreg-
ular, because, etc.;—it has no voice, because, etc.;—in the indica-
tive mode, because, etc.;—in the imperfect tense, because, etc.;—
of the third person, singular number, because, etc.

Had been struck is a verb, because, etc.; it is a transitive verb,
because, etc.;—irregular, because, etc.;—in the passive voice, be-
cause, etc.;—in the indicative mode, because, etc.;—in the pluperfect
tense, because, etc.;—of the 3rd person, singular number, because,
etc.

1. Every fruit contains an acid. 2. Virtue will procure esteem.
3. The bird has built her nest in the old tree. 4. The sun ripens
the grains. 5. If you know the reason, mention it. 6. The sultry
heat of summer had passed away. 7. The unusual appearance
caused much alarm. 8. A little stone can make a great bruise. 9.
When we shall have passed through difficulties, we will be prepared
for the pleasures which follow. 10. Quebec was founded in 1608.
11. He who is ignorant of happiness may possess wealth, but he
cannot truly enjoy it. 12. Be honest, and you will be above suspi-
cion. 13. If thou be firm in the right, then shalt thou be indeed
firm. 14. Unless we rule ourselves, we will be ruled by others. 15.
He possessed talents by which he might have been placed among the
first men of his age.

16. He who fears God, does not fear man. 17. Can any business
be conducted successfully, if punctuality be habitually disregarded ?

18. Often did I strive for the mastery over my feelings, but as often did I fail. 19. The loss might have been prevented, if ordinary care had been taken. 20. Delay not until to-morrow the duties which you can perform to-day. 21. If Louis study diligently, he will improve. 22. You might have seen with what cruelty vengeance inflicts torments. 23. Read good books, seek good companions, attend to good counsels, and imitate good examples. 24. If we cannot command our thoughts, we must not hope to control our actions.

EXERCISE IV.—Parse the articles, the nouns, the adjectives, and the pronouns, in the preceding sentences.

PARTICIPLES.

The **Participle** is a word derived from a verb, partaking of the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; it is generally formed by adding, *ing*, *d*, or *ed*, to the verb: thus, from the verb *love*, are formed three participles, two simple and one compound; as, 1. *loving*, 2. *loved*, 3. *having loved*.

There are three participles; the *Imperfect*, the *Perfect*, and the *Preperfect*.

The **Imperfect Participle** represents an action, a being, or a state, as *continuing*, or as *unfinished*; as, "The waves were heard *breaking* on the beach."

The imperfect participle, when simple, is always formed by adding *ing* to the radical verb; as, *tell*, *telling*: when compound, it is formed by prefixing *being* to some other simple participle; as, *being speaking*, *being spoken*.

The **Perfect Participle** represents an action a being, or a state, as *complete* or *finished*; as,

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"Henry came, *accompanied* by Joseph."—
 "The army retired, *defeated* on all sides."

The perfect participle is always simple, and ends commonly by *ed* or *en* ; as, *been*, *loved*, *spoken*.

The **Preperfect Participle** represents an action, a being, or a state, as *complete* or *finished* before some other action, being, or state ; as, "*Having reached* the summit he *sat* down to rest."

The preperfect participle is always compound, and is formed by prefixing *having* to the perfect, when the compound is double, and *having been* to the perfect or the imperfect, when the compound is triple ; as, *having loved*, *having been loved*, *having been writing*.

REMARKS.

When a participle is used merely to describe a noun or a pronoun, it is called a *Participial Adjective* ; as, "A *revised* edition."—"A *moving* spectacle."

When a participle receives a prefix not found in the verb from which it is formed, it becomes an adjective simply, and is to be parsed as such ; as, *beloved*, *unhonored*.

When a participle ending with *ing* is used as the name of an action, a being, or a state, it is called a *Participial Noun*, and is parsed as a noun simply ; as, "His *reading* is very deficient."

EXERCISE I.—Name the *participles* in the following sentences, and tell to which *class* each belongs ; also, the participles used as *adjectives*, and those used as *nouns*, and tell the reasons :—

MODEL.—"The general, having received orders calling for men, sent them, by forced marches, to aid the besieging troops."

Having received is a participle, because, etc. ; it is the preperfect participle of the verb "to receive," because, etc.

Calling is a participle, because, etc. ; it is the imperfect participle of the verb "to call," because, etc.

Forced is a participial adjective, because, etc.

Besieging is the imperf. part. of the verb "to besiege"; it is used as an adjective, because it merely describes the noun *troops*.

1. The sentence of death pronounced upon the prisoner was received without emotion. 2. The old homestead, once so loved and treasured, was now deserted. 3. The whispering winds came through the raised window. 4. The canoe, borne into the seething rapids, was soon carried over the falls. 5. The lamps having been extinguished, darkness enveloped all in its thickening gloom. 6. He lay like a warrior taking his rest. 7. The sentinel, listening to the dashing waves, was lulled into an untroubled sleep. 8. Having convicted the prisoners by mock law, the council hurried them to undeserved punishment. 9. The unbounded prospect lay before us. 10. Emerging from the gorge, they found the enemy drawn up in battle array upon elevated ground.

EXERCISE II.—Write sentences containing the different participles;—others containing participial adjectives;—others containing participial nouns.

ADVERBS.

An **Adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; as, "He is *now here*, working *very steadily*."

Adverbs generally express in one word what would otherwise require two or more. Thus, *now*, is used for *at this time*; *here*, for *in this place*; *very*, for *in a high degree*; *steadily*, for *with constancy*.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs may be reduced to five general classes; namely, adverbs of *manner*, of *time*, of *place*, of *degree*, and of *interrogation*.

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I. Adverbs of **Manner** answer to the question *How*? The principal adverbs of manner are *ill, so, thus, well, badly, easily, somehow, likewise, certainly, truly, yes, no.*

II. Adverbs of **Time** answer to the question *When*? *How long*? *How soon*? or *How often*? The principal adverbs of time are *already, always, daily, ever, forthwith, lately, now, never, often, seldom, since, then, until, yesterday, yet, etc.*; also, *once, twice, and thrice.*

III. Adverbs of **Place** answer to the question *Were*? *Whither*? *Whence*? or *Whereabout*? The principal adverbs of place are *anywhere, downward, hence, here, hither, nowhere, off, out, somewhere, thence, there, upward, where, wherever, yonder, etc.*; also, *first, secondly, etc.*; *singly, doubly, etc.*

IV. Adverbs of **Degree** answer to the question *How much*? or *How little*? The principal adverbs of Degree are *almost, altogether, as, enough, equally, even, much, more, most, little, less, least, only, quite, scarcely, so, very, wholly, etc.*

V. Adverbs of **Interrogation** are used in asking questions. The principal adverbs of interrogation are *how, when, whence, where, wherefore, whither, why, etc.*

Adverbs used to connect the parts of a sentence are called *Conjunctive Adverbs*. The principal are *after, as, before, how, then, till, until, when, where, why, etc.*

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

A few adverbs are *compared* after the manner of adjectives: *as, soon, sooner, soonest;—often, oftener, oftenest;—long, longer, longest.*

The following adverbs are compared irregularly;—*badly* or *ill, worse, worst*; *far, farther, farthest*;—*little, less, least*;—*much, more, most*;—*well, better, best.*

Most adverbs that end with the syllable *ly* admit the form of comparison made by placing before the positive *more* or *less* to form the comparative, and *most* or *least* to form the superlative; as, *wisely*, *more wisely*, *most wisely*; —*frequently*, *less frequently*, *least frequently*.

EXERCISE I.—State to which *class* each of the following *adverbs* belongs, give the reason, and compare such as can be compared:—

MODELS.—*Well*.—"Well" is an adverb of manner, because it answers to the question *How*? It can be compared,—pos. *well*, comp. *better*, sup. *best*.

Here.—"Here" is an adverb of place, because it answers to the question *Where*? It cannot be compared.

Always, certainly, doubly, easily, enough, even, farther, henceforth, hither, homeward, indeed, lately, less, likewise, most, never, no, now, nowhere, often, off, only, perhaps, quite, recently, seldom, singly, somehow, somewhere, sooner, then, thence, thrice, truly, twice, verily, very, when, wherever, wholly, why, yes, yet, yonder.

EXERCISE II.—Write ten sentences containing adverbs of manner;—ten, of time;—five, of place;—five, of degree;—five, of interrogation.

EXERCISE III.—*Parse* the *adverbs* in the following sentences:—

MODEL—"They will soon be here."

Soon is an adverb, because, etc.; it is an adverb of time, because, etc.. it can be compared (pos. *soon*, comp. *sooner*, sup. *soonest*); it is in the positive degree, and modifies the verb *will be*.

Here is an adverb, because, etc.; it is an adverb of place, because, etc.; it can not be compared; it modifies the verb *will be*.

1. Act promptly when necessity requires it. 2. He rose early and retired late. 3. Lament no more the past, but improve the present. 4. The air is very clear, very still, and tenderly sad in its serene brightness. 5. His friend went to Paris and thence took the cars for Madrid. 6. They arose at a very early hour. 7. It is too late for repentance now. 8. Temptations are not always easily overcome. 9. How seldom a good man inherits honor and wealth! 10. They moved so gently that their footsteps were not heard. 11. There are few who fail when they apply themselves diligently. 12. We should grasp at the shadow less eagerly, and we would prize the substance

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more. 13. In the morning they spoke more calmly. 14. A train was rushing along at almost lightning speed.

EXERCISE IV.—Parse the articles, the nouns, the adjectives, the pronouns, and the verbs, in the preceding sentences.

PREPOSITIONS.

A Preposition is a word used to express the relation of a noun or pronoun depending upon it, to some other word in the sentence; as, "He went *from* Toronto *to* Montreal."—Champlain was the founder *of* Quebec.

In the foregoing examples, *from* expresses the relation between *went* and *Toronto*; and *of*, the relation between *founder* and *Quebec*.

CLASSES OF PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions are divided into three classes; *Simple*, *Compound*, and *Complex*.

I. **Simple Prepositions** are nineteen, namely:—*at*, *after*, *by*, *down*, *for*, *from*, *in*, *of*, *on*, *over*, *past*, *round*, *since*, *through*, *till*, *to*, *under*, *up*, *with*.

II. **Compound Prepositions** are usually formed by prefixing *a* or *be* to some noun, adjective, adverb, or preposition; by uniting two prepositions and an adverb.

The compound prepositions formed by prefixing *a* to some noun, adjective, adverb, or preposition, are *abast*, *aboard*, *about*, *above*, *across*, *against*, *along*, *amid*, *amidst*, *among*, *amongst*, *around*, *athwart*.

The compound prepositions formed by prefixing *be* to some noun, adjective, adverb, or preposition, are *before*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *beside*, *besides*, *between*, *betwixt*, *beyond*.

The compound prepositions formed by uniting two prepositions, or a preposition and an adverb, are *into*, *thought-out*, *towards*, *underneath*, *until*, *unto*, *upon*, *within*, *without*.

III. **Complex Prepositions** are composed of two or more prepositions, or of a preposition and some other part of speech, which together express one relation. Thus, "The spring flowed *from between* the rocks." Here, *from between* is a complex preposition, and shows the relation between *rocks* and *flowed*.

From before, *from between*, *from over*, *over against*, *out of*, *round about*, are complex prepositions.

EXERCISE I.—Write ten sentences containing simple prepositions;—ten, compound;—six, complex.

EXERCISE II.—Parse the *prepositions* in the following sentences;—
MODELS.—1. "They sat on the ground."

On is a preposition, because, etc.; it is a simple preposition; it is used before the noun *ground* to show its relation to the verb *sat*.

2. "He wandered about the city."

About is a preposition, because, etc.; it is used before the noun *city* to show its relation to the verb *wandered*.

3. "The water issued from within the cavern."

From within is a preposition, because, etc.; it is a complex preposition, because, etc.; it is used before the noun *cavern* to show its relation to the verb *issued*.

1. Wreaths of smoke ascend through the trees. 2. The songs of the birds struck upon his ear as they had in his boyhood. 3. Loud shouts of merriment burst from the happy group. 4. The orders of the officers were heard above the din of battle. 5. In the country, close by the road, stood a handsome house. 6. Guard against the sudden impulse of anger. 7. One man, eminent above the others for strength, was chosen to lead them. 8. Before the house, there was a garden with flowers, and a painted railing: and just outside of the railing, among beautiful green grass, grew a little daisy.

EXERCISE III.—Parse the articles, the nouns, the adjectives, the pronouns, the verbs, and the adverbs, in the preceding sentences.

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CONJUNCTIONS.

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction ; as, James and John are happy *because* they are good."

In the above example, *and* connects the parts of the sentence, *James and John are happy*, and *they are good* ; the words *and* and *because* are, therefore, *conjunctions*.

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions may be divided into two general classes ; *Copulative* and *Disjunctive*.

I. A **Copulative Conjunction** is one which denotes an addition, a consequence, a purpose, a reason, or a supposition.

The copulative conjunctions are *also*, *and*, *as*, *because*, *both*, *even*, *for*, *if*, *seeing*, *since*, *so*, *that*, *then*, and *therefore*.

II. A **Disjunctive Conjunction** is one which denotes a choice, a comparison, a separation, or a restriction.

The disjunctive conjunctions are *although*, *but*, *either*, *else*, *except*, *lest*, *neither*, *nevertheless*, *nor*, *notwithstanding*, *or*, *provided*, *than*, *though*, *unless*, *yet*, *whereas*, and *whether*.

EXERCISE I.—Write eight sentences containing copulative conjunctions ;—eight, containing disjunctive conjunctions.

EXERCISE II.—Parse the *conjunctions* in the following sentences :—

MODEL.—“ Edward and Frank are happy, because they are good.”
And is a conjunction, because, etc.; it is a copulative conjunction, because, etc.; it connects the two nouns *Edward* and *Frank*, between which it is placed.

Because is a conjunction, because, etc.; it connects the two sentences *Edward and Frank are happy*, and *they are good*, between which it is placed.

1. If we cannot remove pain, we may at least alleviate it. 2. Let your character be pure and upright, that you may deserve the

love of your friends. 3. James came, but he could not remain long. 4. Though truth and error each exerts great influence, yet truth must prevail, in as much as it is the greater power. 5. The minutes are precious, therefore improve them. 6. Neither threat nor punishment moved him from his purpose. 7. The ancient philosophers disputed whether the world was made by chance or by a divine power. 8. No murmur of bees is around the hive, or among the honeyed woodbines; they have done their work, and lie close in their waxen cells.

EXERCISE III.—Parse all the articles, the nouns, the adjectives, the pronouns, the verbs, the adverbs, and the prepositions, in the preceding sentences.

INTERJECTIONS.

An Interjection is an exclamatory word, used merely to express some passion or emotion; as, *Ha! pshaw! alas! halloo!*

The following words are interjections:—

Adieu, ah, ahoy, alas, bah, faugh, fie, foh, ha, halloo, hist, ho, humph, hurrah, pshaw, tush, whist.

EXERCISE I.—Parse the *interjections* in the following sentences:—
MODEL.—“Ah! it grieves me.”

Ah is an interjection, because, etc.; it has no grammatical connection.

1. Alas! the way is wearisome and long. 2. Adieu, I must go. 3. Pshaw! how careless you are! 4. Hurrah! the day is gained. 5. O king, live forever! 6. Bah! can he be deceived by such stories! Hist! avoid all noise.

EXERCISE II.—Compose sentences, each of which shall contain all the parts of speech.

Parse each word in the sentences composed.

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SYNTAX.

Syntax treats of the construction of sentences according to the established laws of speech.

It may be considered under two divisions; namely, *Analysis* and *Synthesis*.

Analysis, in grammar, is the process of resolving a sentence into its constituent parts.

Synthesis is the construction or formation of sentences from words.

A Sentence or Proposition, as already defined, is an assemblage of words, making complete sense; as, "The tree bears fruit."

Obs. 1.—The subject of a simple sentence may itself be compound; as, "Two and three are five."

Obs. 2.—A verb in any other mode than the *infinitive* is said to be *finite*.

A Simple Sentence is one that contains but one subject and one finite verb; as, "The sun rises in the east."

ANALYSIS.

CLASSES OF SENTENCES.

Sentences, as to their use, are divided into four classes; namely, Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, and Exclamatory.

A Declarative Sentence is one that is used simply to affirm or to deny; as, "The day is cold."—"Dishonesty will not prosper."

An Interrogative Sentence is one that is used to ask a question; as, "Will he go to town?"

An Imperative Sentence is one that is used to com-

mand, exhort, entreat, or permit; as, "Study your lesson."—"Father, forgive us."

An **Exclamatory Sentence** is one that is used in exclamation, or to express a strong emotion; as, "How courageous he is!"—"Alas, they are no more!"

PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

The **Essential Parts** of a sentence are two; the *Subject* (or nominative), and the *Predicate* (or verb).

The **Subject** of a sentence is that of which something is said or asserted; as, "The day dawns," *day* is the Subject.

The **Predicate** is that which is said or asserted of the subject; as, "The day dawns," *dawns* is the Predicate.

Obs. 1.—The predicate being always a verb, the subject of the sentence is the subject of the verb. The *Object of the verb*, when the latter is the predicate of a sentence, may be considered one of the principal parts of the sentence. It properly, however, modifies the verb, and is not a *primary element* of the sentence. In imperative sentences, the subject is the pronoun *thou* or *you* (understood). For the definition of the *object* of a verb, see page 16.

Obs. 2.—There are sometimes used in connection with a sentence, words that form no part of its structure. Such words are said to be *independent*.

The Subject and Predicate may be distinguished as either *Grammatical* or *Logical*.

The **Grammatical Subject** is simply the noun or pronoun which is nominative to the verb; as, "*Waters* flow."—"The *Waters* of the Saint-Lawrence River flow."—"They flow."—"They, the waters of the Saint-Lawrence River, flow." In the first two examples, the Grammatical Subject is *waters*; in the other two, it is *they*.

The **Logical Subject** is not simply the noun or pronoun which is nominative to the verb, but also includes all the attendant words which modify in any way the meaning of the nominative.

In the second example above, the Logical Subject is, *The waters of the Saint-Lawrence River*; in the fourth example, it is *They, the waters of the Saint-Lawrence River*.

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Obs.—The term Subject, unless otherwise specified will hereafter mean the Logical Subject.

The **Grammatical Predicate** is simply the finite verb to which the noun or pronoun forming the subject is nominative; as, "The boy *studies*."—"Malice often *bears* down truth."—"No genius *was blasted* by the breath of critics." The grammatical predicates here are the verbs *studies*, *bear*, and *was blasted*.

The **Logical Predicate** is not simply the verb to which the noun or pronoun is nominative, but includes also the attendant words which modify in any way the meaning of the verb.

In the second example above, the Logical predicate is, *often bears down truth*; in the third example, it is, *was ever blasted by the breath of critics*.

Exercise.—Tell to which class each of the following sentences belongs, and mention the *subject*, the *predicate*, and the *object* thereof.

Model 1.—"William knows grammar".—This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *William*; the predicate, *knows*; the object, *grammar*.

2.—"Obey your parents."—This is a simple imperative sentence. The subject is *thou* or *you* (understood); the predicate, *obey*; the object, *parents*.

1. Crimes deserve punishment.—2. Vice brings misery.—3. Control yourself.—4. Can indolence bestow wealth?—5. Perseverance overcomes obstacles.—6. Does John study book-keeping?—7. Liberty, it has fled!—8. Who can trust liars?—9. Generosity makes friends.—10. Can liars respect themselves?—11. Could he have avoided disgrace?—12. Diligence should be rewarded.—13. Has Paul returned?—14. Vanity excites disgust.—15. Do they understand French?—16. Champlain founded Quebec.—17. What did you say?—18. Will you give assistance?—19. Mortal, prepare.—20. Frank studies Geography.

ATTRIBUTES AND ADJUNCTS.

Words introduced to illustrate or add to the force of other words, are called *Adjuncts*; as, "The History of the

Dominion of Canada." The words in Italics are the adjunct of *History*.

Adjuncts are divided into two classes; namely, *Primary* and *Secondary Adjuncts*.

Primary Adjuncts are those added directly to either of the principal parts; as, "*Pious boys never omit their morning and evening prayers.*"

Secondary Adjuncts are those added to other adjuncts; as, "*So noble a conduct was very highly praised.*"

Adjuncts are divided, with respect to their office, into three classes; namely, *Adjective*, *Adverbial*, and *Explanatory*.

An **Adjective Adjunct** is one used to modify or limit a noun or a pronoun; as, "*Those two studious boys have obtained fine prizes.*"

An **Adverbial Adjunct** is one used like an adverb; as, "*Printing was invented in the fifteenth century.*"

An **Explanatory Adjunct** is one used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun; as, "*Queen Isabella was dethroned.*"—"I, *your friend*, take great interest in your welfare."

The *Subject* or the *Object*, in a sentence, may be modified by *Adjective* or *Explanatory Adjuncts* of various forms; as,—1. By an article or an adjective; as, "*The last account is settled.*"—2. By a noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, "*Henry's brother knows his lessons.*"—3. By a verb used as an adjective; as, "*The desire to excel is laudable.*"—4. By a preposition and its object, used together as an adjective; as, "*Grammar teaches the right use of language.*"—5. By a noun or pronoun used as an explanatory adjunct; as, "*He, your brother, is very negligent.*"

The *Predicate* may be modified;—1. By an adverb; as, "*John studies diligently.*"—2. By a preposition and its object, used together as an adverb; as, "*He came from Toronto.*"

An adjective, participle, noun, or pronoun, modifying or completing the predicate of a sentence, and relating to

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the subject, is called an *Attribute*; as, "Snow is *white*."—The atmosphere is *refreshing*,"—"Bayard was a great knight."

Obs. 1.—All verbs, except *to be*, comprehend within themselves both the predicate and the attribute, into which they may generally be resolved. For example, in the sentence, "The boy sleeps," the verb *sleeps* is equivalent to *is sleeping*, *is* being the affirmative or predicative word, and *sleeping*, the attribute.

Obs. 2.—The verb that connects the subject and the attribute, must be intransitive.

Obs. 3.—The attribute is often used *indefinitively*, that is, without reference to any particular object; as, "To be good is to be happy." In analyzing, this may be called the *indefinite attribute*.

Obs. 4.—The attribute, when it is a noun or a pronoun, is in the same case as the subject to which it refers; as, "It is *I*, be not afraid."

In analyzing a sentence, the *attribute* should be considered one of the *principal parts*.

The Principal Parts of a sentence are, therefore, the *Subject*, the *Predicate*, and the *Object* or the *Attribute*, if there be either.

The other parts may be, 1. *Primary* or *Secondary Adjuncts*; 2. Words used to express *relation* or *connection*; 3. *Independent words*.

Obs. 1.—Of the four principal parts of a sentence enumerated, the only two *essential* parts, as already said, page 68, are the *Subject* and the *Predicate*.

Obs. 2.—It has already been stated, in page 67, that a simple sentence may have a compound subject; as, "*Two and three are five*," in like manner, a simple sentence may have a compound predicate; as, "*Brutus loved and protected Cassius*." A simple sentence may also have a compound object or attribute; as, "The teacher called *James and John*."—"They are *poets and philosophers*."

Exercise.—Classify and analyze each sentence as in the preceding exercises; in addition, point out the *attributes* and their *adjuncts*, the *adjuncts* of each of the *principal parts*, and distinguish their *classes*.

Model 1.—"Paris is a beautiful city."—This is a simple decla-

rative sentence.—The subject is *Paris*; the predicate, *is*; the attribute, *city*.—The subject and the predicate have no adjuncts; the attribute is limited by the adjective adjunct *a*, and modified by the adjective adjunct *beautiful*.

2. "The boy has carelessly torn Mary's large dictionary."—This is a simple declarative sentence.—The subject is *boy*; the predicate, *has torn*; the object, *dictionary*.—The subject is limited by the adjective adjunct *the*; the predicate is modified by the adverbial adjunct *carelessly*; and the object, by the adjective adjuncts *Mary's* and *large*.

1. Filial ingratitude is a shameful crime.
2. Washington could have been thrice elected president.
3. The good scholar studies his lessons attentively.
4. Peter the Great was a remarkable man.
5. Every person highly praised Henry's noble conduct.
6. Religious instruction is very necessary in childhood.
7. The Athenians carefully observed Solon's wise laws.
8. He suddenly lost all his property.
9. The Queen has wisely proclaimed a general peace.
10. The secret acts of men are known only to the Almighty.
11. That ferocious dog has badly bitten Alphonso's right arm.
12. Montreal and Toronto are the two most commercial cities in the Dominion of Canada.

CLAUSES AND PHRASES.

When simple sentences are connected, they form *compound* or *complex* sentences, and are then called *clauses*.

A **Clause**, therefore, is a division of a compound or a complex sentence.

Compound or complex clauses are sometimes called *Members*.

Clauses are either *Independent* or *Dependent*.

An **Independent Clause** makes complete sense of itself; as, "The boys run, the girls sing, and all are merry." Each of the three clauses in this sentence is *independent*.

A **Dependent Clause** is one used as an adjunct, or which makes complete sense only in connection with an other

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clause; as, "He will fall a victim to his passions unless he reform." In this sentence, the first clause is *independent*; the second, *dependent*.

The clause on which the dependent clause depends, is called the *Principal Clause*.

A sentence composed of a principal and a dependent clause, is called a **Complex Sentence**.

When neither of the component clauses of a sentence is dependent, it is called a **Compound Sentence**.

Clauses may be connected by conjunctions, relative pronouns, or adverbs.

A clause, introduced by a relative pronoun, is often called a *relative clause*; it may be dependent or independent.

Obs.—The relative clause is a dependent clause, and the sentence in which it occurs is therefore complex. It is not, however, always a *modifying* clause, being sometimes used to express an *additional fact*. Thus in the sentence, "This is the man that committed the deed," the relative clause modifies the noun *man*; but in the sentence, "I gave the book to John who has lost it," it is equivalent to "and he has lost it." In each case, it is used like an adjective.

Most dependent clauses may be reduced to four general classes; namely, *Substantive, Adjective, Adverbial* and *Conditional*.

A **Substantive Clause** is one that performs the office of a noun; as, "He knows *that you love him*." The dependent clause, *that you love him*, is the object of the verb *knows*.

An **Adjective Clause** is one that performs the office of an adjective; as, "He *that hath knowledge*, spareth his words." The clause *that hath knowledge*, is an adjective adjunct, and modifies *he*.

An **Adverbial Clause** is one that performs the office of an adverb; as, "The man of integrity speaks *as*

he thinks." The clause, *as he thinks*, is employed adverbially, and modifies the verb *speaks*.

A **Conditional Clause** is one that expresses something contingent, or doubtful; as, "*If he is in health*, I am content."—"I consent, *on condition that you will come.*" The clauses in Italics in the two foregoing examples, are *Conditional Clauses*.

Obs.—A *Conditional Clause* is connected with the leading proposition by some word or words implying a condition or supposition.

A **Phrase** is a combination of two or more words used to express a certain relation of ideas, but no entire proposition; as, "Of an obliging disposition."—"To be candid."—"Seeing the danger."

Phrases may be distinguished as *Substantive, Adjective, Adverbial, Explanatory, and Independent*.

A **Substantive Phrase** is one used instead of a noun; as, "*Doing nothing* is laborious."—"To do good is the duty of all."—"John loves *to study mathematics.*" The phrase in Italics, in each of the two first examples, is the subject of *is*; and in the third example, *to study mathematics*, is the object of *loves*. They are called *substantive phrases*.

An **Adjective Phrase** is one that performs the office of an adjective; as, "This is a scheme *of his own devising.*" The phrase in Italics modifies *scheme*, and is called an *adjective phrase*.

An **Adverbial Phrase** performs the office of an adverb; as, "He was anxious *to ascertain the truth.*"—"By attending to these directions, we shall save ourselves much trouble." The phrase in Italics in each of the two examples, is *adverbial*, and modifies the predicate.

An **Explanatory Phrase** is one that gives some explanation; as, "Paul, *the Apostle of the Gentiles*, was beheaded at Rome." The phrase in Italics explains who Paul was, therefore it is called an *explanatory phrase*.

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An **Independent Phrase** is one that does not relate to any word in the rest of the sentence; as, "*Considering the circumstances*, he deserves much credit."—" *To be candid with you*, I think you in fault."—"Boast not, *my dear friend*, of to-morrow." The phrases in Italics, in the examples given, do not relate to any word of the sentences, therefore they are *independent*.

With regard to their construction, phrases are *Simple*, *Complex*, or *Compound*.

A **Simple Phrase** is one that is not connected with any other; as, "Seeing the danger."—"Of a good disposition."

A **Complex Phrase** is one that contains a phrase as an adjunct of its principal part; as, "*By the generosity of the King*."—" *To amuse himself with you*."

Obs.—The *principal part* of a phrase is that upon which all others depend. The words in Italics are the *principal parts* of the phrases in the examples given above; *of the King* and *with you*, are adjuncts to these principal parts.

A **Compound Phrase** is one composed of two or more simple phrases in succession; as, "Looking out and observing him."

Exercise.—*Classify and analyze* each sentence as in the preceding exercises; in addition, *point out* the component clauses, and *classify and analyze* each phrase.

Model 1.—"Pupils who neglect their studies, deserve reprimand."—This is a complex declarative sentence; the principal clause is *Pupils deserve reprimand*, and the dependent clause is *who neglect their studies*, an adjective adjunct of *pupils*; the connective word is *who*.—The subject of the principal clause is *pupils*; the predicate, *deserve*; and the object, *reprimand*.—The adjunct of the subject is the dependent clause; the other parts have no adjuncts.—The subject of the dependent clause is *who*; the predicate, *neglect*; the object, *studies*.—The subject and the predicate have no adjuncts; the adjunct of studies is *their*."

2—"He that loveth pleasure, shall soon be a poor man."—This is a ex. decl. sent. consisting of two simple clauses, *He shall soon be a poor man*, and *That loveth pleasure*.—The sub. of the prin. cl.

is *he*; the pred., *shall be*; and the attribute, *man*.—The adjunct of the sub. is *that loveth pleasure*; the adjunct of the pred. is *soon*; the adjuncts of the attribute are *a* and *poor*.—The sub. of the dep. cl. is *that*; the pred., *loveth*; and the obj., *pleasure*. None of the three has adjuncts.

3.—“*Alas!* he soon fell before the malignant tempter, thus losing his innocence.”—This is a simple decl. sent.—The subj. is *he*; the pred., *fell*; there is no object or attribute.—The sub. is unmod.; the pred. is mod. by the adverbial adjunct *soon* and by the adverbial phrase, *before the malignant tempter*; the prin. part of this phrase is *tempter*, which is lim. by the adj. adjunct *the*, and mod. by the adj. adjunct *malignant*.—*Losing his innocence* is an explanatory phrase; the prin. part is *losing*, and its adjunct is the object *innocence*, mod. by the adj. adjunct *his*.—The connective is the conjunction *thus*.—*Alas* is an independent word.

4.—“The scholar who plays truant, is guilty of falsehood; because he deceives his parents.”—This is a compound decl. sent.—The first clause is, *The scholar who plays truant, is guilty of falsehood*; and the second is, *because he deceives his parents*. The connective is *because*.—The first clause is a complex sent. or member; sub., *scholar*; pred., *is*; attr., *guilty*. Sub. lim. by adj. adjunct *the*, and mod. by adj. cl. *who plays truant*; pred. unmod.; attr. mod. by adj. phrase *of falsehood*.—Sub. of the dep. cl., *who*; pred., *plays*; obj., *truant*.—Sub., pred., and obj. have no adjuncts. The connective is *who*.—Sub. of second cl., *he*; pred., *deceives*; obj., *parents*. Sub. and pred. have no adjuncts; obj. mod. by adj. adjunct *his*.

1. The young man who embezzled his employer's money was arrested yesterday.

2. He who conquers his passions overcomes his greatest enemies.

3. I immediately perceived the object which he pointed out.

4. Every teacher must love a pupil who evinces a love of study.

5. He imprudently reported what his friend told him.

6. When spring returns, the trees resume their verdure.

7. Prosperity gains many friends, but adversity tries them.

8. We, who never were his favorites, did not expect these attentions.

9. Can that be the man who deceived me?

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10. Every thing that we do often, we do easily.
11. He might have been guilty, but no sufficient proof could be found.
12. If you diligently cultivate your mind in youth, you will be happy when you grow old.
13. Whatever we do often, soon becomes easy.
14. It may have escaped his notice ; but such was the fact.
15. If we do not carefully exercise our faculties, they will soon become impaired.
16. Science may raise thee to eminence ; but religion alone can guide thee to felicity.
17. In the fifth century, the Franks, a people of Germany, invaded France.
18. Sitting is the best posture for deliberation ; standing, for persuasion ; a judge, therefore, should speak sitting ; a pleader, standing.
19. He, stooping down and looking in, saw the linen clothes lying, yet went he not in.
20. Cheerfulness keeps up a kind of daylight in the mind, and fills it with a steady and perpetual serenity.
21. Get justly, use soberly, distribute cheerfully, and live contentedly.
22. The pleasures of sense resemble a foaming torrent, which, after a disorderly course, speedily runs out, and leaves but an empty and offensive channel.
23. When Alfred the Great ascended the throne of England, he was greatly harassed by the Danes, a piratical people from Scandinavia.
24. The son, bred in sloth, becomes a spendthrift and a profligate, and goes out of the world a beggar.
25. Most of the troubles which we meet with in the world, arise from an irritable temper, or from improper conduct.
26. Whoever yields to temptation, debases himself with a debasement from which he can never arise.
27. The truth is, that the most elaborate and manifold apparatus of instruction can impart nothing of importance to the passive and inert mind.

28. Can a youth, who refuses to yield obedience to his parents, expect to become a good or a wise man ?

29. We live in the past by a knowledge of its history, and in the future, by hope and anticipation.

30. Leaning my head upon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement.

31. The predominant passion of that man seems to have been the love of the useful.

32. One day, I was guilty of an action, which, to say the least, was in very bad taste.

33. Let the child learn what is appropriate for his years.

34. Children should know that it is their duty to honor their parents, to ask advice of them, and to observe their wishes.

35. The virtuous man, it has been beautifully said, proceeds without constraint in the path of his duty.

36. That it is our duty to obey the laws of the country in which we live, does not admit of question.

37. To be continually subject to the breath of slander, will tarnish the purest reputation.

38. Education, when it works upon a noble mind, draws out to view many latent virtues and perfections, which, without its aid, would never be able to make their appearance.

39. If we examine with minuteness the falling snow, we shall observe, if the air be very calm, that each flake consists of a number of exceedingly delicate particles of ice, which are united together with wonderful regularity.

40. Decision and obstinacy often resemble each other, though one is the child of wisdom, the other, of error ; a decided man thinks deeply, an obstinate one seldom thinks at all.

41. Let him that hastens to be rich, take heed lest he suddenly become poor.

42. Is it because foreigners are in a condition to set our malice at defiance, that we are willing to contract engagements of friendship ?

43. " Say not thou, ' I will recompense evil ' ; but wait on the Lord, and he shall save thee."

44. Are the stars, that gem the vault of the heavens above us,

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mere decorations of the night, or suns and centres of planetary systems ?

45. Man, who is a rational being, endowed with the highest capacity for happiness, sometimes mistakes his best interests, and pursues trifles with all his energies, considering them the principal object of desire in this fleeting world.

46. He could not catch the fugitives, with his utmost efforts; but resolving to weary, by perseverance, him whom he could not surpass in speed, he pressed on till the foot of the mountain stopped his course.

47. The Romans and Albans being on the eve of a battle, an agreement was made between them, that three champions should be chosen on each side, by whom the victory should be determined.

48. There is strong reason to suspect that some able Whig politician, who thought it dangerous to relax, at that moment, the laws against political offences, but who could not, without incurring the charge of inconsistency, declare themselves adverse to relaxation, had conceived a hope that they might, by fomenting the dispute about the court of the lord high steward, defer for at least a year the passing of a bill which they disliked, and yet could not decently oppose.—MACAULEY.

49. My sentence is for open war : of wiles.

More unexpert, I boast not : them let those
 Contrive who need, or when they need, not now :
 For while they sit contriving, shall the rest,
 Millions that stand in arms and longing wait
 The signal to ascend, sit lingering here,
 Heaven's fugitives, and for their dwelling-place
 Accept this dark opprobrious den of shame,
 The prison of his tyranny who reigns
 By our delay ?—PARADISE LOST.

SYNTHESIS.

Synthesis, as already said, is that division of Syntax which treats of the construction of sentences from words.

The leading principles to be observed in the construction of sentences are embraced in the following *eighteen Rules of Syntax*.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

I. Articles.—Articles relate to the nouns which they limit in meaning; as, “At *a* little distance from the walls of the citadel, stands *an* old tower.”

II. Subject of Finite Verb (1).—A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, is put in the nominative case; as, “The *Moon* shines with borrowed light.”—“*Thou* shalt not steal.”

III. Nominative Case Independent.—A noun or a pronoun whose case does not depend upon its connection with any other word, is in the nominative case independent; as, “Oh, Frank, save me from these men!”—“Your *fathers*, where are they? and the *prophets*, do they live forever?”

IV. Possessive Case.—A noun or a pronoun which limits a word used as the name of the thing possessed, is in the possessive case; as, “The *boy's* hat is lost.”—“*My* native land.”

V. Objective Case.—A noun or a pronoun which is the object of an action or of a relation, is in the objective case; as, “Cast thy *bread* upon the *waters*.”—“The judge heard *him*.”

VI. Apposition (2).—A noun or a pronoun used

(1) A verb in any other mode than the *infinitive*, is called a *finite* verb.

(2) *Apposition* signifies *adding to*, and denotes that another name is added for the same person or thing.

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in apposition with another, is in the same case ; as, " Champlain, the *founder* of Quebec, died in 1635."

VII. Same Case after a Verb.—When a noun or pronoun coming after an intransitive verb, means the same person or thing as the noun or pronoun preceding the verb, it is in the same case, as, " *He* returned a *friend who* came a *foe*."—"We believed *it* to be *him*."—"The *child* was named *Louis*."—"It could not be *he*."—"Napoleon Buonaparte became emperor."

VIII. Adjectives.—Adjectives relate to the nouns or pronouns which they qualify or limit ; as, "A *good man*." "Two boys." "It is *good*."

IX. Pronominal Adjective.—The pronominal adjective either accompanies its noun, or represents it understood ; as, "This Man."—"All men."—"All join to guard what *each* desires to gain," i. e., All [men] join to guard what *each* [man] desires to gain."

X. Pronouns.—A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or with the word for which it stands, in gender, number, and person ; as, "If a man takes a wrong step, *he* should not continue in *his* course."—"Thou *who* speakest, art the man."

XI. Agreement of Finite Verbs.—A finite verb agrees with its subject, or nominative, in number and person ; as, "I *read* ; thou *readest* ; he *reads*."—"The boy *writes* ; the boys *write*."

XII. Infinitives.—The preposition to governs (1) the Infinitive mode, and commonly connects it to a finite verb ; as, They wish *to study*."

XIII. Use of the tenses.—In using verbs, different tenses should not be confounded, nor should any tense be employed, except in such connections as are consistent with the time it denotes.

(1) To govern, in grammar, means to determine some particular modification.

XIV. Participles.—Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or are governed by prepositions; as, “At one time *paying* his friend a visit, he found him *employed* in *reading* Bossuet.”

XV. Adverbs.—Adverbs modify a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; as, “He acted *judiciously*.”—“He is a *truly* good man.”—“He was *most* kindly treated.”

XVI. Prepositions.—Prepositions show the relation between the noun or the pronoun which follows them and some preceding word; as, “He came *from* London *to* Florence *in* the company *of* two friends, and passed *with* them *through* many cities.”

XVII. Conjunctions.—Conjunctions connect the words or the parts of a sentence between which they are placed; as, “John *and* James are very obedient.”—“They fled *because* they were afraid.”

XVIII. Interjections.—Interjections have no grammatical relation with the other words of a sentence; as, “These were delightful days; but, *alas!* they are no more.”

RULE I.—ARTICLES.

Articles relate to the nouns which they limit in meaning; as, “At a little distance from *the* walls of *the* citadel, stands *an* old tower.”

NOTES.

1. The definite article *the*, which denotes some particular person or thing, is prefixed to nouns of both numbers; as, “*The* life of an honest man, however short, is counted long in *the* eyes of God.”

Obs. 1.—*The* sometimes relates to adjectives that are used as nouns; as, “*The* poor ye have always with you.”

Obs. 2.—*The* has the force of an adverb when used before an adverb in the comparative or the superlative degree; as, “*The more intelligent we become, the less* are we satisfied with our knowledge.”

2. The indefinite article *an* or *a*, which denotes one thing of a kind, but not any particular one, belongs to nouns of the singular number only, or to a collective noun; as, “*A lawyer; a good man; an excited multitude.*”

Obs. 1.—*An* or *a* is sometimes placed before an adjective expressing plurality; as, “*A hundred sheep.*”—“*A dozen birds were killed, but only a few of them could be found.*” In such instances, the article relates to the adjective (used as a noun, as the adjective limits the noun following).

Obs. 2.—*An* or *a* has sometimes the import of *each* or *every*; as, “*That workman earns eight dollars a week.*”

Obs. 3.—*A*, as prefixed to participles in *ing*, has the force of a preposition; as “*He is gone a hunting.*”

Obs. 4.—Articles often relate to nouns understood; as, “*The Saguenay.*”—“*The animal and the vegetable world.*”—“*He was a good and a just man;*” meaning “*The river Saguenay; The animal world and the vegetable world;*” “*He was a good man and a just man.*”

Obs. 5.—When an article is used before the comparative or the superlative degree of an adjective, it relates to a noun mentioned or understood after the adjective; as, “*I said an older soldier not a wiser (soldier).*”—“*Of friends, prove to be the truest (friend).*”

3. The article should not be used before a noun taken in its widest and most general sense; as, “*Man is mortal.*”—“*Vice is odious.*”—“*Iron is useful.*”—“*He was called Master.*”

4. When a noun in the singular denotes the whole species, or an indefinite portion of the species, it requires the definite article before it; as, “*The lion is a majestic animal.*”

5. The article is generally omitted before proper names, and titles or names used merely as such, or used simply as words; as, “*Samuel Champlain died at Quebec*



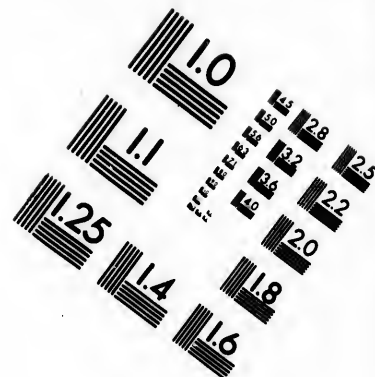
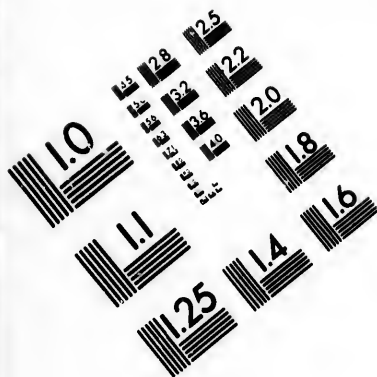
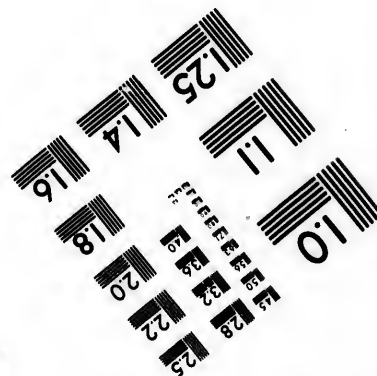
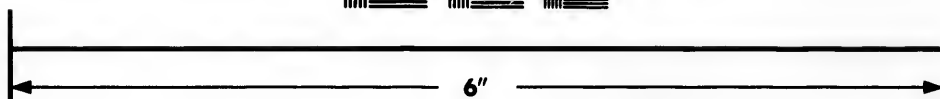
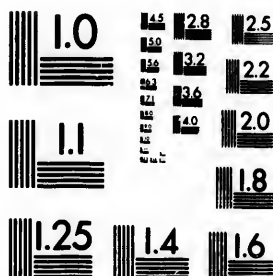


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in 1635."—"The title of a *duke* was bestowed upon McMahon," should be, "The title of *duke*, etc."

6. Names of countries and mountains, when used in the plural, take the definite article; as, "*The Alleghanies* are the great chains of mountains which stretch from the interior of Maine to the borders of Alabama in *the United States*."

7. Names of rivers and seas require the definite article; as, "*The Ottawa* flows in *the Saint-Lawrence*."—"The Baltic is surrounded by Russia, Sweden, Prussia, and Denmark."

8. A noun, in apposition to another, requires the article; as, "Paris, *the capital of France*, is the finest city in the world."

9. The indefinite article *a* or *an* is used before any noun indicating the profession, title, quality or nation of a person; as, "He is *a* historian, *a* poet, and something of *a* painter into the bargain."

10. The names of weights, numbers, and measures, require *a* or *an* before them, and not *the*; as, "Butter may be had at twelve cents *a* pound."

11. The article must be used before each of two or more nouns, having different constructions, or expressing direct contrast; it is also repeated for the sake of emphasis; as, "*The day but not the hour* was fixed."—"The rich and the poor suffered alike."

12. When adjectives express different qualities and relate to but one noun, the article is used with the first adjective only; as, "*A red, white, and blue flag* was hoisted;"—this means that *one flag of three colors* was hoisted.

13. When adjectives connected relate to the same noun expressed or understood more than once, and not meaning the same person or thing, the article should be used with each adjective; as, "*A red, a white, and a blue flag* were raised," meaning that *three flags of different colors* were raised.

14. In expressing a comparison, if both nouns refer to the same subject, the article should not be inserted; if to different subjects, it should not be omitted: thus, if we say, "He is a better politician than lawyer," we compare different qualifications of the same man; but if we say, "He is a better politician than a lawyer," we refer to different names.

15. When an adjective is qualified by *as*, *how so*, or *too*, the article is placed after the adjective; as, "They bought the goods at *too dear* a rate."

16. The article is used before the following pronominal adjectives:—*few*, *former*, *first*, *latter*, *last*, *little*, *one*, *other* and *same*; as "He will do neither *the one* thing nor *the other*." It is used after the following pronominal adjectives:—*all*, *both*, *many*, *such*, and *what*; as, "*All the* materials of war."

17. The definite article, or some other definitive, is generally required before the antecedent to the pronoun *who* or *which* in a restrictive clause; as, "*The* men who were present, consented."

18. The article is generally required in that construction which converts a participle into a verbal noun; as, "By *the seeing* of the eye, and *the hearing* of the ear, learn wisdom."

19. The indefinite article is generally used, instead of *one*, before *hundred* and *thousand*, when those words are not followed by another number; as, "This hall could not afford room for a hundred persons."

EXERCISES.

Correct *orally* the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

Models. 1.—Palm-tree grows only in warm climates."

This sentence is incorrect, because, according to Note 11 under Rule I., the noun *palm-tree* requires the definite article before it. The sentence should be, "The palm-tree grows only in warm climates."

2.—“The study gives strength to the mind.”

This sentence is incorrect, because the article *the* is used before *study*, which is a noun taken in its widest sense, according to Note 10 under Rule I. Therefore *the* should be omitted, and the sentence should be, “Study gives strength to the mind.”

3.—“I now suffer the ill consequences of a so foolish indulgence.”

This sentence is incorrect, because, according to Note 22 under Rule I., the article *a* should be placed after the adjective *foolish*. The sentence should be, “I now suffer the ill consequences of so foolish an indulgence.”

1. The life is short, but the eternity is long.—2. The lions are considered the strongest of the animals.—3. Bayard, model of Knights, was mortally wounded at Romagnano, in 1524.—4. The Mount Vesuvius is in Italy.—5. The sun is the source of the heat and light for our earth.—6. I despise not the doer, but deed.—7. The hardness is a property of some bodies.—8. Negroes who live on the coasts of Guinea are more civilized than those of the interior of Africa.—9. Mr. B. was deputy; now he is ambassador.—10. This is a too large house for a single man.—11. I will take a great care that he may not be admitted.—12. There were at least one thousand people at the concert.—13. Carriages which were formerly in use, were very clumsy.—14. He is entitled to the appellation of a gentleman.—15. In keeping of his commandments, there is great reward.—16. There is a species of an animal called a seal.—17. The light and the worthless kernels will float.—18. Does Peru join the Atlantic or Pacific Ocean?—19. He was an abler mathematician than a linguist.—20. A too great reward was given for a so slight service.—21. Light travels at the rate of about a hundred and ninety thousand miles per second.—22. The old miser of landlord is always asking money of us.—23. A red, a white, and a blue flag is the American emblem.—24. Cincinnatus laid aside the powers granted to him as a Dictator, and returned to his farm.—25. Hardness of iron is not so great as that of diamond.

26. The Russians and Italians differ from each other in their habits and customs.—27. The word is a noun or verb according to its use.—28. Study of languages is very useful and even necessary now-a-days.—29. The modesty of this youth is prepossessing.—30. The negro is a black-colored man with curly hair and thick lips.—31. The nightingales like to sing in retired places.—32. Nouns have three cases; the nominative, the possessive, and objective.—33. Great Antilles are Cuba, St. Domingo, Jamaica, and Porto-Rico.—34. The Mount Blanc is much visited by travelers and tourists.—35. The Mediterranean sea bathes the three ancient Continents; the Europe, the Asia, and the Africa.—36. Great many people were present at the reception of the new Governor-General.—37. He pursued his scheme with a wonderful constancy.—38. London, the capital of England, is the most populous city in the world.—39. Stars, with which God has studded the firmament, appear like gems.—40. Best sailors in France come from Brittany.—41. You will find an ewer in my dressing-room.—42. What a rogue of servant you have! Why don't you dismiss him!—43. How timid creature the squirrel is!—44. I am thinking of entering the army; who knows but I may become general?—45. On hearing the news of his arrival, thousand people rushed out to meet the hero.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"A rudely carved stone marked the place of his burial."

A is the indefinite article, and relates to the noun *stone* which it limits, according to Rule 1., "An article relates, etc."

*Pars*e the articles in the two foregoing exercises.

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule 1, and two or more from elsewhere, but on the same Rule.

Nota.—Teachers will not fail to insist on a thorough performance of the above exercises. Rules may be recited very fluently without being understood; but an application of them in the construction of

sentences, requires careful attention to principles, while it also aids the learner in forming an accurate style of writing.

RULE II.—SUBJECT OF FINITE VERB.

A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, is in the nominative case; as, "*The moon shines with borrowed light*," "*Thou shalt not steal*."

NOTES.

1. The subject of a verb may be a verb in the infinitive mode, a part of a sentence, or any word, used as a noun in the nominative case; as, "*To err is human*."—" *That the earth is round*, was denied by the ancients."—" *Them* should never be used for *those*."—" *Never despair*, is a good motto."

2. Nouns in the first, or in the second person, are never the subjects of finite verbs.

3. A noun and the pronoun representing it are sometimes improperly used as subjects of the same verb; as, "*The sky it was obscured with clouds*;"—omit *it*, and say, "*The sky was obscured with clouds*."

4. Every nominative, except when used independently (Rule III.), or after the verb (Rule VII.), or in apposition (Rule VI.), is the subject of some verb expressed or understood.

5. The subject is generally placed before the verb; as, "*The sun shines upon the earth*."

The following are exceptions:—

I. When a question is asked, without the use of an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case; as, "*Where is he about whom you spoke?*"

II. When the verb is in the imperative mode; as, "*Go (thou) in peace*."

III. When a verb in the subjunctive mode is used without

a conjunction; as, "*Were it true, it would not injure us*".

IV. When a verb in the potential mode is used to express an earnest wish; as, "*May grace superabound where sin abounded.*"

V. When the adverb *there* precedes the verb; as, "*There lived a man.*"—"In all wordly joys, *there is* a secret wound."

VI. When emphasis is used; as, "*Here am I.*"

VII. When words quoted are introduced or separated by the verbs *say, answer, reply, etc.*; as, "*Truth, 'said the soothsayer, ' can neither be bought nor sold.*"

There are besides many other cases in which the nominative may either precede or follow the verb, and for which no definite rules can be given.

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—"*Him that is studious, will improve.*"

This sentence is incorrect, because *him*, which is a pronoun in the objective case, is used as the subject of the finite verb *will improve*; but, according to Rule II., "A noun which is the subject of a finite verb, etc." Therefore *him* should be *he*, and the sentence should be, "*He that is studious, will improve.*"

2.—"*The men they were there.*"

This sentence is incorrect, because *men*, and the pronoun *they*, which represents it, are used as subjects of the same verb; but, according to Note 3 under Rule II., "A noun and the pronoun, etc." Therefore *they* should be omitted, and the sentence should be, "*The men were there.*"

1. Them that seek wisdom, will find it.—2. The moon it shed its pale beams over the landscape.—3. Disappointments and afflictions, however disagreeable, they often improve us.—4. You are two or three years older than us.—5. My brother and me have a little garden.—6. Gentle reader, let you and I, in like manner, walk in the

paths of virtue.—7. When the ship struck, us sailor took to the long-boat and the vessel began to fill immediately.—8. Simple and innocent pleasures they alone are durable.—9. He can write better than me, but I can draw as well as him.—10. Who wishes to merit the praise of his teacher? Me.—11. Whom dost thou think was there?—12. Let there be none but thee and I.—13. The whole need not a physician, but them that are sick.—14. "Point out the man" said the judge, "whom you say committed the robbery."—15. Our teachers said that she and me were seldom disobedient.—16. Alexander, whom by his genius had conquered nearly all the known world, he wept because there were no other worlds to conquer.—17. He is taller than me, but I am as tall as her.—18. The boat was pushed off from the shore, and him and his dog were left alone in the forest.—19. To live soberly, righteously, and piously, are required of all men.—20. This is the boy whom we think deserved the reward.—21. Him who expects to succeed in life, must be industrious.—22. Happy is him alone who depends not upon the pleasures of this world for his enjoyment.—23. We are as good arithmeticians as them, but they are better grammarians than us.—24. Few persons would do as much for him as he and me have done.—25. The man, he was disliked by his companions.—26. I cannot endure as much as thee.—27. Whom dost thee regard more blamable, him or his brother?—28. Dishonesty however well it may prosper for a time, yet justice will finally prevail.—29. Them that honor me, I will honor; and thee that despise me, shall be lightly esteemed.—30. All, save me, were at rest and enjoyment.—31. He and they we know, but who art thou?—32. Nobody said so but he.—33. Justice it is represented as being blind.—34. Many words they darken speech.—35. He whom in that instance was deceived, is a man of sound judgement.—36. To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind from tumultuous emotions, is the best preservatives of health.

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MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—“The *Jews* were once very powerful.”

“*Jews*” is a proper noun, in the plural number, third person, and of the masculine gender; in the nominative case, being the subject of the finite verb *were*, according to Rule II., “A noun or a pronoun, etc.”

2.—“*To die* for one’s country is noble.”

“*To die*” is a regular intransitive verb, in the infinitive mode; it is used as a noun in the nominative case, being the subject of the finite verb *is*, according to Note 1 under Rule II., “The subject of a verb, etc.”

Parse all the subjects in the foregoing exercises.

The pupils will give from memory,—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule II., and two or more from elsewhere, but on the same rule. (*See* Nota, p. 87.)

RULE III.—NOMINATIVE CASE INDEPENDENT.

A noun or a pronoun whose case does not depend upon its connection with any other word, is in the nominative case independent; as, “Oh, Frank, save me from these men!”—“Your fathers, where are they? and the prophets, do they live forever?”

NOTES.

A noun or a pronoun may be in the nominative case independent:—

I. When it represents a person or thing addressed; as, “At length, dear *child*, reflect and be wise.”—“O *Death*, where is thy sting?”—This is the nominative independent *by address*.

II. When it is joined with a participle having no dependence on any other word; as, “The *sun* *having risen*, we

departed on our journey.”—This is the nominative independent *with a participle*.

III. When it is introduced abruptly for the sake of emphasis; as, “*He* that hath ears to hear, let him hear.”—“*The north* and the *south*, thou hast created them.”—This is the nominative independent *by pleonasm*.

IV. When it is used to express an exclamation; as, “Oh, the miseries of war!”—“*Home!* how sweet the sound!”—This is the nominative independent *by exclamation*.

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—“O thee who rulest the world, hear my prayer!”

This sentence is incorrect, because *thee*, which is a pronoun in the objective case, is used to represent the name of a person addressed; but, according to Note under Rule III., “A noun or a pronoun used to represent a person or a thing addressed, is in the nominative case independent.” Therefore *thee* should be *thou*, and the sentence should be, “O thou who rulest the world, hear my prayer!”

2.—“Him being absent, nothing was done.”

This sentence is incorrect, because *him*, which is a pronoun in the objective case, is joined with a participle having no dependence on any other word; but, according to Note II. under Rule III., “A noun or a pronoun joined with, &c., is in the nominative case independent.” Therefore *him*, should be *he*, and the sentence should be, “He being absent, nothing was done.”

1. O happy us, if this be so!—2. “And thee too, Brutus!” cried Cæsar.—3. Him having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.—4. Her being the only daughter, no expense had been spared in her education.—5. Him, whom all respected, having committed the act, great surprise was felt.—6. Oh! thee, who by thy friendship hast contributed to my happiness, art thou to be lost to me?—7. And them, are not all of them to be rewarded for their long suffering?—8. Believing the man to be a doctor, or he who had cured the others, we applied to him for assistance.—9. We will go at once,—him and me.—10. He having

the key, the door could not be opened.—11. O wretched them ! what can be done for them ?—12. Oh ! happy us, surrounded by so many blessings.—13. The child is lost ; and me, whither shall I go ?—14. Him having overthrown the enemies of his country, peace was restored.—15. And do you thus speak to me, I who have so often befriended you ?—16. I dread this man, being he that has so often injured me.—17. To John and Joseph, they who had mis-spent their time at school, their father left nothing.—18. Let the pupils be divided into several classes ; especially they who read, they who study grammar, and they who study arithmetic.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—“ I came not, *friends*, to steal away your hearts.”

“ Friends ” has no grammatical connection.—“ Friends ” is a common noun, in the plural number, third person, and of the masculine gender ; it is in the nominative case independent by address, according to Note I. under Rule III.

2.—“ The *Gauls* being conquered, Cæsar returned in triumph to Rome.”

“ Gauls ” has no grammatical connection. “ Gauls ” is a proper noun, in the plural number, third person, and of the masculine gender ; it is in the nominative case independent, according to Note II. under Rule III.

Parse all the words used independently in the foregoing exercises, and the subjects in the first fifteen sentences.

The pupils will give from memory ;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule III., and two or more from elsewhere, but on the same Rule. (*See* Note, p. 87.)

RULE IV.—POSSESSIVE CASE.

A noun or a pronoun which limits the word used as the name of the thing possessed, is in the possessive case ; as, “ The boy’s hat is lost.” — “ My native land.”

NOTES.

1. The proper forms of nouns and pronouns in the possessive should always be written ; as, " The *man's* hat." — " The *ladies'* fans." — " This umbrella is *hers*."

2. The possessive and the word limited by it are sometimes connected by a hyphen and thus form a compound word ; as, " A *camel's-hair* brush."

A permanent compound word is sometimes formed from the possessive and the word limited by it, by omitting both the hyphen and the sign of the possessive ; as, *goat-skin*, for *goat's skin*.

3. When two or more nouns in the possessive are connected, and denote *joint* owners of the same thing, the sign of the possessive is suffixed to the *last* noun only ; as, " *Mason and Dixon's* line ;"—*John, Peter, and Joseph's* teacher.

4. When one or more of the nouns connected in the possessive are used for the sake of emphasis, the sign of the possessive is suffixed to *each* ; as, " It is *Frank's*, not *Anna's* fault."

5. When two or more nouns in the possessive are connected, and denote *separate* owners of *different* things, the sign of the possessive is suffixed to *each* noun ; as, " *Worcester's* and *Walker's* Dictionary ;"—" *Brown's, Wells's, and Murray's* Grammar."

6. When two or more words are closely united, and form essentially one *complex* noun, the sign should be suffixed to the last only ; as, " *Louis the Fourteenth's* reign ;"—" *St. John the Baptist's* head."

7. When two or more possessive nouns in apposition are governed by a noun *expressed*, the governing word is usually placed after the others, and the sign suffixed to the last only of the possessives ; as, " For David my *servant's* sake."

8. The relation of property may also be expressed by

the proposition *of* and the objective; as, "The rays *of the sun*," for "The *sun's* rays."

9. When the last word of a complex name or title is in the objective case, it is preferable to express the idea of possession by a preposition and its object; thus, instead of "The *President of the Republic's* message," say, "The message *of the President of the Republic*."

10. A noun governing the possessive plural, should not be made plural, unless the sense requires it. Thus: say, "We have changed our mind," if only one purpose or opinion is meant.

11. The possessive case should not be prefixed to a participle that is not taken in all respects as a noun. The following phrase is therefore wrong: "Have you a rule for *your* thus parsing the participle?—Expunge *your*."

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL I.—"Mary's and Jane's mother is sick."

This phrase is incorrect, because, according to Note 3 under Rule IV., the sign of the possessive is suffixed to each of two nouns connected in the possessive and denoting joint owners of the same thing. The sign should be suffixed to the last noun only, and the sentence should be, "Mary and Jane's mother is sick."

2.—"I respect my father as well as my mother's wishes."

This sentence is incorrect, because the sign of the possessive is not suffixed to the noun *father*, which is one of two nouns connected in the possessive; but, according to Note 5 under Rule IV., "When two or more nouns in the possessive are connected, and denote separate owners of different things, etc." Therefore *father* should be *father's*, and the sentence should be, "I respect my father's as well as my mother's wishes."

1. Moses rod was turned into a serpent.—2. Gates and Burgoyne's troops fought at Saratoga.—3. Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord.—4. The thief restored neither Jackson nor Andrews's goods.—5. William's

H. Prescott's "Conquest of Peru" is a very interesting work.—6. The volume was printed at Lowell's, the publishers' and booksellers'.—7. The mistake was the general not the soldiers'.—8. The King of England's edict was revoked.—9. The admiral's vessel's masts were shot away.—10. Adopted by the Goths in their pronouncing the Greek.—11. We all have talents committed to our charges.—12. We met at my brother's partner's house.—13. Were Cain's and Abel's occupations the same?—14. Sunday is also called the day of the Lord.—15. It was necessary to have both the surgeon and the physician's advice.—16. The bill had the cashier, but not the president's signature.—17. A mother's tenderness and a father's care are nature's gifts for man's advantage.—18. Man's chief good is an upright mind.—19. The fire destroyed Lee, Taylor, and Lepage's store.—20. Napoleon's and Wellington's armies deserved such commanders.—21. No means remained to prevent his escaping.—22. Whose conduct was most praiseworthy? Charles.—23. The movements of the army gained the king, as well as the people's, approbation.—24. The Representatives' assembled on the second of February.—25. The world's government is not left to chance.—26. By offending others, we expose ourselves.—27. The pious cheerfully submit to their lot.—28. He was Louis the Fifteenth's son's heir.—29. Six months' wages will then be due.—30. The horse got away in consequence of me neglecting to fasten the gate.—31. The situation enabled him to earn something, without losing too much time from his studies.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—"Frank writes a letter with his *father's* permission."

"Father's" is a common noun, in the sing. number, third person, and of the masculine gender, it is in the possessive case, and limits the noun *permission*, according to Rule IV., "A noun or a pronoun which, etc."

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2.—“ *George Washington's Farewell Address* has just been read.”

“ *George Washington's* ” is a complex proper noun, in the sing. n., 3rd pers., masc. gender; it is in the poss. case, and limits *Address*, according to Rule IV., “ A noun or a pronoun which, etc.”

Parse all the nouns and pronouns in the *possessive case*, in the foregoing exercises; also, all the *subjects* and *nominative cases independent*.

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule IV., and two or more from elsewhere, but on the same Rule. (*See* Nota, p. 87.)

RULE V.—OBJECTIVE CASE.

A noun or a pronoun which is the object of an action or of a relation, is in the objective case; as, “ Cast thy *bread* upon the waters.”—“ The judge heard him.”

Action refers to the action asserted by a transitive *verb* in the active voice, and *relation* to the relation denoted by a *preposition*.

NOTES.

1. A noun or a pronoun may be the object of an action expressed by a transitive verb, or by an intransitive verb used transitively; as, “ Strive to *perform* your duties, and your friends *will respect* you.” “ The peasant *lived* a life of toil.”

A verb may have several objects connected by one or more conjunctions; as, “ He shall no more *behold* wife, friends, or children.”

2. A noun or a pronoun may also be the object of an action expressed by the *participle* of a transitive verb, or of an intransitive verb used transitively; as, “ A lake was seen *reflecting* the rays of the sun.”

3. A preposition should never be placed between a verb

and the object of the action asserted by the verb; thus, "He did not want *for* any thing," should be, "He did not want any *thing*."

4. A verb in the passive voice should never be used to govern an objective case, because, in this voice, the *object of the action* asserted by the verb is the *subject* of the verb: thus, "I was *denied* this *privilege*," should be, "This *privilege* was denied me."

5. An intransitive verb, or its participle, should not be used to govern the objective case; thus, "I will sit *me* down to rest," should be, "I will sit down to rest."

OBS.—An intransitive verb may have an objective after it; as, "He believed it to be *me*."

6. Transitive verbs are often followed by two objectives in apposition; as, "God called the *firmament* *Heaven*."—"Nature has made *Milton* a *genius*."

7. When a verb is followed by two words in the appearance of objectives, 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*."—"I bought him a book," means, "I bought a book *for* him."

8. A noun or a pronoun is sometimes the object of the relation denoted by two or more prepositions; or of a preposition and a transitive verb; as, "He went *into* and passed *through* the *house*."—"The general *proposed*, and afterwards determined *upon*, his *plans* of operations."

In all such expressions the object should be placed after the first verb or preposition, and each of the others should be followed by a pronoun representing the object; as, "He went *into* the *house* and passed *through* *it*."—"The general *proposed* his *plans* of operations, and afterwards determined *upon* *them*."

9. The object of an action or of a relation is generally placed after the verb or the preposition by which it is governed; as "I love to hear a hearty *laugh* *above* all other *sounds*;"—"except when used for the sake of em-

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phasis; as, "*Him, whom I can not trust, I can not respect.*"

10. The object should be separated from the verb by an explanatory phrase or clause; thus, "*He assisted, an act deserving much praise, the poor people who asked his aid,*" should be, "*He assisted the poor people who asked his aid, an act, etc.*"

11. When the object is a relative or an interrogative, it may precede the verb, or both the verb and the subject; as, "*Whom did the government appoint to the command?*"

12. The relative *that* always precedes the verb or the preposition by which it is governed; "*He is the best man that I know.*"—"Who, that we can appeal to, will decide differently?"

13. *Whom* and *which* are sometimes placed before the preposition by which they are governed, but inelegantly; thus, "*Whom did you speak to?*" should be, "*To whom did you speak?*" They usually precede the verb; as, "*The country which I saw.*"

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL I.—"Our uncle allowed my brother and I to accompany him."

This sentence is incorrect, because the pronoun *I*, which is in the nominative case, is used as one of the objects of the action expressed by the verb *allowed*. *I* should be *me*, and the sentence should be, "Our uncle allowed my brother and me to accompany him."

2.—"We were shown several beautiful pictures."

This sentence is incorrect, because the noun *pictures* is used as the object of *were shown*, a verb in the passive voice; but, according to Note 4 under Rule V., "A verb in the passive voice should never be used, etc." Therefore the sentence should be, "Several beautiful pictures were shown to us."

3.—"The weary pilgrim sat himself down by the way side."

This sentence is incorrect, because the pronoun *himself* is used as

the object of the intransitive verb *sat* ; it should be omitted, and the sentence should be, "The weary pilgrim sat down by the way side 2."

1. John was presented the highest prize as a reward for his proficiency in French.—2. Pupils expelled from other colleges, are not admitted here.—3. Who shall we send on this errand?—4. The ambitious are always seeking to aggrandize.—5. We endeavored to agree the parties.—6. The boy's parents resolved not to permit of such conduct.—7. If it had been her, she would have told us.—8. Let that remain a secret between you and I.—9. It is our duty to feel for and to assist, those in want.—10. He to whom much is given, much will be required of.—11. False accusation cannot diminish from real merit.—12. I fear thee wilt suffer much if thee pursuest thy present course.—13. This society does not allow of personal reflections.—14. Napoleon was an emperor, whom if his ambition had not governed him, would have adorned the age which he lived in.—15. He undertook as every one should do, his task, with a determination to succeed.—16. He that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.—17. Esteeming themselves wise, they became fools.—18. He was offered the control of the entire school.—19. Who did you accompany in your journey across the prairies?—20. The Indians have been deprived of and driven from their former hunting-grounds.—21. Thou, who I am proud to include among my friends, I will always respect.—22. The gentleman, who I was with, is a book-keeper in Hamel the jeweler and watch-maker's.—23. Who did you desire to purchase the books? him or I?—24. I regret that it is not in my power to accept of your kind and generous offer.—25. He was not allowed the privilege to debate the question the second time.—26. They were refused the benefit of their recantation.—27. It is not I, that he is angry with.—28. They were refused entrance into, and forcibly driven from the house.

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MODEL FOR PARSING.

"They denied *me* this *privilege*."

"Privilege" is a com. noun, in the sing. n., 3rd. person., and of the neuter gender; it is in the objective case, being the object of the action asserted by the verb *denied*, according to Rule V., "A noun or a pronoun, etc."

"Me" is a pers. pron., in the sing. n., 1st pers., and of the masc. gender; it is in the objective case, being the object of the relation denoted by the preposition *to* (understood), according to Note 7 under Rule V., "When a verb, etc."

Parse the nouns and the pronouns in the *objective case*, in the foregoing exercises; also, the *subjects, nominative cases independent, and possessive cases*.

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule V., and two or more from elsewhere, and on the same Rule. (*See Nota, p. 87.*)

 RULE VI.—APPOSITION.

A noun or a pronoun used in apposition with another, is in the same case; as, "Champlain, the *founder* of Quebec, died in 1635."

NOTES.

1. A noun or a pronoun is used in *apposition*, when it is used with another noun or pronoun to explain it, or when it is added or repeated for the sake of emphasis; as, "Herschel, the *astronomer*, discovered the planet Uranus." —"They have forsaken *me*, the *Fountain* of living waters, and hewed them out *cisterns*, broken *cisterns*, that can hold no water."

2. The *common* and the *proper* name of an object are often associated, the common name being in apposition with the proper. They may be parsed together as a

complex proper noun ; as, "The *Ship Albion* is lost."—"The city of Paris is on the *River Seine*."

3. The *several proper names* which distinguish an individual, are always in apposition, and should be parsed as one complex noun ; as, "Louis Napoleon Bonaparte."

4. A noun is sometimes put in apposition with a sentence or phrase ; as, "He permitted me to make free use of his valuable library—a *kindness* which I shall always remember with gratitude."

5. When two nouns denoting the same object come together in the *possessive case*, the sign is omitted after the first ; as, "*John the Baptist's* head."

6. A noun in apposition is sometimes used without the possessive sign, to limit a noun or pronoun in the possessive case ; as, "*His* office as *judge* must be responsible." In this sentence, *judge* refers to *his*, and agrees with it in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive being omitted.

7. Transitive verbs of *choosing, naming, etc.*, are sometimes followed in the active voice by two objectives, the *first* of which is the object of the action asserted by the verb, and the other is used in apposition with it ; as, "They named the *child John*."—"They elected *him president*."

8. A *plural term* used for emphasis is sometimes used in apposition with the particulars which it represents ; as, "Happiness, honor, wealth, *all* were lost."

9. A *distributive term* in the singular number, is frequently construed in apposition with a comprehensive plural, as, "They disputed every one with his neighbor."

10. In the expression, "They dislike each other," *each* is in apposition with *they*, the meaning being, "*They, each*, dislike the other."—Also in the sentence, "They dislike one another," one is in apposition with *they*, the meaning being, "*They, one*, dislike the other."

11. Words in apposition must agree in case, but not

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necessarily in number, person, or gender; as, "*We*, the people of this flourishing country."

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction,

MODEL.—"I saw their friends, they that were here last week."

This sentence is incorrect, because *they*, which is a pronoun in the nominative case, is used in apposition with *friends*, which is in the objective case; it should be in the objective. *They* should be *them*, and the sentence should be, "I saw their friends, them that were here last week."

1. The book is from my brother Henry, he that keeps the bookstore.—2. The purchased articles were left at Neil's, the jeweler's.—3. The gardener, him who brought those roses, has a beautiful collection of flowers.—4. Richard the Lion-hearted found the government of England in John's, his brother's, hands.—5. The dress-maker, her whom you recommended, has disappointed me.—6. The chief is here, him who was at the fort yesterday.—7. Philip, the gardener, him that gave me the tulips, has promised me a piony.—3. Milton the poet lived during Cromwell's the Protector's administration.—4. Be kind to your mother, she who loves you so dearly.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—"Alexander, the coppersmith, did me great harm."

"Coppersmith" is a com. noun, in the sing. n., 3rd pers., masc. g.; it is in the nominative case, being used in apposition with *Alexander*, which is in the nominative case, according to Rule VI., "A noun or a pronoun, etc."

2.—"General, captain, private, all were hurried into the same grave."

"All" is a pronominal adj., representing the nouns, *general*, *captain*, and *private*, in the plural number, 3rd pers., and masc. g.; it is in the nominative case, being used in apposition with *general*, *captain*, and *private*, which are the subjects of the finite verb *were*

104 SYNTAX.—RULE VII.—SAME CASE AFTER A VERB.

hurried, according to Note 8 under Rule VI, "A plural term used for emphasis, etc.; and Rule VI., "A noun, etc."

Parse the nouns and pronouns in *apposition* in the foregoing exercises; also, the *subjects, nominative cases independent, possessive, and objective cases*.

The pupils will give from memory;—two or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule VI., and two or more from elsewhere, on the same Rule. (See Nota, p. 87.)

RULE VII.—SAME CASE AFTER A VERB.

When a noun or pronoun coming after an intransitive verb, means the same person or thing as the noun or pronoun preceding the verb, it is in the same case; as, "He returned a friend, who came a foe."—"We believe *it* to be *him* that spoke to us."—"The *child* was named *Louis*."—"It could not be *he*."—"Napoleon Bonaparte became emperor ⁵."

NOTES.

1. A noun or pronoun is *after* or *before* a verb or a participle when it *follows* or *precedes* the verb or the participle in the natural order of thought or expression. Thus, "A *man* *he* was to all the country dear," in the natural or usual order would be, "*He* was a *man* dear to all the country."

2. The verbs which most frequently separate nouns and pronouns meaning the same person or thing, are *be, become, appear, grow, etc.*; and the verbs *call, choose, consider, make, etc.*, in the passive voice.

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction,

MODEL.—I. "The man supposed that it was *him* that came last."

This sentence is incorrect, because *him* is a personal pronoun in

the objective case, referring to the same person as *it*, which is in the nominative case, being the subject of the finite verb *was*; but, according to Rule VII., "A noun or pronoun placed after an intransitive verb, etc." Therefore *him* should be *he*, and the sentence should be, "The man supposed it to be he that came last."

2.—"The man supposed it to be he that came last."

This sentence is incorrect, because *he* is a personal pronoun in the nominative case, referring to the same person as *it*, which is in the objective case, being the object of the action asserted by the verb *supposed*; but, according to Rule VII., "A noun or a pronoun, etc." Therefore *he* should be *him*, and the sentence should be, "The man supposed it to be him that came last."

1. They did not know that it was him.—2. They believed it to be I.—3. It was me that did it, sir, said the lad.—4. It matters little whom your associates may be, their influence has its effect upon you.—5. It appears difficult to determine whom it was, that first discovered the power of steam.—6. If I were him or her, I would improve the opportunities presented to me.—7. It was him that issued the order, although the people for a long time disbelieved it to be he.—8. We all thought it to be she.—9. Whom did he think you were?—10. Thou art him whom they described.—11. We can no longer doubt its being John who made the discovery.—12. It is not me, that he is angry with.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"Joseph was made ruler over Egypt."

"Ruler" is a common noun, sing. n., 3rd pers., masc. g.; it is in the nom. case after the intr. verb *was made*, because it denotes the same person as *Joseph*, which is in the nom. case, being the subject of the finite verb *was made*, according to Rule VII., "A noun or a pronoun placed after, etc."

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule VII., and two or more from elsewhere on the same Rule. (See Nota, p. 87.)

RULE VIII.—ADJECTIVES.

An adjective relates to the noun or pronoun which it qualifies or limits; as, "A *good man*"—"It is *good*."
 "Two *boys*."

NOTES.

1. An adjective may be used to qualify or limit a phrase or sentence; as, "To see the sun is *pleasant*."—"That he should refuse, is not *strange*."

2. An adjective is sometimes used to modify another adjective; as, "*Pale red* silk."—"Three *hundred* men."

3. An adjective is often used to qualify a noun and another adjective, taken as one compound term. The most distinguishing quality should be expressed next to the noun; as, "A *poor* old man,"—not, "An old *poor* man."

4. An adjective is sometimes used *abstractly* after a participle, or a verb in the infinitive mode, that is, without direct reference to any noun or pronoun; as, "Being *honest* is better than being *wealthy*."—"To be *wise* and *good* is to be *great* and *noble*."

5. Nouns are sometimes used to perform the office of adjectives, as, "A *stone* cistern."—"A *gold* watch"; and adjectives, to perform the office of nouns; as, "The *great* and *good* of all ages."

6. The comparative degree can only be used in reference to *two objects*, or classes of objects; as, "John is *taller* than Richard". The superlative compares one or more things with *all others* of the same class, whether few or many; as, "Richard is the *tallest* of my pupils."

The superlative is often used when only two objects are compared, but improperly; as, "The *weakest* (instead of *weaker*) of the two."

7. When the comparative degree is used, the latter term of comparison should never *include* the former; as, "Socrates was wiser than *any* Athenian," should be, "Socrates was wiser than *any other* Athenian."

8. When the superlative degree is used, the latter term of comparison should never *exclude* the former; thus, "Sirius is the brightest of all *the other fixed stars*," should be "Sirius is the brightest of all *the fixed stars*."

9. Comparative terminations, and adverbs of degree, should not be applied to adjectives that are not susceptible of comparison; thus, "A *more infinite* variety," "There is no law so universal," etc., should be "A *greater* variety." "There is no law so *general*," etc."

10. Double comparatives and superlatives should be carefully avoided; as, "A *more serene* temper," "The *most straitest* road," should be, "A *more serene* or a *serener* temper," "The *straitest* road."

11. In expressing a comparison, if both nouns relate to the same object, the article *an* or *a*, or *the*, should not be prefixed to the latter noun, if to different objects, it should not be omitted. If we say, "Burke is a better tanner than currier," we refer to but one person, Burke, and declare that he is better in the capacity of a tanner than in that of a currier. If we say, "Burke is a better tanner than *a* currier," or "*the* currier," we compare two persons, Burke and a currier, and declare that Burke is the better tanner of the two.

12. Adjectives are sometimes improperly used for adverbs; thus, "*Miserable* poor," "*Excellent* well," "He writes *elegant*," should be, "*Miserably* poor" *Excellently* well," "He writes *elegantly*."

13. When an adjective follows a finite verb, and is not followed by a noun or a pronoun expressed or understood, it relates to the subject of the verb; as, "*I am glad* that the door is made *wide*."—"He was pronounced *guilty*."

14. When the adjective is necessarily plural, or necessarily singular, the noun should be made so too; as, "He stood *six feet* high",—not, "*Six foot*"; except *many* when immediately followed by *a*; as, "*Many a* flower".

Certain nouns, used collectively, retain the singular form when

preceded by numeral adjectives expressing plurality ; as, " A *hundred head* of cattle ".—" A *fleet* of *twenty sail* ".

When a compound adjective is composed of a numeral and a noun, the latter is never made plural ; as, " A *ten-foot* rod was used ".—" He lost three *five-dollar* notes ".

15. When adjectives are connected by *and*, *or*, or *nor*, the shortest and simplest should, in general, be placed first ; as, " He is *older* and *more respectable* than his brother ".

16. Adjectives generally stand immediately *before* the nouns, but *after* the pronouns to which they relate ; as, " A *generous* man ".—" *They* are *old* and *feeble* ". There are many exceptions to this rule of position, especially in poetry. In general, the adjective should be so placed that there can be no doubt as to what noun or pronoun it qualifies or limits.

17. A pronominal or a numeral adjective precedes another adjective which qualifies the same noun ; as, " The *three* dishonest clerks were arrested ".—" *That* accomplished young officer distinguished himself ".

18. When two numeral adjectives, one denoting unity, the other plurality, precede a noun, the noun is made plural, and the adjective denoting plurality is placed next to it ; as, " The first *two days* ".—" The last *three months* ".

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction. . . .

MODEL 1.—" A more healthier place cannot be found."

This sentence is incorrect, because *more healthier*, which is a double form of the comparative, is used ; but, according to Note under Rule VIII., " Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided." Therefore the sentence should be, " A healthier (or a more healthy) place cannot be found."

2.—" Iron is more useful than all the metals."

This sentence is incorrect, because *metals*, the latter term of comparison, includes *iron*, the former ; that is, they are not considered separately ; but, according to Note under Rule VIII., " When the

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comparative degree is used, etc." Therefore the sentence should be, "Iron is more useful than all the other metals".

1. The most noblest act of Washington's life was the surrender of his commission.—2. How deep is the water? About six fathom.—3. Trisyllables are often accented on the former syllable.—4. The Scriptures are more valuable than any writings.—5. His writings are remarkable chaste and clear.—6. The four last leaves were torn from the volume.—7. More superior advantages are nowhere offered.—8. Of all other figures of speech, irony should be the most carefully employed.—9. Nothing grieved him so much as the ingratitude of the son whom he had loved so dear.—10. He speaks very fluent, and reasons justly.—11. The oldest two sons have removed to the westward.—12. There vice shall meet an irrevocable and fatal doom.—13. How much more are ye better than the fowls!—14. Of all other ill habits, idleness is the most incorrigible.—15. Young promising men are often led astray by temptation.—16. The floor was formed of six inches board.—17. This was the most convincing and plainest argument.—18. I have just bought a sorrel handsome horse, and a Mexican small mule.—19. They lived conformable to the rules of prudence.—20. The tongue is like a race horse, which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries.—21. Profane swearing is, of all other vices, the most inexcusable.—22. He spoke with such propriety that I understood him the best of all the others who spoke on the subject.—23. The lot is twenty-five foot wide.—24. Which are the two more remarkable isthmuses in the world?—25. Israel loved Joseph more than all his other children, because he was the son of his old age.—26. The best and the most wisest men often meet with discouragements.—27. He showed us a more agreeable and easier way.—28. The field yielded about twenty-five bushel to the acre.—29. Which is the most northern division of the Eastern Continent? Asia or Europe?—30. It has often been said that great bodies move slowly.

that great bodies move slow.—14. The preacher spoke earnest, and his words deeply impressed the young sinful man.—15. That opinion is too general to be easily corrected.—16. Tell him the two first classes have read, and all the pupils know their lessons.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—“The atmosphere is mild.”

“Mild” is an adjective in the positive degree (*mild, milder, mildest*), and relates to the noun *atmosphere*, which it qualifies, according to Rule VIII., “An adjective relates, etc.”

2.—“They left behind them the half-hidden cottage.”

“Half-hidden” is a compound adj., not admitting of comparison; —it relates to the noun *cottage*, which it qualifies, according to Note under Rule VIII., “An adjective, etc.”

Parse the adjectives in the foregoing exercises; also, the nouns and pronouns in *apposition*, and in the *same case after the verb*.

The pupils will give from memory; —three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule VIII., and three or more from elsewhere, on the same Rule. (*See* Nota, p. 87.)

RULE IX.—PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

A pronominal adjective either accompanies its noun or represents it understood; as “*This* man.”—“*All* men.”—“*All* join to guard what *each* desires to gain,” i. e., *All* (men) join to guard what *each* (man) desires to gain.”

NOTES.

1. Pronominal adjectives that imply unity or plurality, must agree with their nouns in number; as, *That* book, *those* books.

2. *This* and *that* refer to nouns in the singular number; *these* and *those*, to nouns in the plural; as, *This* hat; *these* hats.

3. *This* and *these* refer to what is near ; as, “ *This* wall is well built. ” *That* and *those* refer to what is distant, or to what is farther away than something else ; as, “ *Those* towers are very high. ”

4. When *this* and *that*, or *these* and *those*, are contrasted, *this* or *these* should represent the latter of the antecedent terms, and *that* or *those*, the former ; as, “ Reason is superior to instinct ; *this* (instinct) belongs to the brute, *that* (reason), to man. ”

5. *Them* should never be used as an adjective in lieu of *those* ; thus, “ I sold *them* goods,” should be “ I sold *those* goods. ”

6. *Each* refers singly to two or to more than two objects ; as, “ *Each* pupil studied his lesson. ”

7. *Either* and *neither* are used with reference to two things only ; when more than two are referred to, *any* should take the place of *either*, and *none* of *neither*. We may say *either of the two*, *neither of the two* ; but *any of the three*, *none of the four*. ” *Any* and *none*, let it be remembered, imply either one or more than one.

8. *Every* refers to each of more than two objects, and includes all taken separately or singly ; it is never used without a noun expressed ; as, “ *Every* tree is known by its fruit. ”

Every is sometimes joined to a plural noun preceded by a numeral adjective ; as, “ *Every six weeks* ; ” “ *every hundred years*. ”

9. The reciprocal expression, *one an other*, should not be applied to two objects, nor *each other*, or *one the other* to more than two : because reciprocity between two is some act or relation of each or one to *the other*, an object definite, and not of one to *an other*, which is indefinite ; but reciprocity among three or more is of one, each, or every one, not to *one other* solely, or *the other* definitely, but to *others*, a plurality, or to *an other*, taken indefinitely and implying this plurality.

10. *One* is often used indefinitely, to signify persons in general; as, "*One* ought to pity the distresses of mankind."

11. *Which* and *what*, and the compounds formed from them, refer to nouns in the singular or in the plural.

12. A pronominal adjective is parsed as an adjective when the noun which it limits, is mentioned; as, "*Each* boy's conduct was deserving of praise."

A pronominal adjective may be parsed as a pronoun, that is, as representing a noun, when it is correctly used without an article, and the noun is not mentioned; as, "*Each* was praised for his good conduct."

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction,

MODEL 1.—"Those sort of words provoke harsh feelings."

This sentence is incorrect, because *those*, which is a pronominal adjective in the plural, is used to refer to the noun *sort*, which is in the singular number; but, according to Note under Rule IX., "*This* and *that* refer, etc." Therefore *those* should be *that*, and the sentence should be, "That sort of words provokes harsh feelings."

2—"Go and tell them boys to be still."

This sentence is incorrect, because the pronoun *them* is used as an adjective; but, according to Note under Rule IX., "*Them* should never, etc." Therefore *them* should be *those*, and the sentence should be, "Go and tell those boys to be still."

1. Those molasses was brought from the West Indies.
- 2. Either of the ten young men was considered qualified.—3. Two negatives, in English, destroy one another.
- 4. Hope is as strong an incentive to worthy action, as fear: this is the anticipation of good, that of evil.—5. Are either of these men known? No: neither of them have any connexion here.—6. Here are seven; but neither of them will answer.—7. He bade farewell to his friends and foes; with those he left his peace, and with these, his love.—8. Any one of the two subjects would have been

foes; with those he left his peace, and with these, his love.—8. Any one of the two subjects would have been very interesting.—9. Teachers like to see their pupils polite to each other.—10. That different species of reptiles are not found in the same latitude.—11. On either side, the soldiers displayed the greatest courage.—12. He has left his house this last three months.—13. Every pebble and every blade of grass testify to the greatness of their Creator.—14. David and Jonathan loved one another tenderly.—15. I bought those books at a very low price.—16. Each stairs lead to the same room.—17. Things of these sort are easily understood.—18. The poor want some advantages which the rich enjoy; but we should not therefore account those happy, and these miserable.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—“Those men only are great who are good.”

“Those” is a demonstrative pronominal adjective; it cannot be compared; it relates to the noun *men*, which it limits, according to Rule IX., “A pronominal adjective, etc.”

2.—“Each of the candidates presented his claims to the position.”

“Each” is a distributive pronominal adj.; it represents the noun *candidate* (understood), with which it agrees in the sing. number, 3rd pers., masc. or fem. gender, according to Rule IX., “A pronominal adj., etc.”; it is in the nominative case, being the subject of the finite verb *presented*, according to Rule II., “A noun or a pronoun, etc.”

Parse the pronominal adjectives in the preceding exercises; also, the nouns and pronouns in apposition, in the same case after the verb, and the adjectives.

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule IX., and two or more from elsewhere, on the same Rule.

RULE X.—PRONOUNS.

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or with the word for which it stands, in gender, number, and person ; as, "If a man takes a wrong step, *he* should not continue in *his* course."—"Thou *who* speakest, art the man."

NOTES.

I. The following are exceptions :—

I. *We*, which is a pronoun in the plural number, is sometimes used by authors, editors, reviewers, etc., to represent a noun in the singular ; as, "*We* cheerfully admit the following communication into our columns, but do not hold *ourself* responsible for the sentiments which it embodies."

II. *You*, etc., which are in the plural number, are generally used instead of *thou*, etc., to represent nouns in the singular ; as, "Louis, have *you* known *your* lesson ?"

III. *It*, which is of the neuter gender, is often used instead of *he* or *she* to represent the names of infants, animals, etc. ; as, "The *child* had not yet recovered from *its* fright." It is also used indefinitely.

IV. *He* or *she* is used instead of *it*, to represent the name of a thing without sex, which has been personified ; as, "*Pleasure* deludes *her* followers with many a flattering promise."

2. When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of unity, the pronoun should be in the singular number, and of the neuter ; as, "The *nation* will enforce *its* laws." When it is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun should agree with it in the plural number ; as, "The *party* were quarreling among *themselves* at the time of *their* capture."

The collectives *many*, *few*, *dozen*, *score*, etc., preceded by *a*, are represented by pronouns in the plural ; as, "*A* great *many* lost *their* lives in *their* attempts to capture the fort, but *a few* effected *their* entrance."

3. When a pronoun has two or more antecedents con-

nected by *and*, it must agree with them in the plural number ; as “ Charles *and* Edward excel in *their* studies.”

4. Two or more antecedents connected by *and*, do not require a plural noun : 1st When they express merely one person or thing, as, “ The celebrated *painter* and *artist* died before *he* reached Rome ; ” 2nd When they are emphatically distinguished, and in the singular, as, “ The *good man*, and the *sinner too*, shall have *his* reward ; ” 3rd When they are preceded by *each*, *every*, *no*, or a singular distributive, being then considered separately, as, “ Every *act*, every *word*, every *thought*, has *its* effect upon our character. ”

5. If two or more antecedents are connected by *as well as*, *but not*, *and also*, etc., they belong to different propositions, and a pronoun is used to represent the first noun only ; as, “ *Frank*, but not his cousins, was there, for I saw *him*. ” — “ *They*, as well as he, are displeased with John. ”

6. If the antecedents are of *different persons*, the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third ; as, “ Thou, he, and I, excel in *our* studies. ” — “ Thou and he excel in *your* studies. ”

7. A pronoun which has two or more antecedents in the singular connected by *or* or *nor*, should be in the singular ; as, “ *John* or *William* will not lose *his* time. ”

8. If one of the antecedents connected by *or* or *nor* is in the plural, the pronoun representing them should be plural ; and the plural antecedent should be placed nearest to the pronoun ; as, “ Neither the *captain* nor his *men* were aware of *their* danger. ”

9. A singular antecedent with the adjective *many* is represented by a pronoun in the singular, as, “ *Many a boy* neglects *his* opportunities for improvement ; ” but such an antecedent sometimes admits a pronoun in the plural, when not in the same clause, or member, as, “ Though *many a warning* was given, he disregarded *them* all. ”

10. An antecedent which is either masculine or feminine is usual-

ly represented by a pronoun in the masculine; as, "A *parent* corrects the child whom *he* loves."

11. Antecedents in the singular number, but of different genders, connected by *or* or *nor*, cannot be represented by a single pronoun; a separate pronoun must be used to represent each antecedent; as, "The *boy* or the *girl* has torn *his* or *her* book"; this is inelegant, and would be better thus: "The *boy* has torn *his* book, or the *girl* has torn *hers*."

12. *It* is often used independently as the subject of a verb, referring to some noun, pronoun, infinitive, or clause, in the predicate, without regard to the person, number, or gender of the latter; as, "*It is I*."—" *It is thou*."—" *It is she*."—" *It is Walter's children*."—" *It is the mark of a generous spirit to forgive injuries*."—" *It is strange that you have forgotten me*."

13. A pronoun should not be introduced in connexion with words that belong more properly to the antecedent, or to an other pronoun; as, "Many words *they* darken speech."—Expunge *they*.

14. A change of number in the second person, is inelegant and improper; as, "I cannot forget that *thou* wast my friend, and I will not repay *you* (*thee*) with ingratitude."

15. The relative *who* is applied only to persons, and to things personified; as, "The *man who* spoke to him;"—"Thou *sun, who* rulest the day!"

16. The relative *which* is applied to animals, to infants, and to inanimate things; as, "The horse *which* Alexander rode;"—"The child *which* was lost, has been found;"—"The rain *which* fell."

17. Nouns of multitude, unless they express persons directly as such, should not be represented by the relative *who*; to say, "The *family whom* I visited," would hardly be proper; *that* would here be better. When such nouns are strictly of the neuter gender, *which* may represent them; as, "The *mob which* filled the streets, seemed bent on violence."

18. When a proper name of a person is used merely as a word, or to denote a character, it is represented by *which*, and not by *who*; as, "He alluded to *Washington*, *which* is a name dear to every American."

19. The relative *that* may be applied either to persons or to things. The following are the principal instances in which it is used preferably to *who* or *which*:—I. After an adjective or an adverb in the *superlative degree*; as, "Humility is one of the *most amiable* virtues *that* we can possess."—II. After the adjective *same*; as, "This is the *same* person *that* I met before."—III. After *who* used interrogatively; as, "*Who, that* indulges in vice, can be happy?"—IV. After two or more antecedents which separately require *who* and *which*; as, "He spoke of the *men and things that* he had seen."—V. After *all, every, etc.*, and similar antecedents limited in meaning by the relative clause following; as, "All *that* heard him, were pleased."—VI. After the personal pronoun *it* used indefinitely; as, "*It* is you *that* command."—VII. And, in general, where the propriety of *who* or *which* is doubtful; as, "The little child *that* was placed in the midst."

20. When several relative clauses come in succession, and have a similar dependence in respect to the antecedent, the same pronoun must be employed in each; as, "The friend *who* was here, and *who* entertained us so much, will never be able to visit us again."

21. The relative in the objective, should not be omitted, when it is necessary to give connexion to the sentence; as, "The good *which* men do is often buried with them."—"He is still in the situation *in which* you saw him."

22. A relative having antecedents of different persons, agrees in person with the antecedent nearest to it; as, "You are a *man who* has great power."—"You, *who* are a man of great mind, are respected."

23. To prevent ambiguity or obscurity, the relative should be placed as near as possible to the antecedent;

thus, "The *general* ordered his men to sleep on their arms, *who* knew the treachery of the enemy," should be, "The *general, who* knew the treachery of the enemy, ordered, etc."

24. A pronoun should not be used to represent an adjective or a verb: thus, "He resolved that he would be *truthful, which* is a trait that all admire," should be, "He resolved that he would be *truthful*, for *truthfulness* is a trait that all admire."

25. An adverb should not be used where a preposition and a relative pronoun would better express the relation of the terms; as, "A cause *where* (for *in which*) justice is so much concerned."

26. Where a pronoun or a pronominal adjective will not express the meaning clearly, the noun must be repeated, or inserted in stead of it; thus, "Every difference of opinion is not that of principle," should be, "Every difference of opinion is not a *difference* of principle."

27. The pronoun *what* should never be used for the conjunction *that*; as, "The post-boy is not so weary but *what* he can whistle." *What* should be *that*.

28. *Whom* and *which* should generally follow the prepositions, but should precede the verbs, by which they are governed;—*that* always precedes; as, "The difficulties *with which* he contended."—"The same difficulties *that* you experienced, happened to me."

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—"Charles and Henry are diligent in his studies."

This sentence is incorrect, because, according to Note under Rule X., *his*, which is in the singular number, should agree with the antecedents *Charles* and *Henry*, in the plural number. *His* should be *their*, and the sentence should be, "Charles and Henry are diligent in their studies."

2.—“ You and I have been commended for your behavior.”

This sentence is incorrect, because *your*, which is a pronoun in the second person, is used to represent the pronoun *I* in the first person, and *you* in the second; but, according to Note under Rule X., “ If the antecedents are of different persons, etc. ” Therefore *your* should be *our*, and the sentence should be, “ You and I have been commended for our behavior.”

3.—“ The tiger is a beast of prey, who destroys without pity.”

This sentence is incorrect, because the relative *who* is applied to its antecedent the noun *tiger*, which is the name of an animal; but, according to Note under Rule X., “ *Which* is applied to animals, etc. ” Therefore *who* should be *which*, and the sentence should be, “ The tiger is a beast of prey, which destroys without pity.”

4.—“ Thou hast no right to judge who art a party concerned.”

This sentence is incorrect, because the relative *who* is separated from its antecedent, the pronoun *thou*, and thereby produces obscurity; but, according to Note under Rule X., “ To prevent ambiguity or obscurity, etc. ” Therefore *who* should be placed near its antecedent, the pronoun *thou*, and the sentence should be, “ Thou, who art a party concerned, hast no right to judge.”

1. I gave him oats, but he would not eat it.—2. The Senate passed the bill before they adjourned.—3. The cattle who graze upon a thousand hills, are mine.—4. There is no doubt but what they will succeed.—5. Every officer and every private endeavored to do their duty.—6. Thou art my brother's friend, else would I reprove.—7. Newton is the greatest philosopher whom England ever produced.—8. You and your friends cannot always have their wishes satisfied.—9. He cannot associate with the virtuous, who is vile.—10. These people they are all very ignorant.—11. Some men are too ignorant to be humble; without which there can be no docility.—12. Next to the knowledge of God, this of ourselves seems most worthy of our endeavors.—13. I know of no rule how it may be done.—14. We proceeded immediately to the place we were directed.—15. The curiosities which he has brought home, and that we shall have the pleasure of seeing, are said to be very rare.—16. He was

the drollest fellow whom I ever saw.—17. He alluded to Phalaris,—who is a name for all that is cruel.—18. The court, who has great influence upon the public manners, ought to be very exemplary.—19. The horse, who is a noble animal, ranks next to man.—20. Columbus, as well as his brother, felt confident that they would succeed in their enterprise.—21. Neither wealth nor talent, who is so much envied, can alone bring happiness.—22. Thou art thyself the man that committed the act, who hast thus condemned it.—23. Be accurate in all you say or do; for it is important in all the concerns of life.—24. There is a certain majesty in simplicity which is far above the quaintness of wit.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—“In a republic, the citizens elect their own rulers.”

“Their” is a pers. pron., plur. n., 3rd pers., masc. gender to agree with the noun *citizens* for which it stands, according to Rule X., “A pronoun must agree, etc.; it is in the poss. case, and is governed by the noun *rulers*, according to Rule IV., “A noun or a pronoun, etc.”

2.—“John, who was at school, wrote a letter to his father.”

“Who” is a relative pronoun, in the sing. number, 3rd pers., masc. g., to agree with its antecedent *John*, according to Rule X., “A pronoun must agree, etc.; it is in the nom. case, being the subject of the finite verb *was*, according to Rule II., “A noun or a pronoun which, etc.

Parse all the *pronouns* in the foregoing exercises; also, the *adjectives*, and the *pronominal adjectives*.

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on also syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule X.; and two for more from elsewhere, on the same Rule.

RULE XI.—AGREEMENT OF FINITE VERBS.

A finite verb agrees with its subject, or nominative, in number and person ; as, "*I read* ; thou *readest* ; he *reads*."—The boy *writes* ; the boys *write*."

NOTES.

1. The pronoun *we* or *you* even when representing a single individual, requires the plural form of a verb, because the form of the pronoun is plural ; as, "Joseph, I think that *you are* negligent."

2. A verb in the imperative agrees with the pronoun *thou* or *you* understood ; as, "Go (*thou*), this time."—"Do (*you*) your duty."

3. Every finite verb, except a verb in the imperative mode, should have a subject mentioned, unless two or more verbs are connected in the same construction.

4. A verb never agrees with a noun in the first or the second person, but with the pronoun representing such a noun ; as, "My son, you should be respectful to every body."

5. A verb having for its subject the indefinite personal pronoun *it*, and followed by another nominative, agrees with its subject *it* and not with the other nominative ; as, "*It was* you," "*It were* you."

6. The adjuncts of the nominative do not control its agreement with the verb ; as, "Three years' *interest was* demanded."—"One added to ten, *makes* eleven."

7. A verb having for its subject the infinitive mode, a phrase, or a sentence, used as a noun, agrees with it in the third person singular ; as, "*To lie is* base."—"To conquer *one's spirit is* better than to take a city."

8. A neuter or a passive verb between two nominatives should be made to agree with that which precedes it ; as, "A diphthong is two vowels joined in one syllable:" except when the terms are transposed, and the proper subject is put after the verb by *question* or *hyperbaton* ; as,

"So great an affliction to him *were* his wicked sons 6."—
 "Who *art* thou ?"

9. A verb having for its subject a collective noun, which conveys the idea of unity, is in the singular number ; as, "His *army was defeated*."

10. A collective noun which conveys the idea of plurality requires a verb in the plural ; as, "The majority *were disposed* to adopt the measure."

11. A verb having two or more subjects connected by *and* expressed or understood, is in the plural number ; as, "Truth, honor *and* mercy, *are* noble qualities."

12. When two or more subjects connected by *and*, serve merely to describe one person or thing ; they are in apposition, and the verb should be in the singular ; as, "That *statesman and patriot merits* our gratitude."

13. When singular subjects connected by *and* are preceded by *each*, *every*, *no*, and *not*, they are taken separately, and require a verb in the singular ; as, "Every officer, and every soldier, *claims* a superiority."

14. When two or more subjects are connected by *as well as*, *and also*, *but not*, etc., they belong to different propositions, and the verb mentioned agrees with the first, each of the others being the subject of a verb understood ; as, "The *nephew*, as well as the uncle, *has* trampled on the rights of his countrymen."

15. If subjects connected by *and* are of different persons, the verb agrees with the second person in preference to the third, and with the first, in preference to both the second and third ; as, "He or thou (*you*) *lovest* him."

16. When words are to be taken conjointly as subjects or antecedents, the conjunction *and* must connect them.

17. Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by *and* require a plural verb ; as, "To eat heartily, to drink much, and to use little exercise, *destroy* health."

18. A verb that has two or more subjects in the singular connected by *or* or *nor*, must agree with them in

the singular number ; as, " Neither the time *nor* the cause of the accident *is known*."

19. If one of the subjects connected by *or* or *nor* is plural, the verb should be plural, and the plural subject should be placed next to the verb ; as, " Neither he *nor* his brothers *were* there."

20. A verb having two or more subjects of different persons connected by *or* or *nor*, agrees in person with the subject nearest to it ; as, " He or I *am* to go."

21. When the subjects require different forms of the verb, it is more elegant to express the verb, or its auxiliary, in connexion with each of them ; as, " Neither *were* their numbers, nor *was* their destination known."

22. Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by *or* or *nor*, require a singular verb ; as, " To reveal secrets, or to betray one's friends, *is* contemptible perfidy."

23. The speaker should generally mention himself last ; as, " Thou or I must go to town,"—But, in confessing a fault, he may assume the first place ; as, " I and Edward tore the book."

24. A subject having a plural form, but forming a part of a complex noun, requires a verb in the singular ; as, " Plutarch's complete Works has been translated into English."

25. When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mode, tense, and form, or have separate subjects expressed ; as, " If he *understands* that business, and *attends* to it, wherein is he deficient ?"—

" She *was* proud, but she *is* now humble."

26. The past should not be employed to form the compound tenses, nor should the perfect participle be used for the past. Thus : say, " To have *broken*,"—not, " To have *broke* ;" and, " I *chose* it,"—not, " I *chosen* it."

27. To every verb should be given its appropriate form and signification. Thus : say, " Go and *lie* down, my son,"—not, " Go and *lay* down, my son ;"—"He *had*

entered into the conspiracy ; ” — not, “ *He was entered* into the conspiracy ; ” — “ *I would rather stay* . ” — not, “ *I had rather stay* . ”

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—“ *We was taken by surprise* . ”

This sentence is incorrect, because the verb *was taken* is of the singular number, and does agree with its subject *we*, which is of the first person plural. But, according to Rule XI., “ A finite verb agrees, etc. ” Therefore, *was taken* should be *were taken*, and the sentence should be, “ *We were taken by surprise* . ”

2.—“ *The assembly was divided in their opinion* . ”

This sentence is incorrect, because the verb *was divided* is of the singular number, and does not correctly agree with its subject *assembly*, which is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality. But, according to Note under Rule XI., “ A collective noun which conveys the idea of plurality, etc. ” Therefore, *was divided* should be *were divided*, and the sentence should be, “ *The assembly were divided in their opinions* . ”

3.—“ *Every plant, every insect, and every animal, have an important part in the economy of nature* . ”

This sentence is incorrect, because *have*, which is a verb in the plural number, is used to agree with *plant*, *insect*, and *animal*, which are subjects in the singular preceded by *every*. But, according to Note under Rule XI., “ When singular subjects connected by *and* are preceded by *each*, etc. ” Therefore, *have* should be *has*, and the sentence should be, “ *Every plant, every insect, and every animal, has an important part in the economy of nature* . ”

4.—“ *Neither he nor I is ready* . ”

This sentence is incorrect, because *is*, which is a verb in the third person, is used to agree with the pronouns *he* and *I*, two subjects of different persons connected by *or*. But, according to Note under Rule XI., “ A verb having two or more subjects of different persons, etc. ” Therefore *is* should be *am*, and the sentence should be “ *Neither he nor I am ready* . ”

5.—“ *They have chose the part of honor and virtue* . ”

This sentence is incorrect, because the verb *chose* is used for the

perfect participle. But, according to Note under Rule XI., "The past should not be employed, etc." Therefore, *chose* should be *chosen*, and the sentence should be, "They have chosen the part of honor and virtue."

1. The smile that encourage severity of judgment, hide malice and insincerity.—2. To copy and claim the writings of others, are plagiarism.—3. Was it thou that buildedst that house?—4. The nobility was assured that he would not interpose.—5. A detachment of two hundred men were immediately sent.—6. Diligent industry and not mean savings produce honorable competence.—7. His constitution, as well as his fortune, require care.—8. Every house, and even every cottage were plundered.—9. In this affair, perseverance and dexterity was requisite.—10. To do justly, to love, mercy, and to walk humbly with God, is duties of universal obligation.—11. The sense or drift of a proposition, often depend upon a single letter.—12. Neither he nor I intends to be present.—13. Either he has been imprudent, or his associate vindictive.—14. We dreamed a dream in one night, I and he.—15. To practise tale-bearing, or even to countenance it, are great injustice.—16. They would neither go in themselves, nor suffered others to enter.—17. He would have went with us, if we had invited him.—18. He was entered into the conspiracy.—19. With such books, it will always be difficult to learn children to read.—20. The premiums were given to me and Philip.—21. Virtue is generally praised, and would be generally practised also, if men were wise.—22. Sobriety with humility lead to honor.—23. Wisdom, and not wealth, procure esteem.—24. Dear sir, have just received the kind note favored me with this morning; and cannot forbear to express my gratitude to you. On further information find have not lost so much as at first supposed; and believe shall still be able to meet all my

engagements. Should, however, be happy to see you. Accept, dear sir, my most cordial thanks. N. D.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—“ Louis writes a letter.”

“ Writes ” is an irregular transitive verb (pres. *write* ; past, *wrote* ; perf. p., *written*), indicative mode, pres. tense, and agrees with its subject, the noun *Louis*, in the sing. n., 3rd pers., according to Rule XI, “ A finite verb, etc.”

2.—Louis and John spell correctly.”

“ Spell ” is a regular intransitive verb (pres. *spell* ; past, *spelled* ; perf. p., *spelled*), in the indicative mode, pres. tense, and agrees with its two subjects, the nouns *Louis & John*, connected by *and*, in the plur. n., 3rd pers., according to Rule XI, “ A finite verb agrees, etc.,” and Note under Rule XI, “ A verb having two or more subjects connected, etc.”

3.—“ Ignorance or prejudice has caused the mistake.”

“ Has caused ” is a reg. trans. verb, ind. mode, perf. tense, 3rd pers., and in the sing. n., because its two subjects, *ignorance* and *prejudice*, are in the singular, connected by *or*, according to Note under Rule XI, “ A verb that has two or more subjects, etc.”

4.—“ If that skilful painter and glazier is in town, be sure to employ him.”

“ Is ” is an irreg. intrans. verb., ind. m., pres. t., 3rd pers., and in the sing. n., because its two subjects, *painter* and *glazier* describe merely one person, according to Note under Rule XI, “ When two or more subjects, etc.”

Parse the verbs and subjects in the foregoing exercises.

The pupils will give from memory ;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule XI, and two or more from elsewhere on the same Rule.

RULE XII.—INFINITIVES.

The preposition *to* governs the infinitive mode, and commonly connects it to a finite verb ; as, “ They wish *to study*.”

NOTES.

1. The infinitive is the mere verb without affirmation ; it is frequently used as a noun in the nominative or in the objective case ; as "*To steal* is sinful."

2. The infinitive is also used independently ; as, "*To say* the least, he has erred in judgment"—"*To proceed* with our argument."

3. An infinitive used as a noun may, if it is transitive and in the active voice, govern a noun or a pronoun in the objective case ; as, "They loved *to improve* their *minds* by reading."—" *To make money* is not the sole object of life."

4. The infinitive of an intransitive verb, or an infinitive in the passive voice, may, when used as a noun, have a noun or a pronoun after it independently ; as, " *To become* a good man is a nobler aim than to become a great one."—" *To be elected* president was his aim."

5. A verb in the infinitive mode has no subject ; but it may relate to a noun or to a pronoun in the nominative or in the objective case ; as, "We all supposed *him to be* truthful."

6. The sign *to* should not be separated from the remainder of the infinitive by any intervening word : thus, "Be careful *to not disturb* him," should be ; "Be careful not to disturb him."

7. *To* is usually omitted when the infinitive follows the active voice of the verbs *bid* (to command), *dare* (to venture), *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and a few others ; as, "I saw him (to) *fall*."—"You *bid* me (to) *come*." But it is not omitted after the passive voice of these verbs ; as, "He *was heard* (to) *speak* of them."

8. The verbs *watch*, *behold*, *know*, *observe*, *have*, and some others, are occasionally followed by the infinitive without the sign *to* ; as, "I *have known* him (to) *go* two days without food."

9. When two or more infinitives in the same construction stand near each other, the sign *to* may be omitted with all but the first ; as, "He wishes *to visit* foreign countries, and thus (to) *enlarge* his views and (to) *improve* his mind."

10. Never use *to* alone for a verb in the infinitive mode ; thus,

"I have never intrigued for office, and I never intend *to*," should be,—"I never intend *to do so*."

11. The present tense of the infinitive should generally be used whenever the action, the being, or the state, expressed by the infinitive, is present or future, compared with that expressed by the principal verb; as, "He *hoped to merit* the praise of his friends."

12. The perfect tense of the infinitive should generally be used whenever the action, the being, or the state, expressed by the infinitive, is past, compared with that expressed by the principal verb; as, "Milton *seems to have had* a wonderful imagination."

13. An infinitive having the form of the active voice is sometimes used with a passive meaning; as, "He is *to blame*."—"The agent has a house *to rent*."

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—"He was seen by several go out."

This sentence is incorrect, because *to*, which is a part of the infinitive *to go*, is omitted after *was seen*, the passive voice of the verb *to see*; but, according to Note under Rule XII., "*To is not omitted, etc.*" Therefore *go* should be *to go*, and the sentence should be, "He was seen by several to go out".

2.—"Endeavor to properly conduct yourself."

This sentence is incorrect, because the sign *to* is separated from the remainder of the infinitive by inserting the adverb *properly*; but, according to Note under Rule XII., "The sign *to* should not be separated, etc." Therefore *to* should be placed immediately before *conduct*, and the sentence should be, "Endeavor to conduct yourself properly".

3.—"We did what it was our duty to have done."

This sentence is incorrect, because *to have done*, which is the present perfect tense of the infinitive, is used to express an action which was present compared with the time of the action expressed by the verb *did*, upon which it depends; but, according to Note under Rule XII., "The present tense of the infinitive should generally be used, etc." Therefore *to have done* should be *to do*, and the sentence should be, "We did what it was our duty to do."

1. The train was seen slowly start from the depot.—2. Allow others discover your merit.—3. I have never

truckled to demagogues, and I never intend to.—4. I left a chilling sensation to creep over me.—5. Officers were ordered to immediately report to the commander.—6. Each hoped to have received the reward to which they considered himself to be entitled.—7. Milton seems to have his first efforts as a writer poorly appreciated.—8. Peace is not established throughout the world, and is not likely to yet.—9. Cæsar appears to be possessed of an ambitious character.—10. He never intended to have let such an opportunity to pass unimproved.—11. Fabius durst not to come to a general engagement.—12. Some are able to easily commit to memory long lessons, but they are apt to soon forget them.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—“Henry tried to write a letter.”

“To write” is a trans. verb, irreg. (*write, wrote, written*); it is in the active voice, inf. mode, pres. tense, and depends upon the verb *tried*, which it completes in meaning, according to Rule XII., “A verb in the infinitive, etc.”

2.—“He was, so to speak, a miracle of learning.”

“To speak” is an intrans. v., irreg. (*speak, spoke, spoken*), in the inf. m., pres. tense; it is used independently, according to Note under Rule XII., “The infinitive is also used, etc.”

Parse all the infinitives in the foregoing exercises; also, the finite verbs and subjects.

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule XII., and two or more from elsewhere, on the same Rule.

RULE XIII.—USE OF THE TENSES.

In using verbs, different tenses should not be confounded, nor should any tense be employed except in such connections as are consistent with the time it denotes.

Obs.—This rule is necessarily general. From the definitions and illustrations of the tenses given under Etymology, it must be determined which tense it is proper to use in any particular case. The following notes will put the learner on his guard against the most common errors.

NOTES.

1. In expressing general propositions which have no direct relation to time, the present tense of the verb should be employed ; as, " The passion for power and superiority is universal ",—not, "*was*".

2. In connecting words that express time, the order and fitness of time should be observed. Thus : in stead of, " I *have spoken* to him *last year*," say, " I *spoke* to him *last year*" ; and, in stead of, " I *spoke* to him *this year*," say, " I *have spoken* to him *this year*."

3. The first future tense is frequently employed but improperly for the second future ; as, " I *shall finish* my letter before the mail closes," should be, " I *shall have finished*..."

4. When a verb in the perfect tense of the indicative is preceded by *before*, *as soon as*, *when*, *till*, or *after*, it usually performs the office of the second future ; as, " When he *has finished* his engagement, he shall be rewarded."

5. The imperfect potential must not, as a general rule, be used in connection with the future indicative or the present potential ; as, " Ye will not come to me, that ye might have life." This is wrong, because the imperfect potential *might have* is used in connection with the future indicative *will come*. If past time is referred to, it should be, " Ye *would* not come to me, that ye *might* have life ; " if future, " Ye *will* not come to me, that ye *may* have life."—" I should be glad if he will write," is wrong for a similar reason ; *will* must be changed to *would*.

6. The present potential may be used in connection with *should* meaning *ought*, or *could* meaning *was able to* ; as,

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—"It *may be* that he *could not come*."

7. The subjunctive present is used to express future contingency; as, "If thou *forsake* him, he will cast thee off forever."

8. The subjunctive imperfect expresses a mere supposition with indefinite time; as, "If I *were* Andrew, I would go."—" *Were* I in Andrew's place, I would remain."

9. A conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the indicative mode; as, "Though he *is* poor, he is contented."

10. For the tenses of the Infinitive, See Notes 9 & 10, under Rule XII.

11. Different auxiliaries must not be used with one and the same verbal form unless it is appropriate to each; as, "I can accomplish as much in one day as he has in two." *Accomplish* is correctly used with the first auxiliary *can*, but not with the second *has*,—we cannot say *has accomplished*. The sentence should therefore read, "I can accomplish as much in one day as he has *accomplished* in two."

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—"I shall walk in the fields to-day, unless it rains."

This sentence is incorrect, because the verb *rains*, which is used to express a future contingency, is in the indicative mode. But, according to Note under Rule XIII., "The present subjunctive is used, etc." Therefore *rains* should be *rain*, and the sentence should be, "I shall walk in the fields to-day, unless it *rain*."

2.—"If it was not so, I would have told you."

This sentence is incorrect, because the verb *was*, which is to express a mere supposition, with indefinite time, is in the indicative mode. But, according to Note under Rule XIII., "The subjunctive imperfect expresses, etc." Therefore *was* should be *were*, and the sentence should be, "If it *were* not so, I would have told you."

1. His style has formerly been admired.—2. He will maintain his cause, though he loses his estate.—3. I expected to have seen them before the news should have reached them, but urgent duties will have prevented me.—4. If thou feltest as I do, we should soon decide.—5. If he know the way, he does not need a guide.—6. He was out of employment this fortnight.—7. I might lead a better life, if you will stay with me.—8. At the end of this quarter, I shall be at school two years.—9. We expected that he would have arrived last night.—10. The doctor affirmed, that fever always produced thirst.—11. They continue with me now three days.—12. Columbus had fondly hoped, at one time, to have rendered the natives civilized, industrious, and tributary subjects of the crown.—13. When the mail will arrive, the letters will be delivered.—14. There fell from his eyes, as it had been scales.—15. Though this event be strange, it certainly did happen.—16. You are talking improperly, and have for the last half-hour.

The pupils will give from memory ;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule XIV., and two or more from elsewhere, on the same Rule.

RULE XIV.—PARTICIPLES.

Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or are governed by prepositions ; as, “ At one time *paying* his friend a visit, he found him *employed in reading* Bossuet.”

NOTES.

1. A participle is sometimes used indefinitely, without reference to any noun or pronoun expressed ; as, “ *Properly speaking* his conduct was honorable.”

2. A transitive participle has the said government as the verb from which it is derived ; the preposition *of*,

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therefore, should never be used after the participle, when the verb does not require it. Thus, in phrases like the following, *of* is improper: "Keeping of one day in seven."

3. When a transitive participle is converted into a noun, *of* must be inserted to govern the object following.

4. In the use of participles and of participial nouns, the leading word in sense, should always be made the leading or governing word in the construction.

5. A participle, in general, however construed, should have a clear reference to the proper subject of the being, action, or passion. The following sentence is therefore faulty: "By *giving* way to sin, trouble is encountered." This suggests that *trouble gives way to sin*. It should be; "By *giving* way to sin, *we* encounter trouble."

6. The perfect participle, and not the past tense, should be used with the auxiliaries *have* and *be*; "He *has gone* to travel in Germany,—not, "He *has went*, etc."

7. The perfect participle should never be used instead of the past tense to express simply past time: thus, "Henry *given* way to anger, should be, "Henry *gave* way to anger."

8. Perfect participles being variously formed, care should be taken to express them agreeably to the best usage: thus, *checkt*, *earnt*, *mixt*, *snapt*, *snatcht*, *tost*, are erroneously written for *checked*, *earned*, *mixed*, *snapped*, *snatched*, *tossed*; and *foughten*, *holden*, *proven*, are now superseded by *fought*, *held*, *proved*.

9. A participle should not be used if the meaning can be more elegantly expressed by the use of a verb in the infinitive mode, or of an equivalent expression: thus, "*Exciting* hopes which cannot be fulfilled, is wrong," should be, "*To excite* hopes, etc."

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—"I heard them discussing of this subject."

This sentence is incorrect, because the preposition *of* is used after the participle *discussing*, whose verb does not require it. But, according to Note under Rule XIV., "A transitive participle has the same government, etc." Therefore, *of* should be omitted, and the sentence should be, "I heard them discussing this subject."

2.—"By yielding to temptation, our peace is sacrificed."

This sentence is incorrect, because *sacrificed* has not a clear reference to the proper subject. But, according to Note under Rule XIV., "A participle, in general, however construed, etc." Therefore *our peace is sacrificed*, should be, *we sacrifice our peace*, and the sentence should be, "By yielding to temptation, we sacrifice our peace."

1. The teacher forbid them playing during the time set apart for the studying their lessons.—2. They did not give notice of the pupil leaving.—3. In loving our enemies, no man's blood is shed.—4. It is dangerous playing with edge tools.—5. Cain's killing his brother, originated in envy.—6. Cæsar carried off the treasures, which his opponent had neglected taking with him.—7. The sun's darting his beams through my window, awoke me.—8. Like the lustre of diamonds sat in gold.—9. A nail well drove will support a great weight.—10. Here are rules, by observing of which you may avoid error.—11. Their consent was necessary for the raising any supplies.—12. We intend returning in a few days.—13. There is no harm in my friend knowing about these things.—14. Sailing up the river, the whole town may be seen.—15. Reading poetry properly requires a knowledge of the author's meaning.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—"In writing letters he soon became expert."

"Writing" is an imperf. part. from the irreg. trans. verb *write*, (*writing*, *written*, preperf. *having written*); and is governed by the prep. *In*.....

2.—"Writing letters is easier than writing compositions."

"Writing" is a participial noun, in the sing. n., 3rd pers.; it is

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in the nom. case, being the subject of the finite verb *is*, according to Rule II., "A noun or a pronoun, etc."

3.—"John having written a letter, sent it to the Post-Office."

"Having written" is a preperf. part., from the irreg. trans. verb *write*, and depends upon *John*, according to Rule XIV., "A participle, etc."

Parse the participles, the participial nouns, and the participial adjectives in the foregoing exercises; also, all the finite verbs with their subjects, and the infinitives.

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule XIV., and two or more from elsewhere, on the same Rule.

RULE XV.—ADVERBS.

An adverb modifies a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; as, "He acted *judiciously*;"—"He is a *truly* good man;"—"He was most *kindly* treated".

NOTES.

1. An Adverb sometimes modifies a preposition, an adjunct, or a phrase; as, "*Just* below the surface."—"Independently of these circumstances."—"Verily I say unto you, they have their reward."

2. An adverb sometimes relates to a verb understood; as, "The former has written correctly; but the latter, *elegantly*"

3. A conjunctive adverb relates to two verbs which it modifies, one in one clause, and one in an other; as, "And the rest will I set in order, *when* I come."

4. The adverbs *yea*, *yes*, *nay*, *no*, and *amen*, are generally used independently; as, "Will you go?" "*No*."—"Has the hour arrived?" "*Yes*."

5. An adverb is sometimes used as a noun; as, "An eternal *now* does always last."—Cowley. "From the extreme *upward* of thine head."—Shakspeare.

6. An adverb is sometimes used instead of an adjective, to modify a noun; as, "*Almost* a dollar."—"Not *quite* a year."—"Not *only* a house, but also a farm."—"The *above* discourse."

7. Adverbs should be placed in that situation which contributes most to the harmony and clearness of the sentence, and which accords best with the usage of the language; as, "It *not only* has form but life," should be, "It has *not only* form but life."

8. An adverb should not be used as an adjective, nor should it ever be employed to denote quality; thus, "The *alone* idea,"—"The *soonest* time,"—It tastes *bitterly*,"—should be, "The *sole* idea,"—"The *earliest* time,"—"It tastes *bitter*."

9. The preposition *from* is sometimes inelegantly used before the adverbs *hence*, *thence*, and *whence*, which, in meaning, imply this preposition; thus, "*From thence* arose the misunderstanding," should be, "*Thence* arose the misunderstanding."

So also *from here*, *from there*, etc., are incorrectly used for *from this place*, etc.

10. The adverbs *here*, *there* and *where*, which primarily denote position, may be used in common discourse for *hither*, *thither* and *whither*, after verbs implying motion, but exactness requires the use of the latter adverbs; as, "Where are you going?—but more properly, "*Whither* are you going?"

11. The adverb *how* should not be placed before the conjunction *that*; nor should *as*, *how*, or *as how*, be used for *that*: thus, "He said *how* (or, *as how*) he would go," should be, "He said *that* he would go."

12. *Where* and *when* are sometimes used improperly for the pronoun *which* and its accompanying words; thus, "They framed a protestation *where* they repeated all their former claims," should be, "They framed a protestation *in which* they, etc."—There was no family *where*

he was not welcome," should be, "There was no family in which, etc."

13. The adverb *there* is often used for the sake of euphony, without reference to *place*; as, "*There* is an hour of peaceful rest."—"*There* came to the beach a poor exile of Erin." When used in this sense, *there* is called an *expletive* adverb.

14. *No*, as an adverb, can modify comparatives only; as, "The task *no longer* appeared difficult". Therefore *no* should never be used after *or* to modify a verb understood: thus, "Will you go, or *no*?" should be, "Will you go, or (will you) *not* (go)?"

15. A negation, in English, admits but one negation word; as, "I could not wait any longer,"—not, "*no* longer."

16. The repetition of a negative word or clause, strengthens the negation; as, "We will *never, never, never*, lay down our arms." But two negatives, in the same clause, destroy the negation, and render the meaning affirmative; as, "*Nor* did they *not* perceive their evil plight. That is, they *did* perceive it."

17. *Never* is sometimes improperly used for *ever*; as, "They might be extirpated, were they *never* so many," should be, "They might be extirpated, were they *ever* so many."

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—"Velvet feels very smoothly."

This sentence is incorrect, because *smoothly*, which is an adverb, is used as an adjective; but, according to Note under Rule XV., "An adverb should not be used, etc." Therefore *smoothly* should be *smooth*, and the sentence should be, "Velvet feels very smooth."

2.—"The work will be never completed."

This sentence is incorrect, because the adverb *never* is not in the most suitable place; but, according to Note under Rule XV., "Adverbs should be placed in that situation, etc. Therefore the sentence should be, "The work will never be completed."

1. The words must be generally separated from the context.—2. Give him a soon and decisive answer.—3. I shall go there again in a few days.—4. During his fits of melancholy, he felt that every body was his enemy very often.—5. From thence arose the misunderstanding.—6. I knew how that they had heard of his misfortunes.—7. Whether he is in fault or no, I cannot tell.—8. No body never invented nor discovered nothing in no way to be compared with this.—9. When we left Ottawa, we intended to return there in a few days.—10. Pleonasm is when a word more is added than is absolutely necessary to express the sense.—11. A barbarism is when a foreign or strange word is made use of.—12. "Ye know how that a good while ago God made choice among us, etc."—13. There is nothing more admirable nor more useful.—14. Last, remember that in science, as in morals, authority cannot make right, what in itself is wrong.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

"We seldom see very old men walking rapidly."

"Very" is an adverb of degree; it modifies the adj. *old*, according to Rule XV., "An adverb, &c."

"Rapidly" is an adverb of manner; it is compared (pos. *rapidly*, comp. *more rapidly*, sup. *most rapidly*); it is in the positive degree, and modifies *walking*, according to Rule XV., "An adverb, etc."

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule XV., and two or more from elsewhere, on the same Rule.

RULE XVI.—PREPOSITIONS.

A preposition shows the relation between the noun or the pronoun which follows it, and some preceding word; as, "He came *from* London *to* Florence, *in* the company of two friends, and passed *with* them *through* many cities".

NOTES.

1. The preposition is generally placed before the word which it governs; as, "He went *to* town".

2. The preposition should not be omitted except where usage has sanctioned its omission; thus, "The subject is worthy *of*, etc."—"He fled the country";—supply *from*.

3. *That*, when used as a relative pronoun, always precedes the preposition by which it is governed; as, "Every book *that* you have referred *to*, is mine". Here "*that*" is governed by the preposition "*to*", and precedes it. If we were to use "*which*" here instead of "*that*", the arrangement would be different; thus, "Every book *to which* you have referred, is mine."

4. *Whom*, *which*, and *what* are sometimes placed before the prepositions by which they are governed,—but not elegantly; as, "*Whom* do you come *from*?"—"What was he guilty *of*?"—but better, "*From whom* do you come?"—"Of *what* was he guilty?"

5. The preposition and the word governed by it should be placed as near as possible to the preceding word to which they relate; as, "He was reading in a low voice, when I entered." This is better than saying, "He was reading, when I entered, in a low voice." The words "in a low voice", relate to the act of "reading", and should not unnecessarily be separated from it.

6. It is a very objectionable mode of construction to make the same word govern jointly a transitive verb and a preposition; as, "He was warned *of*, and urged to *avoid*, the danger." It should be, "He was warned of the danger, and urged to avoid it."

7. The preposition is frequently omitted particularly after verbs of *giving*, *procuring*, etc.; as, "Give (*to*) me a book."—"Get (*for*) me an apple."—"Like (*to*) his father."—"Near (*to*) his home."—"They travelled (*through*)

sixty miles (*in*) a day ".—" A wall (*of*) six feet high ".—
Books worth (*of*) a dollar ".

The prepositions to be supplied in parsing may be *by, for, during, in, through, etc.*

8. Care should be taken to employ such prepositions as express clearly and precisely the relations intended; as, "I have need *of* your assistance," not—" *for* your assistance."

9. The place of the preposition should be such as will clearly show what terms are in relation; thus, "The two parts are united under the Thames by a tunnel," should be, "The two parts are united by a tunnel under the Thames."

10. *In* denoting *situation*, or meaning *within*, is often improperly used for *into*, denoting *entrance*; thus, "He came *in* the room," should be, "He came *into* the room." "He came *into* the room, and remained in it," is correct usage.

11. *At* and *to*. *At* is used after a verb of rest; as, "He resides *at* Montréal."—" *To* is used after a verb of motion; as, "He came *to* Quebec."

12. *Between* or *betwixt* and *among* or *amongst*. *Between* refers to two objects, *among* to more than two; as, " *Between* virtue and vice there is no middle path."—" *Among* so many candidates, but one fulfilled all the conditions"

The proper use of other prepositions must be learned from dictionaries, and by observation.

Below are given a few words with their appropriate prepositions following :—

Access <i>to</i> .	Call <i>on</i> a person, <i>at</i> a house, <i>for</i> a thing.
Acquaint <i>with</i> .	
Acquit <i>of</i> .	Compare <i>with</i> (in respect of quality); <i>to</i> (for illustration).
Agreeable <i>to</i> .	
Angry <i>with</i> a person, <i>at</i> a thing.	Confide <i>in</i> (intrans.); <i>to</i> (trans.).
Arrive <i>at, in, not to</i> .	Copy <i>after</i> a person; <i>from</i> a thing.
Averse <i>to</i> .	Correspond <i>with, to</i> .
Bestow <i>upon</i> .	Die <i>of</i> a disease; <i>by</i> an instru-

ment, or violence ; <i>for</i> another.	Inseparable <i>from</i> .
Differ <i>with</i> a person in opinion ;	Martyr <i>for</i> a cause ; <i>to</i> a disease.
<i>from</i> , in quality.	Need <i>of</i> .
Different <i>from</i> , not <i>to</i> .	Partake <i>of</i> , <i>in</i> .
Disagree <i>with</i> a person ; <i>to</i> a proposal.	Prefer, preferable, <i>to</i> .
Disappointed <i>of</i> a thing not obtained ; <i>in</i> a thing obtained.	Reconcile a person <i>to</i> ; a thing <i>with</i> .
Expert <i>at</i> (before a noun) ; <i>in</i> (before an active participle).	Rid <i>of</i> , not <i>from</i> .
Independently <i>of</i> , not <i>on</i> .	Touch <i>at</i> a place.
	Unite <i>to</i> (transitive) ; <i>with</i> (intransitive).

EXERCISES.

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—“He was accused for betraying his trust.”

This sentence is incorrect, because the preposition *for* does not correctly express the relation intended between its two terms, *accused* and *betraying* ; but, according to Note under Rule XVI., “Care should be taken to use, etc.” Therefore *for* should be *of*, and the sentence should be, “He was accused of betraying his trust.”

2.—“A bridge connects the two towns across the river.”

This sentence is incorrect, because the preposition *across* is so placed as to show a relation between the two terms *towns* and *river*, whereas the proper terms of relation are *bridge* and *river* ; but, according to Note under Rule XVI., “The place of the preposition, etc.” Therefore the sentence should be, “A bridge across the river connects the two towns.”

1. There was no water, and he died for thirst.—2. They will bless God that he has peopled one half the world with a race of freemen.—3. Indolence undermines the foundation of virtue, and unfits a man to the duties of life.—4. If I compare my penmanship to yours, mine will suffer by the comparison.—5. This supposition is very different to that.—6. Their efforts seemed to anticipate on the spirit, which became so general afterwards.—7. But how short are my expressions of its excellency!

—8. A shallow grave of only two feet deep, was hastily dug.—9. A despatch has just been received from the seat of war of great importance at the Gazette Office.—10. The Indian differs with the Caucasian in color.—11. There is a room in the second story suitable for a single gentleman with a fireplace.—12. He is unacquainted with and cannot speak upon the subject.—13. Confide to real friends only; confide nothing in him who has once deceived you.—14. Among a brother and a sister no strife should arise.—15. Though he was a child only five years old, he showed grown men an example worthy their imitation.—16. His actions do not accord to his preaching; we cannot accord our support with him.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—“The scenes of my boyhood passed before me.”

“Of” is a preposition; it is used before the noun *boyhood* to show its relation with the noun *scenes*, according to Rule XVI, “A preposition shows the relation, etc.”

“Before” is a preposition; it is used before the pronoun *me* to show its relation to the verb *passed*, according to Rule XVI, “A preposition shows, etc.”

2.—“Keep to the right as the law directs.”

“To” is a preposition; it is used before the noun *hand* (understood) to show its relation with the verb *keep*, according to Rule XVI, “A preposition shows, etc.”

Parse the prepositions, and the nouns or pronouns governed by them in the foregoing exercises; also, the participles and the adverbs.

The pupils will give from memory;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the above exercises on Rule XVI., and two or more from elsewhere, on the same Rule.

RULE XVII.—CONJUNCTIONS.

A conjunction connects the words, the parts of a sentence, or the sentences, between which it is placed; as, "John & James are very obedient".—They fled *because* they were afraid."

NOTES.

1. Words connected by conjunctions are of the same class (nouns and pronouns being regarded as one class), and are in the same construction; as, "I shall see *him* and *her*."—"John and he are laboring steadily and faithfully."—"He *was* condemned and (*was*) executed."

2. Verbs connected by one or more conjunctions may have the same subject, if they agree in form, voice, mood, and tense; as, "The fort *was* attacked and (*was*) captured." If they differ in form, if a contrast is made, or if strong emphasis is intended, they require a subject mentioned for each; thus, "*He* may return, but *he* will not remain."—Though *he* was rich, yet *he* became poor."

3. When two terms connected refer jointly to a third, they must be adapted to it and to each other, both in sense and in form; thus, "He has made alterations and additions *to* the work," should be, "He has made alterations *in* the work, and additions *to* it."

4. After *else*, *other*, *otherwise*, *rather*, and *all comparatives*, the latter term of comparison should be introduced by the conjunction *than*; as, "Fables or parables are no other *than* allegories."—"I expected more *than* this."

5. The disjunctive conjunction *lest* or *but*, should not be employed where the copulative *that* would be more proper; as, "I feared *that* I should be deserted", not, "*lest* I should be deserted."

6. *As* should not be used for *who*, *whom*, or *which*, or for *that* (whether a conjunction or a relative); thus, "I know the man *who* witnessed the affair."

7. After the verbs *doubt*, *fear*, etc., or their equivalents, *whether* should not be used for *if*;—nor should *but*, *but*

that, or *lest*, be used for *that* ; thus, " I doubt *whether* he will come to-morrow," should be, " I doubt *if*, etc.— " They were afraid *lest* he would be sick," should be, " They were afraid *that* he would be sick."

8. The words in each of the following pairs, are the proper *correspondents* to each other ; and care must be taken, to give them their right place in the sentence.

Both—*and* ; as, " I am debtor *both* to the Greeks *and* the Barbarians.

Though, *although*—*yet*, *still*, *nevertheless* ; as, " *Though* he were dead, *yet* shall he live."

Whether—*or* ; as, " He could not decide *whether* to go *or* to remain."

Either—*or* ; as " He was *either* ashamed *or* afraid."

Neither—*nor* ; as, " *Neither* act *nor* promise hastily."

Not only—*but*, *but also* ; as, " He was *not only* prudent, *but also* industrious."

Such—*as* ; as, " An assembly *such as* earth saw never."

Such—*that* ; as, " My health is *such that* I cannot go."

As—*as* express equality when used with an adjective or an adverb ; as, " The accomplice is *as* bad *as* the thief."

As—*so*, with two verbs, express equality or proportion ; as, " *As* he excels in virtue, *so* he rises in estimation.

So—*as*, with an adjective or an adverb, express a limited comparison ; as, " Be *so* kind *as* to come this evening."

So—*as* deny equality when used with an adjective or an adverb ; as, " He is not *so* wise *as* his brother."

So—*that*, expressing a consequence ; as, " I am *so* weak *that* I cannot walk."

EXERCISES

Correct orally the following sentences, and apply the rule or the note for each correction.

MODEL 1.—" Have you no other proof except this ? "

This sentence is incorrect, because *except* is improperly used for *than* after *other*; but, according to Note under Rule XVII., “After *else, other, etc.*” Therefore *except* should be *than*, and the sentence should be, “Have you no other proof than this.”

2.—“I do not deny but he has merit.”

This sentence is incorrect, because *but* is employed for the copulative *that*; but, according to Note under Rule XVII., “The disjunctive conjunction *lest* or *but, etc.*” Therefore *but* should be *that*, and the sentence should be, “I do not deny that he has merit.”

1. The latest posterity will listen with as much or greater pleasure than their contemporaries.—2. I doubt if the world ever saw such a fleet before.—3. I am fearful lest the storm may overtake them.—4. Washington had nothing else at heart but his country's good.—5. Frank is older but not so large, as Henry.—6. You cannot bestow or bequeath it to a more deserving person.—7. Neither youth or innocence availed as a protection.—8. To pretend friendship and acting differently, is the worst kind of hypocrisy.—9. He has been in no high position yet commands the respect of all.—10. It is just so bad to act a lie as to tell one.—11. The first proposal was essentially different and inferior to the second.—12. We were apprehensive lest some accident had happened.—13. It was no other but his own father.—14. He would not either do it himself nor let me do it.—15. No error are so trivial but they deserve correction.—16. I must be so candid to own that I do not understand it.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1.—“Frank and Henry are brothers.”

“And” is a conjunction, and connects the two nouns *Henry* and *Frank*, between which it is placed, according to Rule XVII., A conjunction connects, etc.”

2.—“If ye do these things, ye shall never fail.”

“If” is a conjunction, and connects the two parts of the sentence, *ye shall never fail*, and *ye do these things*, between which it would be

placed, were the sentence not inverted ; as, " Ye shall never fail, if ye do these things,"—according to Rule XVII.

3.—" Both the time and the occasion were unsuitable."

" Both" is a conjunction corresponding to *and*. *And* is a conjunction which connects the two nouns *time* and *occasion*, according to Rule XVII.

The pupils will give from memory ;—three or more sentences on false syntax taken from the preceding exercises on Rule XVII, and two or more from elsewhere, on the same Rule.

RULE XVIII.—INTERJECTIONS.

An interjection has no grammatical relation to the other words of a sentence ; as, " These were delightful days, but, *alas* ! they are no more."

NOTES.

Sometimes interjections have the appearance of governing the objective case ; as, " Ah *me* !"—" O *my* !" But such sentences are always elliptical, some verb or preposition being understood ; thus, " Ah ! (pity) me."—" O my (fate) !"

In parsing an interjection, all that is necessary is to tell what part of speech it is.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES.

To be Corrected and Parsed.

I.—1. I am as well as when you was here.—2. A man who lacks ceremony, has need for great merit.—3. All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few fingers, but his follies and vices are innumerable.—4. My people doth not consider.—5. We choose rather lead than follow.—6. " It is no more but justice," quoth the farmer.—7. Let him be whom he may, I shall not stop.—8. Was there no difference, there would be no choice.—9. A wise man avoids

the showing any excellence in trifles.—10. I saw a person that I took to be she.—11. This is certainly an useful invention.—12. Ignorance is the mother of fear, as well as admiration.

II.—1. The nation is torn by feuds which threaten their ruin.—2. The number of sufferers have not been ascertained.—3. This construction sounds rather harshly.—4. Give every syllable and every letter their proper sound.—5. It is undoubtedly true what I have heard.—6. There are one or more of them yet in confinement.—7. We may add this observation, however.—8. His conduct was surprising strange.—9. We have used every mean in our power continually.—10. What is the cause of the leaves curling?—11. They know scarcely that temperance is a virtue.—12. Let your promises be such that you can perform.

III.—1. I am afraid lest I have labored in vain.—2. Was it thee, that made the noise?—3. Mischief to itself doth back recoil.—4. Let thy flock clothe upon the naked.—5. This woman taught my brother and I to read.—6. It must indeed be confessed that a lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder.—7. The king nor the queen were not at all deceived.—8. I had rather have been informed.—9. Godliness with contentment are great gain.—10. We shall sell them in the state they now are.—11. This came in fashion when I was young.—12. Every leaf and every twig teem with life.

IV.—1. A man is the noblest work of creation.—2. Lucy ran in, and told how John stood before the gate.—3. Cicero was more eloquent than any Roman.—4. I was rejoiced at this intelligence.—5. They which despise instruction shall not be wise.—6. At this stage of advancement, there is little difficulty in the pupil's understanding the passive and neuter verbs.—7. Where are you all running so fast?—8. I intended to have transcribed it.—9. I and my cousin are requested to attend.—10. This is different from the conscience being made to feel.—11. I was afraid that I should have lost the parcel.—12. Shall a character made up of the very worst passions, pass under the name of a gentleman?

V.—1. We have no more but five leaves and two fishes.—2. This rule is the best which can be given.—3. Tell me whether you will do it or no.—4. Many people never learn to speak correct.—5. The audience was all very attentive.—6. Some people are rash, and others timid: those apprehend too much, these too little.—7. It was not worth while preserving any permanent enmity.—8. The boy has

been detected in stealing, that you thought so clever.—9. He is not so sick, but what he can laugh.—10. Which of all these patterns is the prettier?—11. I no sooner saw my face in it, but I was startled at the shortness of it.—12. Both thou and thy advisers have mistaken their interest.

VI.—1. The tribes whom I visited, are partially civilized.—2. There is no situation where he would be happy.—3. These are poor amends for the men and treasures which we have lost.—4. Was the master, or many of the scholars, in the room?—5. They are men that scorn a mean action, and who will exert themselves to serve you.—6. His father's and mother's consent was asked.—7. This is a part of my uncle's father's estate.—8. The stoics taught that all crimes were equal.—9. It is the learner only, and he that is in doubt, that this assistance is recommended.—10. Every one of these theories are now exploded.—11. It was then my purpose to have visited Egypt.—12.

Wert thou some star, which from the ruin'd roof

Of shak'd Olympus by mischance didst fall!—*Milton.*

VII.—1. He is an old venerable man.—2. Opportunity to do good is the highest preferment which a noble mind desires.—3. The year when he died, is not mentioned.—4. I know not who it was who did it. 5.—The house is situated pleasantly.—6. Words interwove with sighs found out their way.—7. Well for us, if some such other men should rise!—8. Like a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that fear him (*Ps., c, iii.*).—9. Subduing our passions is the noblest of conquests.—10. A man that is young in years, may be old in hours, if he have lost no time.—11. The number of our days are with thee.—12. The chief captain, fearing lest Paul should have been pulled in pieces of them, commanded the soldiers to go down, and to take them by force from among them (*Acts, xxiii.*).

VIII.—1. I have received a letter from my cousin, she that was here last week.—2. If I can contribute to your and my country's glory.—3. Doing, denotes all manner of action; as, to play, to write, to read, etc.—4. The order in which the two last words are placed should have been reversed.—5. Is there, then, more than one true religion?—6. The Almighty cut off the family of Heli the high priest, for its transgressions.—7. The severity with which this denomination was treated, appeared rather to invite than to deter them from flocking to the colony.—8. The laws of Lycurgus but substituted

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insensibility to enjoyment.—9. My brother, I did not put the ques-
tion to thee, for that I doubted of the truth of your belief.—10.
There is no one passion which all mankind so naturally give into as
pride.—11. Rain is seldom or ever seen at Lima.—12. The moon is
orderly in her changes, which she could not be by accident.

IX.—1. The young bird raising its open mouth for food, is a nat-
ural indication of corporeal want.—2. And there was in the same
country shepherds abiding in the field.—3. His politeness and oblig-
ing behavior were changed.—4. Their vanity is awakened, and their
passions exalted, by the irritation which their self-love receives
from contradiction.—5. Struck with terror, as if Philip was some-
thing more than human.—6. There is much of truth in the observation
of Ascham.—7. Such submission, together with the active principle
of obedience, make up the temper and character in us which answers
to his sovereignty.—8. Universal Grammar can not be taught ab-
stractedly, it must be done with reference to some language already
known.—9. In syntax, there is what grammarians call concord or
agreement, and government.—10. Prompt aid, and not promises, are
what we ought to give.—11. Adopting the doctrine which he had
been taught.—12. Every auditory take in good part those marks of
respect and awe, which are paid them by one who addresses them.

X.—1. The Coptic alphabet was one of the latest formed of any.
—2. People find themselves able without much study to write and
speak the English intelligibly, and thus have been led to think rules
of no utility.—3. The youth was being consumed by a slow malady.
—4. This mode has also been improperly used in the following places.
—5. This library exceeded half a million volumes.—6. Does *a* and *an*
mean the same thing?—7. If the student reflects, that the principal
and the auxiliary forms but one verb, he will have little or no diffi-
culty, in the proper application of the present rule.—8. Many evi-
dences exist of the proneness of men to vice.—9. It is strange he
never commanded you to have done it.—10. History painters would
have found it difficult, to have invented such a species of beings.—
11. There is no neglecting it without falling into a dangerous error.
—12. To perceive nothing, or not to perceive, is the same.

XI.—1. Propriety of pronunciation is giving to every word that
sound, which the most polite usage of the language appropriates to
it.—2. And we might imagine, that if verbs had been so contrived,
as simply to express these, no more was needful.—3. By neglecting
this circumstance, the following example is defective in neatness.—

4. The king of France or England was to be the umpire.—5. Immoderate grief is mute: complaining is struggling for consolation.—6. Payment was at length made, but no reason assigned for its having been so long postponed.—7. In consequence of the dry rot's having been discovered, the mansion has undergone a thorough repair.—8. Auxiliaries can not only be inserted, but are really understood.—9. He may be said to have saved the life of a citizen; and, consequently, entitled to the reward.—10. I doubt much of the propriety of the following examples.—11. The principle of duty takes naturally place of every other.—12. Poetry admits of greater latitude than prose, with respect to coining, or at least, new compounding words.

XII.—1. The speculative relied no farther on their own judgment, but to choose a leader, whom they implicitly followed.—2. And they all turned their backs without almost drawing a sword.—3. To crowd in a single member of a period different subjects, is still worse than to crowd them into one period.—4. The men had made inquiry for Simon's house, and stood before the gate.—5. For we cannot bear his shifting the scene every line.—6. I could not give him an answer as early as he had desired.—7. He readily comprehends the rules of Syntax, and their use and applicability in the examples before him.—8. My opinion was given on a rather cursory perusal of the book.—9. Give no more trouble than you can possibly help.—10. The chief and fundamental rules of syntax are common to the English as well as the Latin tongue.—11. The art of printing being then unknown, was a circumstance in some respects favorable to freedom of the pen.—12. These may be carried on progressively above any assignable limits.

XIII.—1. If thou provest this to be real, thou must be a smart lad, indeed.—2. Groves are never so agreeable as in the opening of the spring.—3. He will regret his having neglected opportunities of improvement when it may be too late.—4. Another passion which the present age is apt to run into, is to make children learn all things.

5. A Parenthesis is a clause introduced into the body of a sentence obliquely, and which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction.—6. Especially if the subject require not so much pomp.—7. It requires few talents to which most men are not born, or, at least, may not acquire.—8. However, the proper mixture of light and shade, in such compositions; the exact adjustment of all the figurative circumstances with the literal sense; have ever been

considered as points of great nicety.—9. Mankind never resemble each other so much as they do in the beginnings of society.—10. I shall follow the same method here which I have all along pursued.—11. Neither of them are arbitrary nor local.—12. The first thing, says he, which either a writer of fables, or of heroic poems, does, is, to choose some maxim or point of morality.

XIV.—1. There are a great variety of causes, which disqualify a witness from being received to testify in particular cases.—2. There is here a fulness and grandeur of expression well suited to the subject.—3. Its being me needs make no difference in your determination.—4. I think it the best book of the kind which I have met with.—5. Nor was Philip wanting in his endeavors to corrupt Demosthenes, as he had most of the leading men in Greece.—6. This is a rule not always observed, even by good writers, as strictly as it ought to be.—7. And adding to that hissing in our language, which is taken so much notice of by foreigners.—8. The crowding withal so many objects together, lessens the pleasure.—9. Lysander, having brought his army to Ephesus, erected an arsenal for building of galleys.—10. Is this he that I am seeking of, or no?—11. The Greeks, fearing to be surrounded on all sides, wheeled about and halted, with the river on their backs.—12. James used to compare him to a cat, who always fell upon her legs.

XV.—1. A dispensary is the place where medicines are dispensed.—2. Is it I or he whom you requested to go?—3. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants; and riches, upon enjoying our superfluities.—4. In this manner, both as to parsing and correcting, all the rules of syntax should be treated, proceeding regularly according to their order.—5. Without making this reflection, he cannot enter into the spirit, nor relish the composition of the author.—6. Naming the cases and numbers of a noun in their order is called declining it.—7. I will have learned my grammar before you learn your's.—8. The chin has an important office to perform; for upon its activity we either disclose a polite or vulgar pronunciation.—9. A man will be forgiven, even great errors, in a foreign language; but in his own, even the least slips are justly laid hold of, and ridiculed.—10. They differ from the saints recorded both in the Old and New Testaments.—11. This is another use, that, in my opinion, contributes rather to make a man learned than wise; and is neither capable of pleasing the understanding, or imagination.—12. More rain falls in the first two summer months, than in the first two

winter ones : but it makes a much greater show upon the earth, in these than in those ; because there is a much slower evaporation.

XVI.—1. I shall do all I can to persuade others to take the same measures for their cure which I have taken.—2. It is the final pause which alone, on many occasions, marks the difference between prose and verse ; which will be evident from the following arrangement of a few poetical lines.—3. Did ever man struggle more earnestly in a cause where both his honor and life are concerned ?—4. He will generally please most, when pleasing is not his sole nor chief aim.—5. In languages which admit but two Genders, all Nouns are either Masculine or Feminine, even though they designate beings which are neither male or female.—6. Adjectives may always be distinguished by their being the word, or words, made use of to describe the quality, or condition, of whatever is mentioned.—7. From hence, to such a man, arises naturally a sacred satisfaction and sense of security, and implicit hope of somewhat further.—8. The nominative case is usually the agent or doer, and always the subject of the verb.—9. There is an originality, richness, and variety in his (Spencer's) allegorical personages, which almost vies with the splendor of the ancient mythology.—10. In Pope's terrific maltreatment of the latter simile, it is neither true to mind or eye.—11. The declining a word is the giving it different endings.—12. Thus we see, that killing a man with a sword or a hatchet, are looked upon as no distinct species of action : but if the point of the sword first enter the body, it passes for a distinct species, called *stabbing*.—13. Accent dignifies the syllable on which it is laid, and makes it more distinguished by the ear than the rest.—14. Figures exhibit ideas in a manner more vivid and impressive, than could be done by plain language.—15. A train of sentences, constructed in the same manner, and with the same number of members, should never be allowed to succeed one another.—16. The sense admits of no other pause than after the second syllable 'sit,' which therefore must be the only pause made in the reading.—17. The stress is laid on long and short syllables indiscriminately. In order to distinguish the one from the other, some writers of dictionaries have placed the grave on the former, and the acute on the latter.—18. A note of interrogation should not be employed, in cases where it is only said a question has been asked, and where the words are not used as a question. "The Cyprians asked me why I wept."

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing written language by points, or marks, that its meaning may be readily understood.

The following are the principal points, or marks; the Period[.], the Interrogation[?], the Exclamation[!], the Colon[:], the Semicolon[;], the Comma[,], the Dash[—], the Marks of Parenthesis[()], and the Brackets[].

THE PERIOD.

The **Period** is used after every complete declarative and imperative sentence, and every abbreviation; as, "The noblest vengeance is to forgive."—"Begin and end with God."—We write Jos. for Joseph, Dr. for Doctor, P. S. for Postscript.

THE INTERROGATION POINT.

The **Interrogation Point** is used after every interrogative sentence, member, or clause; also, after the interjections *eh* and *hey*, implying a question; as, "Is not nature beautiful?"—"Nature is beautiful; shall we not, then, enjoy it?"—"You thought it right, hey?"

THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

The **Exclamation Point** is used after every exclamatory sentence, member, clause, or phrase; as, "How madly have I talked!"—"Life is short; how careful we should be to use it aright!"—"For shame!"

The **Exclamation point** is also used after every interjection, except *O*, unless it is very closely connected with other words; as, "Alas! alas! I am undone."—"O wretched state!"—"Ah me!"

EXERCISE.

Insert periods, interrogation and exclamation points, wherever they are required in the following sentences :—

Do as I command you—Alas what hourly dangers rise—Am I safe now he eagerly asked—Dr Jas R Bardy has gone to Sorel, Richelieu Co, P Q—Were Mr Neil and his son Chas at the party—Who spoke—I do not know who spoke—He is well, is he—Microscopes were first used in Germany—How true is the saying, “Time flies”—The Alps abound in fine scenery; how I would like to visit them—If he go, will you accompany him—for I must stay

THE COLON.

The Colon is the intermediate point between the Period and the Semicolon.

A colon is used

I. Between the great divisions of sentences, when minor divisions occur that are separated by semicolons; as, “Princes have courtiers, and merchants have partners; the voluptuous have companions, and the wicked have accomplices: none but the virtuous can have friends.”

II. Before a quotation or an enumeration of particulars, when referred to by the words *thus*, *these*, *following*, or *as follows*; as, “In his last moments he uttered these words: I fall a sacrifice to sloth and luxury.”—“Mr. S. rose, and began thus: “Ladies and Gentlemen, etc.”

III. Before a formal enumeration of particulars; as, “Grammar is divided into four parts: 1st, Orthography; 2nd, Etymology, &c.”

THE SEMICOLON.

The Semicolon is used as intermediate between the Comma and the Colon or Period.

A semicolon is placed

I. Between the members of compound sentences, un-

less they are very closely connected ; as, " Brutes are governed by instinct ; man, by his reasoning faculties."

OBS.—If the members are short and connected by conjunctions, the comma is used in stead of the semicolon ; as, " Man proposes, but God disposes."

II. Between the great divisions of sentences, even though closely connected, when divisions occur, separated by the comma ; as, " That the world is overrun with vice, can not be denied ; but vice, however predominant, has not yet gained unlimited dominion."

III. Before an enumeration of particulars, when the names of the objects merely are given, without any formal introductory words ; as, " There are three cases ; the nominative, the possessive, and the objective."

IV. Before *as*, when it is followed by an illustration ; as in the above paragraph.

EXERCISE.

Insert periods, interrogation and exclamation points, colons, and semicolons, wherever they are required.

If I have laid down my premises correctly if I have reasoned clearly if I have proved my assertions how can you withhold your assent—*That* often means *in order that* as, " Live virtuously, that you may die happy "—I admire you, my friend—I love you—but you must not expect me to make this sacrifice—One thread does not make a rope one swallow does not make summer—He arose and said Mr Chairman, I propose, etc.—Can these words add vigor to your hearts—Yes they can do it—they have often done it—Philosophers assert, that nature is unlimited in her operations that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve that knowledge will always be progressive and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries—The grant was absolute and exclusive it conceded the land and islands the rivers and the harbors the mines and the fisheries—The works of Rev Wm J Curran, DD, with an introduction.

THE COMMA.

The **Comma** indicates the least degree of separation denoted by any point.

The comma is used

I. Between short members of compound sentences, connected by conjunctions ; as, " There mountains rise, and circling oceans flow. "—" Beauty dazzles, but amiability charms. "

II. Between clauses, phrases, adjuncts, and words, not essential to the meaning of a sentence, when introduced between a subject and its verb, or other parts that are closely connected ; as, " Rome, *which then ruled the world*, was opposed to the measure. " — " We may, *generally speaking*, depend upon this rule. "—" Thomas, *by the way*, would like to hear from you. "—" France, *meanwhile*, was arming for the struggle. "

III. After or before clauses, phrases, adjuncts, and single words, standing, as the case may be, at the commencement or end of a sentence ; as, " *Of all vices*, impurity is one of the most detestable. "—" I dislike all misery, *voluntary or involuntary*. "

OBS.—Restrictive adjuncts or clauses must not be set off with the comma ; as, " All must pay the debt *of nature*. "—" The men *who persevere*, are the men who succeed. "

IV. To separate similar parts of speech, or similar expressions constituting a series ; as, " Sunshine, cloud, and storm,—all are sent for some wise purpose. "—" The good will form hereafter stronger, purer, holier ties. "

V. To separate from its predicate, a complex subject consisting of several parts which require commas between them, or one ending with a verb ; as, " Love for study, a desire to do right, and carefulness in the choice of friends, are important traits of character. "—" What ever breathes, lives. "

VI. After each pair of words or phrases taken in pairs ;

as, "Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, desolation and ruin, are the consequences of civil war."

VII. Before *or* introducing an equivalent, or a clause defining the writer's meaning; as, "Spelter, *or* zinc, comes chiefly from Germany."

VIII. To take the place of a verb previously used or a conjunction omitted, for the sake of avoiding repetition; as, "Reading makes a full man; conference, a ready man; and writing, an exact man."—"Tin is found in England, Bohemia, Saxony, Malacca, and Banca."

IX. To separate words or clauses denoting comparison, opposition of meaning, or contrast; as, "Return a kindness, not an injury".—"Brief, but decisive, was the struggle."—"As the hart panteth after the water brooks, so panteth my soul after Thee."—*Ps.*

X. To separate an oppositional phrase from the word or the words which it modifies; as, "Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, was defeated by Octavius."

XI. To set off with their adjuncts, if they have any, words repeated for the sake of emphasis; as, "Truth, truth, and nothing but truth, will satisfy the candid inquirer."

XII. To set off independent or absolute words or phrases; as, "*Friend John*, what is wanted?"—"To say the least, it was unfair."—"And now, *sir*, what is your conclusion?"

XIII. Before a short quotation, or a sentence resembling a quotation; as, "It hurts a man's pride to say, 'I do not know.'"

XIV. To set off whatever clause, phrase, or word that would occasion ambiguity, if not set off by a comma; as, "I have seen brave sons, *and daughters.*"

EXERCISE.

Insert periods, interrogation and exclamation points, colons, semicolons, and commas, where they are required,

He who preserves me to whom I owe my being whose I am and whom I serve is eternal—In general the best men are the happiest—The clergy as it has been before remarked were the most intelligent portion of the population—An aged venerable man—The authority of Plato and Aristotle of Zeno and Epicurus still reigned in the schools—The word Poet meaning a maker a creator is derived from the Greek—The greatest of poets among the ancients Homer like one of the greatest among the moderns Milton was blind—Show pity Lord—O Lord forgive—A good rule in education is learn to be slow in forming your opinions—Crafty men though they may pretend otherwise contemn studies simple men though they really care nothing about the matter yet pretend to admire them wise men use them—Sullivan commanded on the right flank Greene on the left—As a companion he was severe and satirical as a friend captious and dangerous in his domestic sphere harsh jealous and irascible—The playwrights where are they—and the poets are their fires extinguished—Here and here only lies the democratic character of the revolution—O let me listen to the words of life—Hail holy light offspring of heaven first-born—To foster industry to promote union to cherish religious peace these were the honest purposes of Lord Baltimore during his long supremacy—The following is a dialogue between Socrates the great Athenian philosopher and one Glaucon a private man—The truest mode of enlarging our benevolence is not to quicken our sensibility towards great masses or wide-spread evils but to approach comprehend sympathize with and act upon a continually increasing number of individuals.

THE DASH.

The dash is used.

I. To denote that a sentence is unfinished from hesitation in the speaker or writer, or some sudden interruption; as, "Pardon me for wounding your feelings, but—"

II. To denote a break in the construction ; as, " Glory —what is it ? "

III. To denote a transition in the sentiment from grave to humorous ; as, " He had a manly bearing and—an exceedingly red nose. "

IV. To denote hesitation ; as, " Such a man is a—a—I know not what to call him. "

V. To set off words and clauses used parenthetically , as, " I have seen thousands—or, more properly, tens of thousands—feeding together on the rich grass of the prairies. "

VI. To separate question and answer, when run into a paragraph ; as, " Who made you ?—God. What else did God make ?—God made all things. "

VII. To mark the omissions of letters or figures ; as,— " General W—defeated Napoleon at Waterloo." " In the year 18—, I stopped over night at the village of R.—"

VIII. After *as* and *thus*, when the example following them begins a new line.

For example, see the preceding Rule.

THE PARENTHESIS.

Marks of Parenthesis, or Curves, are used to inclose words which have little or no connection with the rest of the sentence ; as, " The alligator (so the American crocodile is called) abounds in the bayous of Louisiana."

Obs.—The parenthesis is now employed less frequently than formerly ; commas or dashes being used to supply its place ; as, " The colonists—such is human nature—desired to burn the town in which they had been so wretched."

THE BRACKETS.

The Brackets, or Crotchets, generally enclose some correction or explanation, or the subject to be explained ; as, " Few good men [the author might have said none at all] can escape calumny."

EXERCISE.

Insert colons, semicolons, commas, dashes, parenthesis, and brackets, wherever they are required.

The boy oh! where was he? Honor 'tis an empty bubble. The disposition of our most eminent and most virtuous men alas! that it should be so to keep aloof from public affairs is a serious fact. Putting off the courtier he the king now puts on the philosopher. Revere thyself and yet thyself despise. The finder Henry has been rewarded. To be overlooked and misunderstood to be envied and persecuted such is too often the fate of genius. While the Christian desires the approbation of his fellow-men and why should he not desire it? he disdains to receive their good-will by dishonorable means. If we exercise right principles and we cannot have them unless we exercise them they must be perpetually on the increase. Are you still I fear you are far from being comfortably settled? The Egyptian style of architecture see Dr. P. not his discourses but his prints was apparently the mother of the Greek.

“Know then this truth enough for man to know
Virtue alone is happiness below.”—*Pope*.

OTHER MARKS USED IN WRITTEN AND PRINTED MATTER.

The **Apostrophe (')** is used to denote either the possessive case of nouns, or the elision of one or more letters of a word; as, *John's, hero's, men's, heroes'.*—*O'er* for *over*, *don't* for *do not*, *tho'* for *though*.

The **Quotation Marks (" ")** are used to enclose a passage quoted from a writer or speaker in his own words. Ex.: Socrates said, “I believe the soul to be immortal.” A quotation within another quotation is marked with the single marks. Ex.: It has been well said, “The command, ‘Thou shalt not kill,’ forbids many crimes besides that of murder.”

The **Hyphen (-)** is used after a part of a word, at the

end of a line, to show that the remainder is at the beginning of the next line ; and to connect the simple parts of a compound word ; as, ill-natured, father-in-law.

The *Dicæresis* (¨) is placed over the latter of two vowels to denote that they are separated ; as, *aërial*, *coöperate*.

The *Ced'illa* is a mark placed under the letter *c* (*ç*), to show that it has the sound of *s* ; as, *façade*.

EXERCISE.

Insert apostrophes, quotation marks, hyphens, dicæresis, and cedillas, wherever they are required.

I was not only a shipboy on the high and giddy mast, but also in the cabin where every menial office fell to my lot. Een tho the heavens should fall, Ill have no fear. As we approached the citys gates on that never to be forgotten day, my companions courage forsook him. Id not give a hapenny for such an ill tempered cur. The oft quoted passage, God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb, is taken from Sternes Sentimental Journey. A gem, says a Chinese proverb, is not polished without rubbing; nor is a man perfected without trials. This is an all absorbing affair. In my first parliament, said James, I was a novice. Tired natures sweet restorer, as Young poeticaly styles sleep, is oerpowering me. A good rule in education is learn to be slow in forming your opinions.

[For additional exercises in punctuation, the teacher may write on a blackboard some portion of a well-pointed book, omitting all the points ; and then require the pupil to transcribe and punctuate it. When this is done, the several copies may be compared and corrected. The teacher may also read one or more paragraphs aloud, and require the pupils to write and punctuate what is read, without seeing the printed copy. Exercises of this description should be repeated till the pupils become familiar with all the common principles of punctuation.]

APPENDIX.

LITERARY PRECEPTS.

QUALITIES OF STYLE.

1. **Style** is the particular manner in which a person expresses his thoughts and conceptions by means of language.

2. The *general qualities* which constitute a good style are *purity, precision, clearness, propriety, strength, and harmony.*

I.—PURITY.

3. **Purity** of style consists in the use of such words and modes of expression as are warranted by good authority.

The "good authority" is the usage of the best writers and speakers.

4. Two rules must be observed to insure purity of style:

I. Do not use foreign words or modes of construction, when there are pure English ones that are just as expressive; as, *delicatesse*, for *delicacy*; *a propos*, for *appropriate*.

II. Do not use obsolete or unauthorized words; as, *behest*, *quoth*, *incumberment*, *connexity*, for *command*, *said*, *encumbrance*, *connexion*.

II.—PRECISION.

5. **Precision** consists in the use of such words as exactly express the idea intended to be conveyed.

6. Precision is violated:—

I. In the use of words which are generally considered synonymous, but which do not convey the same meaning

as *discover*, *invent*. We *discover* what existed before, but was unknown; we *invent* what is new. In the following sentences, "*Cartier invented Canada*," "*Bacon discovered gunpowder*," precision is violated. The words *discovered* and *invented* are misused, and the sentences should be, "*Carter discovered Canada*; "*Bacon invented gunpowder*."

II. By substituting for the proper word, another word formed from the same primitive, but which ought to be differently applied; as, *conscience* for *consciousness*, *observation* for *observance*. In such a sentence as this, "The farmers of Ontario pay great attention to the *culture* of corn," there is a violation of precision in the use of *culture* for *cultivation*; the sentence should read, "The farmers of Ontario pay great attention to the cultivation of corn."

III.—CLEARNESS.

7. **Clearness** consists in such a use and arrangement of words that the meaning cannot be mistaken.

8. The opposite of *clearness* is *obscurity*.

9. The most frequent causes of obscurity are the use of ambiguous or equivocal words, and the improper arrangement of words or clauses.

10. To promote clearness;—

I. Avoid ambiguous expressions. Example: "The *reproof* of the erring is a duty." In this sentence, the use of the word *reproof* makes the sentence ambiguous, the meaning might be, that *it is the duty of the erring to reprove others*. To be correct, it should be, "To reprove the erring is a duty."

II. Do not make the same pronoun refer to different objects in the same sentence.

Example: Louis promised *his* father that he would never forget *his* advice. This sentence is incorrect, because the first *his* refers to *Louis*, while the second refers to *father*. To be correct, it should read: Louis promised his father, "I will never forget your advice,"

III. Insert words that are wanting, when they cannot readily be supplied by the mind.

Ex. "They love who flatter them." This sentence is incorrect because the word that is omitted cannot readily be supplied by the mind, and we must therefore insert it and read, "They love *those* who flatter them."

11. Words and clauses must be placed as near as possible to the words to which they relate.

12. The words that are most frequently misplaced are *adverbs*; particularly *only*, and *not only*. By their being misplaced, they are made to modify a different word from the one intended, and the whole meaning of the sentence is changed.

Ex. "By greatness, I do not *only* mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of a whole view." Here, *only* is so placed as to modify *mean*, and might raise the question, What else does he intend to do? In like manner, if the adverb is placed after *bulk*, the question might be asked, If it is the bulk only that you are speaking about? The proper order is, "By greatness, I do not mean the bulk of any single object *only*, but the largeness of a whole view."

13. A relative clause should be placed immediately after its antecedent.

Ex. "It is my friend's son, whom I love so well." Change *friend's* to *of my friend*, and place *son* before it; thus, "It is the son of my friend, whom I love so well." We thus bring the relative clause immediately after the antecedent, *friend*.

IV.—PROPRIETY.

14. Propriety of language or diction is the selection of such words as the best usage has appropriated to the ideas intended to be expressed.

15. To insure propriety, we must be careful to avoid *low* and *vulgar expressions*; such as "They are *in a bad fix*," "As the noise disturbed me, I told him to *hold his tongue*"; for "They are *in difficulties*," "As the noise disturbed me, I told him to *be quiet*."

To attain propriety of diction, the chief means are a frequent use of the Dictionary, and a constant observation of the way in which words are used in good authors.

V.—STRENGTH.

16. **Strength** consists in such a use and arrangement of the several words and members of a sentence, as shall bring out the sense to the best advantage, and give every word and every member its due weight and force.

17. To secure for a sentence its full strength, several subordinate rules are to be observed.

I. A sentence is made stronger by leaving out *redundant words and members*.

Ex. "The least that is said on the subject, the soonest it will be mended." This sentence expresses the idea clearly enough, but not with half the force of the usual expression, "Least said, soonest mended."

II. The strength of a sentence may often be increased by care in the use of the words employed to mark connection or transition. These are chiefly the relative pronouns, the conjunctions, and the prepositions.

"These little words, *but, and, which, whose, where, etc.*, are frequently the most important of any; they are the joints or hinges upon which all sentences turn, and of course, much, both of the gracefulness and strength of sentences, must depend upon such particles."—*Blair*.

III. The strength of a sentence is promoted by due care in bringing it to a conclusion.

Avoid ending a sentence with an *adverb*, a *preposition*, or any inconsiderable word, or phrase which may either be omitted or be introduced *earlier*. For instance, it is better to say, "Formerly such things were not allowed;" "Avarice is a vice of which wise men are often guilty," than to say, "Such things were not allowed *formerly*;" "Avarice is a vice which wise men are often guilty of".

IV. When things are to be compared or contrasted,

their resemblance or apposition will be rendered more striking, if some resemblance in the language and construction, be preserved.

Ex. *The laughers* will be for those who have most wit; *the serious part of mankind* for those who have most reason on their side". Correct thus : " *The laughers* will be for those who have most wit; *the serious*, for those who have most reason on their side. "

V. A weaker assertion or proposition should not follow a stronger ; and when the sentence consists of two members, the longer should be the concluding one.

Ex. " The power of man, his greatness, his glory, depend on essential qualities."—" A word from his lips, a thought from his brain, might turn their hearts, might influence their passions, might change their opinions, might affect their destiny."—" When our passions have forsaken us, we flatter ourselves with the belief that we have forsaken them. "

VI.—HARMONY.

18. The **harmony** of a sentence consists in that smooth and easy flow which pleases the ear.

19. The words, for the most part inharmonious are : 1st, Such as are derived from long compound words ; as *unsuccessfulness, wrongheadedness*. 2nd, Such as contain a great number of consonants ; as, *chroniclers, phthisic*. 3rd, Such as are composed of a number of short syllables, with the accent on or near the first ; as, *primarily, lowlily*.

20. A succession of words of the same length is inharmonious ; thus, " No kind of joy can long please us, " is by no means as harmonious as, " No *species* of joy can long *delight* us."

21. A succession of words that resemble each other in the sound of any of their syllables, should be avoided ; thus, " A fair fairy, " " a mild child, " are less harmonious than, " A handsome *fairy*, " " a gentle *child*."

Finally, the best guide for the general arrangement of words and clauses, is the ear.

SPECIAL PROPERTIES OF STYLE.

22. The Special Properties of Style may be considered under the following heads: *Sublimity, Beauty, Wit, and Humor.*

I.—SUBLIMITY.

23. The term **Sublimity** is the quality applied to great and noble objects which produce a sort of internal elevation and expansion. For instance, the highest commendation that can be given to any piece of composition, is to say that it is sublime.

24. The several qualities and circumstances which produce a feeling of the sublime are, *vastness, power, awfulness, obscurity, loudness of sound, moral greatness.*

Vastness.—Wide-extended plains, to which the eye discerns no limit; the firmament of heaven; the boundless expanse of ocean, furnish us with familiar examples of sublimity.

Power.—Earthquakes, thunder and lightning, volcanoes, cataracts, storms at sea, and nearly all unusual and violent commotions of the elements, give an impression of power that awakens a feeling of the sublime.

Awfulness.—Darkness, solitude, and silence, which have a tendency to fill the mind with awe, contribute much to sublimity. The scenes of external nature which awaken this feeling are not the gay landscape, the flowery meadow, or the busy and flourishing city; but the hoary mountain, the solitary lake, the aged forest, or the deserted ruin.

Obscurity.—The mysterious power attributed to ghosts, joined to the awful obscurity attending their appearance, has always given them a strong hold upon the imagination. A good illustration of this is found in the book of Job, (4-13-17).

Loudness of sound.—It is the deep bass of the ocean, the roar of the cataract and of the storm, of thunder and earthquake, the shouting of a multitude, or the bursting of cannon, not the shriek of the locomotive, that awakens a feeling of sublimity.

Moral greatness.—When the pilot was afraid to put out to sea with Cæsar in an open boat in time of storm, Cæsar said, "Why do you fear?" "You carry Cæsar."

25. The sublime in writing or discourse consists in the *Sublimity of Subject, a Vivid Conception of the Strong Points, the Suppression of Belittling Details, and the Simplicity and Conciseness of Expression.*

Sublimity of Subject.—The first requisite, in order that a piece of composition shall be sublime, is that the subject of discourse shall itself be sublime.

A Vivid Conception of the Strong Points.—Napoleon in Egypt, wishing to inspire his army with enthusiasm for the battle, pointed to the Pyramids, and said : “Thirty centuries are looking down upon you !” No one who was not himself of heroic mould would have thus conceived or spoken of those hoary monuments of antiquity.

Suppression of Belittling Details.—In Milton’s battle of the angels, describing them as tearing up the mountains and throwing them at one another, there are many details which are belittling :

From their foundations, loos’ning to and fro,
They plucked the seated hills, with all their load,
Rocks, waters, woods ; and by the shaggy tops,
Uplifting, bore them in their hands.

Here no circumstance is mentioned which is not sublime.

Simplicity and Conciseness of Expression.—This is one of the most important essentials of sublimity in writing. The greatest thoughts must be presented in the fewest words. “I love God and little children”, says a German philosopher. In what more elevated terms could he have expressed his love for sinlessness and innocence. Most of the sayings and miracles of our Lord, as recorded in the Gospels, are expressed with the utmost simplicity and plainness, and yet they are in the highest degree sublime. For example, In describing the greatest of all his miracles, the record is simply, “Jesus said, Lazarus, come forth • and he that was dead came forth.” And to the leprous man, “Be thou clean : and immediately his leprosy was cleansed.”

II.—BEAUTY.

26. Beauty, next to Sublimity, affords the highest pleasure to the taste. The emotion it awakens is easily distinguishable from that of sublimity. It is of a calmer kind ; more gentle and soothing ; does not elevate the

mind so much, but, on the contrary, produces an agreeable serenity.

27. The qualities which produce in us the emotion of beauty, in general, may be reduced under the following heads:—*Color, Figure, Motion, Complex Beauty, Beauty of Countenance, Moral Beauty.*

Color.—Color is one of the chief elements of beauty. The structure of the eye is such as to receive more pleasure from certain colors than others.

The various traits that characterize the beautiful colors which nature everywhere employs to render her works attractive, will be recognized in the blending shades or tints with which she paints the plumage of the birds, the leaves of plants and flowers, the varied hues of the morning and evening sky, the wondrous shells of the ocean, the still more wondrous gems from the mine. In some cases, the pleasure derived from color is influenced by the association of ideas. Green, for instance, is more pleasing, because associated with rural scenes; blue, with the serenity of the sky; white, with innocence.

Figure.—Regular figures, or such as we perceive to be formed according to fixed principles, are, as a general rule, beautiful. Such is the character of circles, squares, triangles, and ellipses.

Motion.—Motion is a source of beauty. By this is meant that bodies in motion are for that reason more agreeable than bodies at rest.

The first requisite to the agreeableness of any motion is that it should be gentle. A bird gliding through the air is beautiful; the lightning, on the contrary, darting from side to side of the heavens, or a mighty river chafing against its banks, partakes rather of sublimity.

Complex Beauty.—Though color, figure, and motion are separate principles of beauty, yet in many beautiful objects they all meet, and thereby render the beauty both greater and more complex.

Thus, in flowers, trees, and animals, we are entertained at once with the delicacy of the color, with the gracefulness of the figure, and sometimes also with the motion of the object. Different sensations are produced by each of these qualities; yet they blend in one general perception of beauty.

Beauty of Countenance.—This beauty of the human countenance

is more complex than any that we have yet considered. It includes the beauty of color, arising from the delicate shades of the complexion ; and the beauty of figure, arising from the lines which form the different features of the face. But the chief beauty of the countenance depends upon a mysterious expression which it conveys of the qualities of the mind ; of good sense or good humor ; of sprightliness, candor, benevolence, sensibility, or other amiable dispositions. What gives the human countenance its most distinguishing beauty is what is called its expression.

Moral Beauty.—There are two great classes of moral qualities. One class characterizes the high and great virtues, among which, heroism, magnanimity, contempt of pleasures, and contempt of death. The other class belongs to the gentler virtues, among which, compassion, mildness, friendship, and generosity.

28. The requisites to Beauty in composition are *Beauty of Subject, Beauty of Expression, and Conciseness not Necessary.*

Beauty of Subject means that the subject of discourse, to be beautiful, must present to the mind beautiful subjects for thought.

There is a difference between the *beautiful* and the *scientific*. In scientific inquiry, our object is to obtain the exact facts, whether agreeable or disagreeable. But, in attempting to write what is beautiful, our object is to please.

Beauty of Expression means that the subject be handled in an agreeable manner. It excludes low and vulgar expressions, slang phrases, and words which are harsh-sounding or difficult of utterance, when there are others more euphonious and equally expressive. It makes much use of simile, metaphor, and other rhetorical figures, and pays great attention to the structure of sentences, so as to make them flowing and harmonious.

Conciseness not Necessary means that Beauty, as an attribute of style, does not require the same degree of conciseness that sublimity does. A certain degree of diffuseness is entirely compatible with that ease and grace of expression which is characteristic of beauty.

III.—WIT.

29. Wit is that quality of thoughts and expressions which excites in the mind an agreeable surprise, not by

means of any thing marvellous in the subject, but merely by employing a peculiar imagery, or presenting in a novel and singular relation ideas remotely connected.

Example.—Louis XIV., being molested by the solicitations of a certain general officer, cried out, loud enough to be overheard, "That gentleman is the most troublesome officer in the whole army." "Your Majesty's enemies more than once have said the same thing," was the witty reply. Here, that the man should assent to the royal invective, and that he should show it to be erroneous, are two distinct and apparently contradictory ideas. Yet the two ideas are expressed in such terms, that a relation between them is seen to exist, and the unexpected discovery of this relation constitutes the wit.

30. When witticism plays upon words, it is called a *pun*.

Example.—"You are a member of Parliament, and one of the majority which has doomed my country to distraction. You have begun to burn our towns and murder our people. Look upon your hands! They are stained with the blood of your relations! You and I were long friends. You are now my enemy, and I am

Yours,

B. FRANKLIN."

Another Example.—"Beneath this stone my wife doth lie,
She's now *at rest*, and so am I."

IV.—HUMOR.

31. **Humor** is, in many respects, like wit. Its object is to excite laughter, and it appeals accordingly to our sense of the ridiculous.

32. The subject of humor is character: not everything in character; not its graver faults or vices; but its peculiarities, its foibles, caprices, extravagances, anxieties, jealousies, childish fondnesses, and weaknesses generally,—its affectation, vanity, and self-conceit.

One who possesses a talent for the humorous finds the greatest scope for its display in telling familiar stories, or acting a whimsical part in an assumed character. Even the mimicking of minute per-

culiarities of pronunciation, or grammatical faults in discourse, is admissible in the humorous production.

FIGURES.

A **Figure**, is an intentional deviation from the ordinary spelling, form, construction, or application, of words.

2. Figures may be divided into four classes:—Figures of Orthography, Figures of Etymology, Figure, of Syntax, and Figures of Rhetoric.

When figures are judiciously employed, they both strengthen and adorn expression.

FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

3. A **Figure of Orthography** is an intentional deviation from the ordinary spelling of words.

4. The figures of orthography are two;—Mimesis and Archaism.

5. **Mimesis** is an imitation of some mistake or mispronunciation of a word, in which the error is mimicked by a false spelling; "*Maister*," says he, "have you any *very* good *weal* in your *wället*!"

6. **Archaism** is the spelling of a word according to ancient usage; as, "In my tyme my poore father was as diligent to teach me to shote as to learne anye other thyng, and so I thynke other menne did thyr children."

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

7. A **Figure of Etymology** is an intentional deviation from the ordinary form of words.

8. The principal figures of etymology are eight in number;—Aphæresis, Prosthesis, Syncope, Apocope, Paragoge, Diæresis, Synœresis, and Tmesis.

9. **Aphæresis** is the elision of a letter or letters from

the beginning of a word; as, 'gainst for *against*; 'neath, for *beneath*.

10. **P. osthesis** is the prefixing of one or more letters to a word; as, *adown*, for *down*; *beloved*, for *loved*.

11. **Syncope** is the elision of one or more letters from the middle of a word; as, *e'er* for *ever*; *ling'ring*, for *lingering*.

12. **Apocope** is the elision of one or more letters from the end of a word; as, *tho'*, for *though*; *th'* for *the*; *yon*, for *yonder*.

13. **Paragoge** is the addition of one or more letters to the end of a word; as, *vasty*, for *vast*; *awaken*, for *awake*; *bounden*, for *bound*.

14. **Dicæres** is the separation of two vowels standing together, so as to connect them with different syllables; as, *aëronaut*, not *æronaut*; *coöperate*, not *cooperate*.

15. **Synæresis** is the contraction of two syllables into one; as, *talk'st*, for *talkest*; *thou'rt*, for *thou art*.

16. **Tmesis** is the separation of a compound word into two parts, by introducing another word or words between them; as, "Thy thoughts which are *to us ward*," for, "Thy thoughts which are *toward us*;"—"How high *soever*," for "Howsoever high."

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

17. A **Figure of Syntax** is an intentional deviation from the ordinary construction of words.

18. The principal figures of syntax are five in number;—Ellipsis, Pleonasm, Syllepsis, Enallage, and Hyperbaton.

19. **Ellipsis** is the omission of one or more words necessary to complete the grammatical construction of a sentence, but not essential to its meaning; as, "Bring (*to*) me the newspaper;"—"I knew (*that*) he would not come."

Ellipsis applies to all the parts of speech, to phrases, and to clauses.

20. **Pleonasm** is the use of more words than are

necessary to express an idea; as, "What we have seen *with our eyes*, and heard *with our ears*."

Pleonasm is often used to emphasize, to complete a line of poetry, or to round a sentence. The improper use of it, however, weakens the force of expression, and is a great blemish.

21. **Syllepsis** is the construing of words according to the meaning they convey, and not by the strict requirements of grammatical rules; as, "He carried away captive the whole village, regardless of *their* supplications;" "the whole village," meaning *all the inhabitants*, is represented by *their* and not by *its*.

22. **Enallage** is the use of one part of speech for another; as, "They fall *successive(ly)*, and *successive(ly)* rise."—*Pope*. "Sure some disaster has *befell*" (befallen).—*Gay*.

23. **Hyperbaton**, or **Inversion**, is the transposition of words; as, "All price beyond," for "Beyond all price."

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

24. A **Figure of Rhetoric** is an intentional deviation from the ordinary application of words, or mode of expression.

25. The principal figures of rhetoric are the following:—Simile, Metaphor, Allegory, Antithesis, Hyperbole, Irony, Metonymy, Synecdoche, Personification, Apostrophe, Interrogation, Exclamation, Vision, and Climax.

Some of these figures, namely, those which apply to words only are called *tropes* (from a Greek word meaning a *turn*), because the word is turned from its usual application.

26. A **Simile** is a direct comparison, commonly shown by the use of *as*, *as—so*, or *like*; as, "Thy smile is *as* the dawn of the vernal day."—"He shall be *like* a tree planted by the rivers of water."—"As cold water to a thirsty soul, *so* is good news from a far country."

27. A **Metaphor** is a figure founded upon the resemblance which one object bears to another. Hence it is nearly allied to Simile. A metaphor is, indeed, a sort of

abridged simile ; as, *The Lord is my rock, and my fortress.*—" *Nature was to him a closed book.* "

A simile is converted into a metaphor by the omission of the term of comparison ; on the other hand, a metaphor may become a simile by the use of *like*, etc.

28. An **Allegory** is a succession of metaphors, or of sentences containing metaphorical language, the whole forming a narration of imaginary events, designed to represent and illustrate important realities. Thus the Psalmist represents the *Jewish nation* under the symbol of a *vineyard* :—"Thou hast brought a vineyard out of Egypt : Thou hast cast out the gentiles, and planted it. Thou didst prepare the way for it : Thou plantedst the roots thereof, and it filled the land. The shadow of it covered the hills : and the branches thereof the cedars of God."

Fables and parables are short allegories.

29. An **Antithesis** is a placing of things in opposition, to heighten their effect by contrast ; as, "The *prodigal* robs his heir, the *miser* robs himself."—"The *wicked* flee, when no man pursueth, but the *righteous* are bold as a lion."

30. An **Hyperbole** is an exaggeration in the use of language, representing objects as greater or less, better or worse, than they really are ; as, "It is *whiter than snow.*"—They (Saul and Jonathan) were *swifter than eagles* ; they were *stronger than lions.*"

31. **Irony** is a mode of speech expressing a sense contrary to that which the speaker or writer intends to convey. The prophet Elias employed this figure when he said to the priests of Baal. "Cry with a louder voice : for he is a god, and perhaps he is talking, or is in an inn, or on a journey, or perhaps he is asleep, and must be awaked."

32. **Metonymy** means a change of name. This is a figure in which the name of one object is put for some other object, the two being so related that the mention

of one naturally suggests the other. Thus, when it is said, "The drunkard loves his *bottle*," we know that it is not the bottle, but what it contains, that the drunkard loves. The bottle is put for the liquor, the container for the thing contained, and this change of name is a Metonymy.

Metonymies are very numerous in kind. Among the various relations which give rise to Metonymy are the following: *cause* and *effect*, *subject* and *attribute*, *container* and *thing contained*, *sign* and *thing signified*, etc.

I. *Cause for the Effect*.—"They have *Moses* and the *prophets*," that is, "*their writings*."—"I am reading *Milton*," that is, his *works*.

II. *Effect for cause*.—"Gray hairs (old age) should be respected."—"There is *death* (a death--causing thing) in the pot."

III. *Container for thing contained*.—"Our *ships* (sailors) next opened a fire."—"The *kettle* (the water in the kettle) boils."

IV. *The Sign for the thing signified*.—"The *sceptre* (the sovereignty) shall not depart from *Juda*."—"His *steel* (sword) gleamed on high."

33. *Synecdoche* is the naming of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part; as, "A *sail* (ship or vessel) passed at a distance."—"They have seen twenty *summers* (years)."

34. *Personification* or *Prosopopeia* is a figure by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; or ascribe to irrational animals and objects without life, the actions and qualities of rational beings; as, "The ground *thirsts* for rain."—"Has *war* trod o'er them with *his* foot of fire?"

35. *Apostrophe* is a sudden turning aside from the regular course of the subject, to address some person or thing; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory. *O death! where is thy sting? O Grave! where is thy victory?*"

36. *Interrogation* is a mode of questioning, used, not to

seek information, but rather to express a strong affirmation or denial; as, "He that planted the ear, shall he not hear?"—"Who feedeth a flock, and eateth not of the milk of flock?"

37. **Exclamation** is a figure akin to Interrogation. It is employed to express some strong emotion; as, "What a piece of work is man! how noble in reason! how infinite in faculties!"—"How is the gold become dim! how is the most fine gold changed!"

38. **Vision, or Imagery**, is a figure by which past or future events are represented as passing before our eyes; as, "I seem to myself to behold this city, the ornament of the earth, and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration. I see before me the slaughtered heaps of citizens lying unburied in the midst of their ruined Country. The furious countenance of Cethegus rises to my view, while, with a savage joy, he is triumphing in your miseries."—*Cicero*.

39. **Climax** is a figure in which the sentiment rises in regular gradation; as, "They fought, they bled, they died for freedom."—"Add to your faith virtue; and to virtue, knowledge; and to knowledge, continence; and to continence, patience, etc."—2. *Pet.* 1: 5-7.

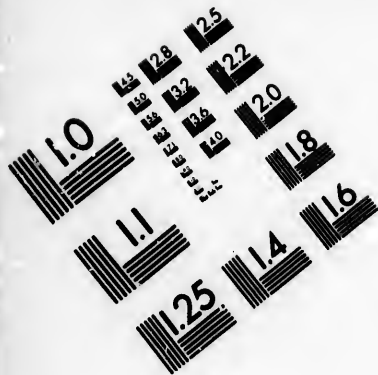
COMPOSITION.

1 **Composition** is the art of expressing one's thoughts by means of written language. It is divided into two great divisions;—*Prose* and *Poetry*.

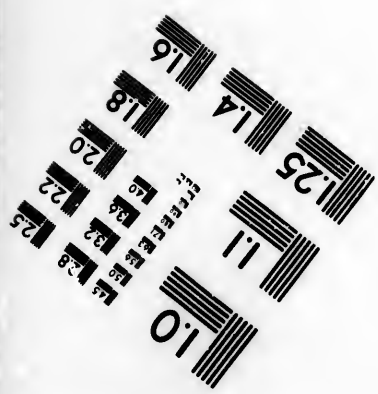
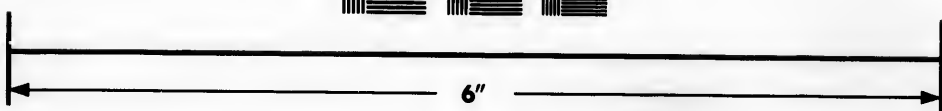
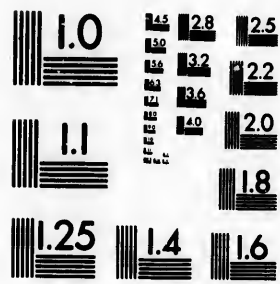
2. **Prose** comprises all those compositions in which a natural method of expression, and a natural order, are employed, without reference to the recurrence of certain sounds, or any exact arrangement of syllables.

3. **Poetry** comprises all those compositions in which there is a departure from the natural order, or mode of





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expression; or in which there is a recurrence of certain sounds, or an exact arrangement of syllables.

We will consider but *prose* only.

4. The principal divisions of prose composition may be classed under the following heads:—Letters, Narrations, Descriptions, Essays, and Argumentative Discourses.

When a subject has been selected, no matter to which of these divisions your composition is to belong, the first thing to be done is to reflect upon the various branches of the subject, to think what can be said about it, and then proceed to its outline.

5. The *outline* of a subject is the drawing out of the various heads under which it is intended to treat it. The heads will depend altogether on the subject.

LETTERS.

6. A Letter is a prose composition addressed to some person or persons.

Letter-writing is commonly called Epistolary correspondence. It is one of the most important branches of composition, entering more largely than any other into the daily business of life.

7. Letters may be divided into two general classes;—*Private & Public*.

PRIVATE LETTERS.

8. Private Letters are those that are intended only for those to whom they are addressed. They may be divided into three classes:—*Social, Business, and Miscellaneous*.

9. Social Letters are letters of sentiments. They include the great mass of familiar correspondence, to which belong Domestic or Family letters, letters of Introduction, of Congratulation, of Condolence, of Advice, of Affection, and, in a word, all letters that are prompted by love or friendship.

10. A Business Letter, as its name implies, is a letter

on business. In this, brevity and clearness are all-important.

A business letter should be exclusively such. Matters of a social or domestic nature should generally be in a separate letter.

11. **Miscellaneous Letters** include those letters of an accidental or unusual character, to which our complicated relations to society give rise.

PUBLIC LETTERS.

12. **Public Letters** are letters in form only. They are essays or reports intended for the public, but addressed to some individual.

To this class belong most of the letters published in the newspapers, addressed either to the editor or to some distinguished public man.

FORM OF LETTER.

13. The points in the form of a letter requiring attention are the Heading, the Introduction, the Subscription, and the Superscription.

THE HEADING.

14. The **Heading** consists of the *Place* and the *Date*. In other words, it is a statement of the place where, and time when, the letter is written.

If the heading is long, it is often broken into two lines; if short, it is generally given in one. Thus:—

St. Mary, Beauce Co., P. Q.
March 14, 1880.

Arthabaska, P. Q., June 1, 1880.

Some letter-writers have a fancy for putting the time and place at the bottom of the letter in stead of the top, but the custom is not to be recommended.

THE INTRODUCTION.

15. The Introduction, when complete, consists of two parts,—the Address, and the Salutation.

THE ADDRESS.

16. The *Address*, when complete, consists of the *Name* and *Title* of the person written to, and his *Directions*.

NOTE.—Every important word of the address must begin with a capital; also the first word and every noun in the salutation.

17. The *Salutation* is the term of politeness, respect, or affection, with which we introduce a letter; such as, *Dear Sir*, *My dear Friend*, *My dear and honored Father*, etc.

In business letters, the term generally employed in writing to a gentleman is *Sir*, *Dear Sir*, or *My dear Sir* (1). In writing to a firm, *Sirs* may be substituted for *Sir* in the above expressions, or the term, *Gentlemen*, may be employed.

A military officer is saluted as *Captain*, *Colonel*, *General*, etc.; a governor, as *Your Excellency*; an archbishop, as *Your Grace*; a bishop, as *Your Lordship*; the mayor of a city, as *Your Worship*, etc., etc.

In a business letter addressed to a married woman or a single woman not young, the proper salutation is *Madam*, *Dear Madam*, or *My dear Madam*; to two or more, married or single, *Ladies*.

An unmarried lady is best addressed in a single line: *Mis—*; *Dear Miss—*; or, *My dear Miss—*.

Most of the forms of salutation used in business letters are equally appropriate in many other letters. The particular expression to be used depends upon the feelings or fancy of the writer, and his relation to the person addressed. Strangers may be addressed as *Sir*, *Miss Jones*, or *Madam*; acquaintances, as *Dear Sir*, *Dear Miss Nelson*,

(1) *Dear Sir* is more a familiar term than *Sir*, and implies previous acquaintance or correspondence; *My Dear Sir* is more familiar than *Dear Sir*, and implies not only acquaintance but friendship.

or *Dear Madam* ; friends, as *Dear Friend*, *Friend Sarah*, *My dear Lauriston*, etc. ; near relatives and other very dear friends, by such terms as *My dear Father*, *My dear Daughter*, *My dear Henry*, *Dearest Mary*, etc., etc.

18. In writing business letters, the full address is placed at the beginning. Thus :—

Messrs. Henry Marsan & Brothers

Elgin Street, Montreal ;

Dear Sirs,

Your favor, etc.

NOTE.—The body of the letter usually begins under the end of the salutation, but when the address is long, as in the above, it may begin in the same line as the salutation, in which case a dash must precede it. Thus :—

Dear Sirs,—Your favor, etc.

19. In letters of courtesy or affection, the method of placing the address at the end, is preferable. In the military service, this form is prescribed.

THE SUBSCRIPTION.

20. In closing a letter, the writer subscribes his name with more or less fulness, and in such terms of respect or affection as the circumstances may seem to warrant.

These terms, like those of the address, vary according to the varying relations of the parties, so that no general rule for them can be given.

Business letters very commonly close as follows :—
“Yours respectfully ;” or as to page 182. These may be emphasized by *very* ; as, “Yours very truly ;” or as, “Truly yours.” “Your obedient servant,” or, if it be a firm, “Your obedient servants.”

Social letters admit of an almost infinite variety of forms of subscriptions. The following are a few out of many examples that might be given :—

Your sincere friend ; Yours with esteem ; Yours very respect-

fully ; Your loving son ; Your affectionate father ; Ever yours ; Yours affectionately and for ever ; Ever, my dear Norris, faithfully yours ; Ever, your affectionate friend ; Yours heartily and affectionately ; Ever, my dear Mr.—most gratefully and faithfully yours ; Yours very sincerely ; Your obliged and affectionate friend ; Sincerely and entirely yours.

Official letters have a more stately and formal close than any other.

EXAMPLES.— I have the honor to be, Sir,
With the highest consideration,
Your obedient servant,
A. C. BURNS.

Or "I have the honor to be (or remain *), with much respect, Your obedient servant ;" or "I have the honor to be (or remain), Very respectfully, Your most obedient servant ;" or "I am, Sir, Your obedient servant."

Business letters, p. 181)

Yours truly,
JAMES A. MARTIN.

(Social letters, p. 181)

Your friend,
L. THOMAS.

THE SUPERScription.

21. By the Superscription of a letter is meant the address which is written upon the envelope.

The Superscription consists of three parts, the Name of the person addressed, the Title, and the Residence.

1. **The Name.**—It should be written with formal propriety and correctness.

2. **The Title.**—The greatest difficulty in addressing a letter is to know what title to give.

Common Titles.—Every one now-a-days has some title.

A young lad usually has the prefix Master, and any unmarried woman the prefix Miss. Every married woman or widow has the prefix Mrs., and every man who has no higher title is Mr.

(*) *Remain* implies previous correspondence.

Professional Titles.—Medical men have the title M. D. after their name, and legal gentlemen that of Esquire(1). Others, who belong to neither of these professions, but who are graduates of Colleges, have some academic title after their names, as, A. M. or Ph. D., etc. In such cases the Mr. before the name should be dropped.

Higher and Lower Titles.—When one reaches D. D., or LL. D., he drops his A. B. or his A. M. It is customary, however, to retain both the two higher titles, D. D., LL. D., if one happens to reach them both, and the LL. D. in such a case is written last, as Henry Fraser, D. D., LL. D.

Clergymen.—Clergymen always have the prefix Rev.; Bishops, that of Lordship or Rt. Rev.; Archbishops that of Grace or Most. Rev., and this is usually retained even when they have D. D., or some other honorary title, after their name; as, Rev. Francis Hamel, D. D., LL. D.

Honorables.—Judges, Senators, Members of the Privy, Executive, and Legislative Councils, the Lieutenant-Governors, and some other high officers of Government, have the prefix Honorable.

Governor-General.—The Governor General is addressed as His Excellency, and this is written in a separate line, with the full name in a second line, and the official title on a third line.

3. *The Residence.*—In writing upon the envelope of a letter the residence of the person addressed, the same general rules should be observed which have already been given for writing one's own residence at the top of the letter.

STYLE AND SPECIMENS² OF SOCIAL LETTERS.

22. The social letters of most frequent use are the following: 1. Familiar Letters, under which we include Domes-

(1) There is a ridiculous fashion among some ill-informed persons of appending Esq. to the name of every one who has no other title. To apply this title, as is often done, to boys fresh from school, to clerks and salesmen in stores, and to common day-laborers is a discourteous and uncivil mockery.

(2) It will be noticed that in the printed specimens the body of the letter begins on the same line with the salutation. This arrangement is proper in print, but not in writing.

tic or Family Letters, and ordinary Letters of Friendship ; 2. Letters of Introduction ; 3. Letters of Congratulation ; 4. Letters of Condolence.

FAMILIAR LETTERS.—SPECIMENS.

1. *J. Q. Adams, when seven years old, to his Father.*

Boston, November 20, 1774.

SIR,—I have been trying ever since you went away, to learn to write you a letter. I shall make poor work of it ; but, sir, mamma says you will accept my endeavors, and that my duty to you may be expressed in poor writing as well as good. I hope I grow a better boy, and that you will have no occasion to be ashamed of me when you return. Mr. T.—says I learn my books well. He is a very good master. I read my books to mamma. We all long to see you.

I am, sir, your dutiful son,

J. Q. ADAMS.

2. *A young lady in the country to her Mamma in town.*

G....., July 21, 188...

DEAR MAMMA,—You will, I hope, pardon my not having written sooner, as I have been waiting the departure of Mr. R., who is here on a visit, and who undertakes to deliver you this letter. I have the pleasure to inform you that we are all in high spirits, and are going, next Monday, to spend a few days at Belleville, the delightful seat of Mr. C., who has sent a pressing invitation. I assure you I anticipate much pleasure, as it is one of the finest seats in the country. This visit will perhaps prevent my return to town as soon as I intended, because I understand we are to stay a fortnight at the manor.

If however, my dear mamma, you wish me to return sooner, I will endeavor to excuse myself from going ; for I assure you that I would not, on any consideration, displease you. You have therefore only to let me know your wishes. Mrs. N. requests you will have the goodness to send her Mr. Aubry's new works, as soon as it is out, and also a few juvenile books for presents ; she leaves the

choice to you, but would like one or two copies of Schmidt's Tales, the whole neatly bound. Adieu, dear mamma.

Mrs. N. and family present their love, and hope you will permit me to accompany them on their visit to Belleville. If I don't hear from you, I shall presume that you have no objection to my visiting Belleville Manor.

Your dutiful and affectionate daughter,
JULIA.

3. Thomas Jefferson to his daughter Martha.

Toulon, April 7, 1787.

MY DEAR PATSY,—I received yesterday, at Marseilles, your letter of March 25th, and I received it with pleasure, because it announced to me that you were well. Experience learns [teaches] us to be always anxious about the health of those whom we love. * * *

I have received letters which inform me that our dear Polly will certainly come to us this summer. When she arrives she will become a precious charge on your hands. The difference of your age, and your common loss of a mother, will put that office on you. *Teach her above all things to be good*, because without that we can neither be valued by others nor set any value on ourselves. *Teach her to be always true*; no vice is so mean as the want of truth, and at the same time so useless. *Teach her never to be angry*; anger only serves to torment ourselves, to divert others, and to alienate their esteem. *And teach her industry* and application to useful pursuits. I will venture to assure you that, if you inculcate this in her mind, you will make her a happy being in herself, a most estimable friend to you, and precious to all the world. In teaching her these dispositions of mind, you will be more fixed in them yourself, and render yourself dear to all your acquaintances. Practice them, then, my dear, without ceasing. If ever you find yourself in difficulty, and doubt how to extricate yourself, *do what is right*, and you will find it the easiest way of getting out of the difficulty. Do it for the additional incitement of increasing the happiness of him who loves you infinitely, and who is, my dear Patsy,

Yours affectionately,

TH. JEFFERSON,

LETTERS OF INTRODUCTION.

23. A Letter of Introduction is one by which a person introduces a friend or acquaintance to a friend who is absent.

Letters of Introduction are of two kinds,—*Social* and *Business*.
In the use of this kind of correspondence, the following suggestions will be found useful:—

1. *Be careful whom you introduce.*—By introducing an improper person, you might do an irreparable injury to your absent friend. Never introduce socially any one with whom you would not be willing to have your mother, (wife), brother, or sister associate.

2. *Letters of Introduction should be short.*—They are often delivered in person, and it is embarrassing for a person to wait while a long letter is being read.

3. *Do not over-praise.*—You may use the warm language of friendship, but extravagant eulogy is as much out of place in a written as it would be in an oral introduction.

4. *Leave the letter unsealed.*—To prevent the bearer from reading it by fastening the envelope, would be a breach of politeness, and might excite distrust and suspicion. The bearer may, however, seal it before delivery.

Specimens to illustrate the proper style to be used.

1. Quebec, March 1, 1878.

DEAR SIR,—I have the honor of introducing to your acquaintance Mr. James Garneau, whom I commend to your kind attentions.

Very truly yours,
ANNA RITCHIE.

MR. ANDREW RYAN, Kingston, Ont.

2. Montreal, April 10, 1877.

MR. PHILIP R. LORD,

MY DEAR SIR,—It gives me pleasure to introduce to you my much esteemed friend, M. G. W. Kelly. Any attentions you may be able to show him will be gratefully acknowledge and cheerfully reciprocated by

Your old friend,
JAMES MASSON.

3

Ottawa, June 20, 1878.

'MY DEAR LUCY.—This will be handed to you by Mrs. John Graham, who will remain in your city a few days, on her way to Toronto. It gives me much pleasure to make you known to her; for I am sure that the acquaintance of two friends who are so dear to me will enhance the happiness of both. Any attention that you may be able to pay to Mrs. Graham during her stay will add one more to my many reasons for being

Your loving and grateful friend,

ANNA WALKER.

MISS LUCY FOLEY, St. Hyacinthe, P. Q.

4

Longueuil College, May 4, 1879.

DEAR HENRY,—Open your house and heart to my dear old chum, Willy Brown, who is waiting to stick this in his pocket. He is going to make a raid on your town in search of health, and I don't want you to kill him by dragging him up those mountains, as you did me last summer. I have given him such glowing accounts of my sister's cooking as to make me as hungry as a cannibal.

Depending upon your brotherly love for my dear friend's kind reception, I am

Ever your affectionate brother,

JAMES.

HENRY SIMMS, Sherbrooke, P. Q.

LETTERS OF CONGRATULATION.

24. A Letter of Congratulation is one written to a friend who has experienced some good fortune or great joy.

Such a letter should of course be written in a lively, cheerful style, suited to the occasion, and should be free from all admixture of envy or foreboding. It should be a rose without a thorn. If there is any unpleasant news to communicate, concerning yourself or any one else, or if you have any advice to give, leave it for a subsequent letter.

Exaggerated expressions of joy have an air of insincerity, and should therefore be avoided.

SPECIMEN LETTERS.

1. *To a friend who has just been appointed to an honorable position.*

Quebec, June 1, 1879.

DEAR FRIEND,—I learned with sincere happiness your nomination to the office of—; I congratulate you on it; a better choice could not have been made; you possess all that is requisite to fill the position honorably. One could say that the favor was granted to merit.

But I stop, I fear to displease you; I know you do not like praises, although you deserve more than anybody. I presume to hope this circumstance will alter in nothing our relations and that you will permit me, as usual, to be honored with the title of your friend.

I remain, etc.

T. R. MAYNARD.

LOUIS C. LANGEVIN, Esq., Sorel, P. Q.

2. *To a Gentleman elected to the Commons.*

Three Rivers, Nov. 4, 1878.

Hurrah! the battle is fought and the victory won! Give me your hand, old friend, while I give it a good squeeze of congratulation on your election. The result has not surprised me in the least. I knew you would be elected, because I knew that you deserved to be, and that the people of your county had sense enough to know it too. Some say, "Principles, not men"; but I say "Principles and men." This honor is as much a tribute to your personal worth as to the correctness of your principles. Just such men as you are needed in the Commons—never more than now; and I believe you will fulfil every expectation, and honor yourself and your constituents. That such may be the case shall ever be the prayer of

Yours faithfully,

PETER S. BESSON.

F. S. DUVAL, Esq., Montreal.

LETTERS OF CONDOLENCE.

25. A Letter of Condolence is one written to a friend who has suffered some grievous loss or bereavement,

In this, great tact is necessary; for ill-judged consolation, instead of healing the wound, opens it afresh. The writer should confine himself to the leading subject of his communication.

SPECIMEN LETTERS.

1. *To a Sister on the Death of a Child.*

SISTER DARLING,—I cannot write what is in my heart for you to-day; it is too full—filled with a double sorrow, for you and for myself. Tears blind me; my pen trembles in my hand. Oh, to be near you! to clasp you in my arms! to draw your head to my bosom and weep with you! Darling, God comfort you, I cannot.

H.

2. *T. Jefferson to J. Adams on the death of Mrs. Adams.*

Monticello, November 13, 1818.

The public papers, my dear friend, announce the fatal event of which your letter of October the 20th had given me ominous foreboding. Tried myself in the school of affliction, by the loss of every form of connection which can rive the human heart, I know well, and feel what you have lost, what you have suffered, are suffering, and yet have to endure. The same trials have taught me that for ills so immeasurable time and silence are the only medicine. I will not, therefore, by useless condolences, open afresh the sluices of your grief, nor, although mingling sincerely my tears with yours, will I say a word more where words are vain, but that it is of some comfort to us both that the time is not very distant at which we are to deposit in the same cerement our sorrows and suffering bodies, and to ascend in essence to an ecstatic meeting with the friends we have loved and lost, and whom we shall still love and never lose again. God bless you and support you under your heavy affliction.

TH. JEFFERSON.

STYLE OF BUSINESS LETTERS.

26. The chief requisites of a business letter are *clearness, correctness, and conciseness*. No more words should

be used than are necessary; nor should words that are essential to the construction be omitted.

A business letter should be confined to business only. This rule, however, does not exclude the expression of kind wishes, and other forms of courtesy. A business man should never forget to be polite.

27. Of the many varieties of business letters, we shall notice only the following:—

1. Letters of Introduction (Business); 2. Letters of Credit; 3. Letters of Application; 4. Letters of Recommendation; 5. Mercantile Letters, including Order for Goods, Answer, and Invoice; 6. Miscellaneous Letters.

LETTERS OF INTRODUCTION.—BUSINESS FORM.

28. A business Letter of Introduction is an introduction for business purposes only, and entails no social obligations. In style it should resemble other business letters; that is, it should be clear, accurate, and concise. In most other respects it resembles a social letter of introduction, and we therefore need only to refer to what is said under that head. (See p. 186.)

SPECIMEN LETTER.

Commercial Academy, March 15, 1878.

Messrs. James Morse & Co., Toronto.

GENTLEMEN,—Allow me to introduce to you the bearer, Mr. William Simpson, a graduate of this institution, who visits your city for the purpose of seeking employment as a book-keeper.

It gives me pleasure to assure you that he is a young man of good education, strict integrity, and superior ability, and is entirely worthy of your confidence. Any assistance you may find it in your power to render him I shall esteem as a personal favor.

Yours very truly,

PHILIP MURPHY.

LETTERS OF CREDIT.

29. A Letter of Credit is one in which the writer loans his credit to the bearer, to a limited extent. That is, John asks Joseph to let Paul have goods or other valuables to a certain amount, promising to be responsible for the same, should Paul fail to make payment.

SPECIMEN LETTER.

Quebec, October 2, 1878.

Mr. S. A. Molson, Montreal.

DEAR SIR,—Please allow Mr. Robert Lynch a credit for such goods as he may select, to an amount not exceeding fifteen hundred dollars (\$1,500) for six months. I will become responsible to you for the payment of the same, should Mr. Lynch fail to make payment at the proper time.

You will please inform me of the amount for which you give credit, and, in default of payment, notify me immediately.

Very respectfully,

Mr. Lynch's signature, (1),—

Your obedient servant,

ROBERT LYNCH.

BERNARD SALMON.

LETTERS OF APPLICATION.

30. A Letter of Application should be;—

I. *Very carefully written*, as the letter itself is regarded as a part—often the principal part—of the evidence of the writer's fitness or unfitness for the position applied for.

II. *Modest*. It should not, however, be sycophantic. It should be not only respectful, but also *self-respectful*; for a genuine self-respect is one of the surest passports to the respect of others.

(1) The signature of the bearer should be given so that he may be identified as the person named in the letter.

SPECIMEN LETTER.

Levis, P. Q. October 3, 1877.

Hon. C. N. Hampton,

Superintendent of Public Instruction,

Toronto.

SIR,—Having heard that there is a vacancy in a Grammar School of your city, I beg leave to offer myself as a candidate for the position.

I graduated at the Laval Normal School, in 1875, and have ever since devoted myself to the work of teaching.

Enclosed you will find testimonials from Mr. F. T. Richard, County School Inspector, and Rev. C. A. Lagacé, Principal of the above-named institution; and I am also permitted to refer to Rev. Father Rooney and Hon. Henry Blanchet, of this city.

Should a personal interview be desired, I shall be glad to present myself at such time and place as may be most convenient to yourself.

I am, Sir, with much respect,

Your obedient servant,

WILFRED NELSON.

LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION.

30. Recommendations may be *special* or *general*. Those of the former class are addressed, like ordinary letters, to some particular person; those of the latter are not limited as to person or occasion.

Great care should be exercised in giving recommendations.

Never recommend an unworthy person, and never recommend too highly. It may be hard to refuse a testimonial, but it is base to give a false one.

1. SPECIAL RECOMMENDATION.

(Referred to in the Letter of Application on page 191)

Laval Normal School, Sept. 10, 1878.

Hon. C. N. Hampton,

Superintendent of Public Instruction,

Toronto.

SIR,—It affords me pleasure to testify to the personal worth and educational qualifications of Mr. Wilfrid Nelson, who, I am informed, is an applicant for a position in one of your public schools.

He graduated at this institution, as his diploma will show, in 1875. As a student, he was distinguished for diligence, accuracy, integrity, and a conscientious discharge of every duty; and these qualities he has carried with him into the school-room and into society. Such elements of character, combined with aptness in teaching and tact in enforcing discipline, could not fail to render him what I have long known him to be, a very efficient and superior teacher. I cordially recommend him for the position to which he aspires.

Very respectfully yours,

C. A. LAGACÉ.

2. GENERAL RECOMMENDATION.

Levis, October 10, 1878.

Having learned that Mr. Wilfrid Nelson is desirous of leaving this city and engaging in the work of teaching elsewhere, I am pleased to say, that I have known him long and intimately; that his personal character is above reproach; and that he has shown himself to be possessed of tact, learning enthusiasm,—in short, all the highest elements of the successful teacher. I earnestly commend him to good people everywhere, and especially to those to whom he may offer his services as an instructor.

F. T. RICHARD,

School Inspector,

MERCANTILE LETTERS.

31. Of the great variety of letters of this class we shall speak of only two:—*Letters ordering Merchandise*; and the *Answers* to them, with enclosed invoices.

1. LETTER ORDERING MERCHANDISE (Books).

Three Rivers, July 2, 1878.

Messrs. S. L. Sadlier & Co.,
Notre-Dame Str., Montreal.

GENTLEMEN,—Please send to me, by Canadian Express, as soon as convenient, the following:—

- 2 doz. Christian Brothers' Commercial Arithmetic
- 2 " Hart's English Grammar,
- 3 copies Genius of Christianity, cloth,
- 4 grosses Gillott's pens, No. 104.

When forwarded, please notify me by letter, with enclosed invoice.

Very respectfully yours,

LOUIS C. LEBEL,
8, Champlain Street.

NOTE 1.—If but few items are contained in the order, as in the above example, they may be given either in the body of the letter, or at the bottom. In the latter case, the letter may be written thus:—

GENTLEMEN,—Please send me by Canadian Express (or otherwise, as directed) the books named below.

Yours very respectfully, etc.

NOTE 2.—If the order is long, it should be made out on a separate sheet; in which case the letter may be written thus:—

GENTLEMEN,—Please send me by Canadian Express (or otherwise) the articles detailed in the enclosed list, addressed as below.

Yours very respectfully, etc.

NOTE 3.—Always give the express or freight station, and state how goods shall be sent. The order, if separate, should be headed "Order of (stating Date)", and should be signed by the person or firm ordering.

2. ANSWER, ENCLOSING INVOICE.

Notre-Dame Street, Montreal, July 5, 1878.

Mr. Louis C. Lebel,
Three Rivers.

SIR,—We have this day sent to your address, by Canadian Express, the books ordered in your favor, of July 2nd. Enclosed you will find an invoice of the same, amounting to twenty-six $\frac{25}{100}$ dollars.

Hoping they may arrive in good condition and prove satisfactory, and soliciting further orders, we are,

Very respectfully yours,

S. L. SADLIER & Co.

per D.

("Per D." denotes the clerk by whom the letter was written.)

THE INVOICE REFERRED TO ABOVE (1).

Montreal, July 5, 1878.

Mr. LOUIS C. LEBEL,

Bought of S. L. SADLIER & Co.

2	doz. Christian Brothers' Comm. Arith., @	\$6.00	12	00
2	doz. Hart's English Grammar, @	4.80	9	60
3	copies Genius of Christianity, cloth, @	75	2	25
4	grosses Gillott's pens, No. 104, @	60	2	40
			\$26	25

Received Payment,

S. L. SADLIER & Co.

NOTE 1.—When the bill is paid, it should be receipted as above. If not paid at the time it is made out, the date of payment should be given with the receipt; thus:—

Received Payment, Aug. 9, 1878.

S. L. SADLIER & Co.

(1) An *Invoice* is a statement in detail of goods sold or consigned for sale. When applied to goods sold, it is frequently called a *Bill of Sales* or, if it contains a variety of small items, a *Bill of Parcels*,

NOTE 2.—Many firms enclose the invoice within a letter; and, if there is any remark to make, they write it on the same paper. A better method is to use printed blanks for this purpose, to be filled out with the amount of the invoice, and mode and date of shipment, as in the following form:—

Quebec,..... 18 .

M.....,

SIR,—Enclosed please find invoice amounting to \$..... forwarded per....., Bill of Lading accompanying, according to your order, dated.....

The goods leave us in good conditions, and we trust will prove satisfactory. Should anything, however, appear objectionable, we shall feel obliged if you will notify us promptly.

Yours very respectfully,

BRADY & MARMAN.

NOTE.—The pupils will read with profit the Series of Commercial Letters in the *Cours de Langue Anglaise*, second part, by the Brothers of the Christian Schools.

MISCELLANEOUS LETTERS.

1. APPLICATION FOR A CATALOGUE.

Kamouraska, P. Q., July 1, 1873.

Rev. C. B.....

Director of St. Mary's College,

Beauce Co., P. Q.

SIR,—Please send me a copy of your last prospectus. I design attending school next winter, and wish to obtain information concerning your terms, course of study, etc. By complying with the above request you will oblige,

Yours very respectfully,
JOS. CIMON.

2. SENDING A SUBSCRIPTION TO A NEWSPAPER.

Sorel, P. Q., May 10, 1878.

To the Publisher of "THE TRUE WITNESS,"
Montreal.

SIR,—You will find enclosed two dollars (\$2), for which you will please send to my address a copy of "The True Witness" for one year, beginning with the first number of the present year.

Yours respectfully.

JAMES NOLAN.

NARRATION.

32. Narration is the account of real or imaginary facts or events.

Events should be related in the order of their occurrence, and in such a way that the interest of the reader may be kept alive.

NARRATION FROM DETACHED SENTENCES.

Write a connected narrative from detached sentences.

SPECIMEN.

Story in detached sentences.

Plancus was proscribed by the Triumvirs, and forced to abscond. His slaves were put to the torture, but refused to discover him. New torments were prepared to force them to discover him. Plancus made his appearance, and offered himself to death. This generosity of Plancus made the Triumvirs pardon him. They said Plancus only was worthy of so good servants, and they only were worthy of so good a master.

Same in a connected narrative.

Plancus, a Roman citizen, being proscribed by the Triumvirs, Anthony, Lepidus, and Octavius, was forced to abscond. His

slaves, though put to the torture, refused to discover him. New torments being prepared, to prevent further distress to servants that were so faithful to him, Plancus appeared, and offered his throat to the swords of the executioners. An example so noble, of mutual affection betwixt a master and his slaves, procured a pardon to Plancus; and Rome declared, that Plancus only was worthy of so good servants, and they only were worthy of so good a master.

NARRATION AMPLIFIED.

The following particulars are generally embraced in narrations, namely:—

1. A description of the place or scene of the actions related.
2. The persons concerned in the narration.
3. The time, postures, state of mind, associations or train of thought, etc., of the circumstances and individuals mentioned.

SPECIMEN.

Short narrative.

Damon, having been condemned to death by Dionysius, obtained permission to take leave of his family; Pythias, his friend, pledging his life for his return on the day of execution. He faithfully returned, and Dionysius was so pleased with their mutual attachment, that he not only pardoned them, but took them both into favor.

Same story amplified.

Damon and Pythias were intimate friends. Damon, being condemned to death by Dionysius the tyrant, demanded liberty to go home to set his affairs in order; and his friend offered himself to be his surety, and to submit to death, if Damon should not return. Every one was in expectation what would be the event, and every one began to condemn Pythias for so rash an action; but he, confident of the integrity of his friend, waited the appointed time with

alacrity. Damon, strict to his engagement, returned at the appointed time. Dionysius, admiring their mutual fidelity, pardoned Damon, and prayed to have the friendship of two such worthy men.

DESCRIPTION.

33. Description is a representation of names, natures, or properties, that give to another a view of the thing.

It is, in fine, a picture, delineated, not by lines, but by words; and it must be so presented as to convey a clear, definite, and exact semblance to the mind, such as the object described presents to the eye.

To write a description, we must be familiar with what we are attempting to describe.

The best process before commencing a description is to draw out the outline of the subject.

All objects that meet the eye admit of description.

Three classes of them are most frequently called on to describe, viz:—

I. Material objects; such as *bridges, ships*, etc.

II. Natural scenery.

III. Persons.

DESCRIPTION OF MATERIAL OBJECTS.

34. In the description of *material objects*, all of the following heads may not be appropriate in each case, but a selection may be made of such as are:—

I. The time when, and place where it exists, or was seen.

II. The purpose for which it is designed, its name, uses, and conveniences.

III. Its figure or form, and position, together with an analysis of its parts.

IV. Its resemblance to any other object.

V. Its size, color, beauty, or want of it.

- VI. The persons or artists by whom it was made.
- VII. Materials of which it was made, and the manner in which it is constructed.
- VIII. Its effects on mankind, by increasing or abridging their comfort, etc.
- IX. The feelings or reflections which it excited.

SPECIMEN.

The Pyramids of Egypt.

There were three pyramids in Egypt more famous than the rest, one whereof was justly ranked among the seven wonders of the world; they did not stand very far from the city of Memphis. The largest of the three, like the rest, was built on a rock, having a square base, cut on the outside as so many steps, and decreasing gradually, quite to the summit. It was built with stones of a prodigious size, the least of which were thirty feet, wrought with wonderful art, and covered with hieroglyphics. According to several ancient authors, each side was eight hundred feet broad, and as many high. The summit of the pyramid, which to those who viewed it from below seemed a point, was a fine platform, composed of ten or twelve massy stones, with each side of that platform sixteen or eighteen feet long. A hundred thousand men were constantly employed about this work, and were relieved every three months by the same number. Ten complete years were spent in hewing out the stones, either in Arabia or Ethiopia, and in conveying them to Egypt; and twenty years more in building this immense edifice, the inside of which contained numberless rooms and apartments. There were expressed on the pyramid, in Egyptian characters, the sums it cost only for garlic, leeks, onions, and other vegetables, for the workmen; and the whole amounted to sixteen hundred talents of silver, that is, about \$888,000; from whence it was easy to conjecture what a vast sum the whole expense must have amounted to.

DESCRIPTION OF NATURAL SCENERY.

35. In descriptions of natural scenery, a selection may be made from the following heads. The order in which

they should be treated depends somewhat on the nature of the subject.

- I. The circumstances under which it was seen ; whether at sunrise, at noon, or by moonlight ; the effects, etc.
- II. The natural features of the scene ; whether level or undulating ; whether fertile or barren, etc.
- III. The improvements made by man ; whether well cultivated ; whether any buildings are in sight ; if so, describe them.
- IV. The figures in the scene ; if any human beings, describe them.
- V. The neighboring inhabitants ; their character, peculiarities, etc.
- VI. The sounds that meet the ear ; as, the murmur of a stream, the noise of a waterfall, the rustling of the leaves under the influence of the wind, the lowing of cattle, the barking of dogs, the singing of birds, the cries of children ; the sounds of industry, such as the noise of machinery, etc.
- VII. The prospects around the scene ; hill or valley ; water stagnant or running, etc.
- VIII. A comparison with any other scene which it may resemble.
- IX. The historical associations connected with the scene.
- X. The feelings which the view awakened in the mind.

SPECIMEN.

Description of Arcadia.

There were hills which garnished their proud heights with stately trees ; humble valleys, whose base estate seemed comforted with the refreshing of silver rivers ; meadows, enamelled with all sorts of eye-pleasing flowers ; thickets, which being lined with most pleasant shade, were witnessed so to, by the cheerful disposition of many well-tuned birds ; each pasture stored with sheep,

feeding with sober security ; while the pretty lambs, with bleating oratory, craved the dam's comfort ; here a shepherd's boy piping, as though he should never be old ; there a young shepherdess knitting, and withal singing ; and it seemed that her voice comforted her hands to work, and her hands kept time to her voice-music.

Sir Philip Sydney.

DESCRIPTION OF PERSONS.

36. Descriptions of persons are often required in composition. In writing them, such heads as the following are generally taken :—

- I. Form ; whether tall or short, fleshy or thin, etc.
- II. Face, features, hair, expression, etc.
- III. Manners ; dignified, graceful, awkward, haughty, or affable.
- IV. Dress.
- V. Any peculiarity of appearance.
- VI. Character, disposition, mental abilities, etc.

SPECIMEN.

Hernando Cortès.

"Cortès at this time was thirty-three or perhaps thirty-four years of age. In stature he was rather above the middle size. His complexion was pale, and his large dark eye gave an expression of gravity to his countenance, not to be expected in one of his cheerful temperament. His figure was slender, at least until later life ; but his chest was deep, his shoulders broad, his frame muscular and well proportioned. It presented the union of agility and vigor, which qualified him to excel in fencing-horsemanship, and the other generous exercises of chivalry. In his diet he was temperate, careless of what he ate, and drinking little ; while, to toil and privation he seemed perfectly indifferent. His dress, for he did not disdain the impression produced by such adventitious aids, was such as to set off his handsome person to advantage ; neither gaudy nor striking, but rich. He wore few ornaments, and usually the same ; but these were of great price. His manners frank and soldierlike, concealed a most cool and calculating spirit.

With his gayest humor there mingled a settled air of resolution, which made those who approached him feel they must obey; and which infused something like awe into the attachment of his most devoted followers. Such a combination, in which love was tempered by authority, was the one probably best calculated to inspire devotion in the rough and turbulent spirits among whom his lot was to be cast."—*Conquest of Mexico*.

ESSAYS.

37. An Essay is a composition, generally on some abstract subject, devoted rather to an investigation of causes, effects, etc., than to an examination of visible and material peculiarities.

Brief descriptions and narrations may be introduced into essays with advantage.

38. In the conduct of the essay, great latitude is allowed. The heads to be taken will differ according to the character of the topics treated.

An essay on *Friendship* supposed to have been written from the following outline.

I. Definition. What is friendship.

II. Origin and necessity.

III. Estimation in which it was formerly held. Examples.

IV. Universality; extends to all ranks of life.

V. Benefits of true, and evils of false, friendship?

VI. Conclusion. Practical reflections.

Friendship.

Friendship is an attachment between persons of congenial dispositions, habits and pursuits.

It has its origin in the nature and condition of man. He is a social creature, and naturally loves to frequent the society, and enjoy the affections, of those who are like himself. He is also, individually, a feeble creature; and a sense of this weakness renders friendship indispensable to him. Though he may have all

other enjoyments within his reach, he still finds his happiness incomplete, unless participated by one whom he considers his friend. When in difficulty and distress, he looks around for advice, assistance, and consolation.

No wonder, therefore, that a sentiment of such importance to man should have been so frequently and so fully considered. We can scarcely open any of the volumes of antiquity without being reminded how excellent a thing is friendship. The examples of David and Jonathas, Achilles and Patroclus, Pylades and Orestes, Nisus and Euryalus, Damon and Pythias, all show to what a degree of enthusiasm it was sometimes carried. Even the great Cicero deemed it of sufficient importance to form the subject of one of his masterly essays. But it is to be feared that, in modern times, friendship is seldom remarkable for similar devotedness. With some, it is nominal rather than real; and, with others, it is regulated entirely by self-interest.

Yet it would, no doubt, be possible to produce, from every rank in life, and from every state of society, instances of sincere, and disinterested friendship, creditable to human nature, and to the age in which we live. We cannot think so ill of our species as to believe that selfishness has got the better of their nobler feelings sufficiently to destroy their sympathy with their fellow-creatures, and their love towards those whom God hath given them for neighbors and brethren.

After these remarks, to enlarge on the benefits of possessing a real friend appears unnecessary. What would be more intolerable than the consciousness that in all the wide world, not one heart beat in unison with our own, or cared for our welfare? What indescribable happiness must it be, on the other hand, to possess a real friend;—a friend who will counsel, instruct, assist; who will bear a willing part in our calamity, and cordially rejoice when the hour of happiness returns!

Let us remember, however, that all who assume the name of friends are not entitled to our confidence. History records many instances of the fatal consequences of infidelity in friendship; and it cannot be denied that the world contains men who are happy to find a heart they can pervert, or a head they can mislead, if thus their unworthy ends can be more surely attained. Caution in the formation of friendships is, therefore, in the highest degree necessary. We should admit none to the altar of our social affections

without closely scrutinizing their lives and characters. We must assure ourselves of the uprightness and truth of those to whom we open our hearts in friendship, if we would not have a pernicious influence exerted on our own dispositions; if we would not, in the hour of trial, find ourselves forgotten and abandoned to the old charities of an unsympathizing world.

OUTLINE OF AN ESSAY ON SHIPS.

- I. *Origin.* When and by whom were the first ships made?
- II. *Appearance.* What was their original form, and what improvements have modern times made in them?
- III. *Objects* for which they are used.
- IV. *Inventions* that have added to their usefulness (particularly the mariner's compass, and its effects).
- V. *Effects* that ships have produced on mankind.
- VI. *Feelings* excited by seeing a ship under full sail.

THESES, OR ARGUMENTATIVE DISCOURSES.

40. A Thesis, or Argumentative discourse, is a composition in which the writer lays down a proposition, and attempts to persuade others that it is true. The statements or reasons used for this purpose are called *Arguments*.

41. In the orations and argumentative discourses, six regular divisions were adopted by the ancients, viz.:—

- I. The *Exordium*, or *Introduction*; in which the speaker strove to make his hearers attentive, and disposed to receive his arguments.
- II. The *Division*, in which the speaker stated the plan he intended to pursue in treating the subject.
- III. The *Statement*, in which the subject and the facts connected with it were laid open.
- IV. The *Reasoning*, in which the arguments were set forth in order, the weakest being generally in the middle, and in which the reasoning of opponents was refuted.

V. The *Appeal to the Feelings*, one of the most important divisions of the discourse.

VI. The *Peroration*, in which the speaker summed up all that had been said, and brought his discourse to a close.

Some speakers adopt this arrangement and division in their discourses; but others use less formal divisions. There are many excellent discourses, in which several of these parts are altogether wanting.

SUBJECTS FOR COMPOSITIONS.

I. REPRODUCTIONS.

The following methods of *training pupils to composition writing* which should receive as constant attention as reading or spelling, may be profitably employed; others will suggest themselves to the experienced teacher.

1. Read a short selection to the class and *require the pupils to state* in their own language *the important thoughts*.

2. Assign a *choice selection* for the class to study.

- a. Require them to *reproduce the substance of the selection, imitating the style*, without referring to the book.

- b. Let the teacher compare, or require the pupils to *compare their compositions with the original* for the purpose of *noting defects*.

- c. Require the pupils to *rewrite and perfect* their compositions.

These lessons will afford the teacher the most favorable opportunity of instructing the class in punctuation, in the *use of concise and grammatical language*, and, more especially, in the use of different expressions for the same thought.

The second and fourth books, of the Brothers of the Christian Schools' series of Readers, will furnish abundant material for selections.

2. TRANSLATION OF POETRY TO PROSE.

This exercise *cultivates a variety of expression and thought*, and calls attention to figurative language. The selections may be simple or difficult, according to the advancement of the class.

Arrange the words and clauses differently, express the ideas in other words, and make such changes as will destroy the rhyme and measure.

Selections may be chosen from the series of Reading-books, Milton, Shakspeare, etc.

3. LETTER-WRITING.

Different forms of letters, notes, etc., are given from page 178 to 198. These should be *carefully studied* with reference to form and punctuation. *Especial attention should be given to instruction in business letters*, business forms, letters of introduction, letters of friendship, notes of invitation, &c.

A most practical and efficient method of instruction in letter-writing, is to require pupils to write letters and notes of different forms, and direct them to the teacher. After the letters and notes have been criticised and rewritten, the teacher may distribute them to different pupils and require the proper answers.

EXERCISE,

1. Write a letter according to the plan given below.

Follow the directions for dating, addressing, folding, and superscribing; let your letter contain no violation of the rules of syntax, and, above all, no misspelling or incorrect punctuation. The pupil will imagine that he is writing from a college, in Montreal, to a sister at home, in Three-Rivers.

PLANS.

I. Acknowledge receipt of a letter from home, and state the feelings it awakened.

II. Describe the weather, its effects on the spirits and amusements of the scholars.

III. Give an account of the daily routine of exercises in the college.

IV. Describe your teacher.

V. State when the next holiday occurs; how it is anticipated by the scholars; how they will spend it; state your feelings with regard to your anticipated return home.

2. A scholar is chosen by his fellow-pupils to request their teacher to take them upon a short excursion.

I. The scholars still remember quite well the pleasure they enjoyed during last summer's vacation in company with their teacher.

II. They are very happy, therefore, to call to mind the promise, that this year also he would give them a similar opportunity for enjoyment, provided they be diligent scholars.

III. They believe that they have done their best to win his approval, and now beg that they may in consequence realize his promise.

IV. Name of the place which the scholars wish to select for the excursion (reasons for choosing this place).

V. They promise to conduct themselves during the trip in every respect as good scholars, and subscribe themselves, with much respect, his dear pupils.

3. Write a letter from Quebec, to your grandmother at Montreal, according to the following plan.

I. Express satisfaction at having heard through your father, who has just returned from Montreal, that her health continues good; hope that you may see her before long, so as to judge for yourself.

II. Tell how Quebec is situated. Describe the St. Lawrence River. Speak of the frequent communications with Montreal by means of the North Shore Railroad, and the superior advantages thus afforded for travelling, when the river is frozen, etc.

III. Give an account of the way in which you spend Sunday;

describe the place of worship you attend. Describe your parish priest. Describe his sermon of last Sunday.

IV. Ask your grandmother to write to you often, and to state in her next letter when she will come to Quebec; state how glad you will be to see her, and what amusements you have devised to interest her.

4. Louis proposes to write to his friend John, who has sent him a problem for solution.

I. Both friends had agreed at their separation to write to each other occasionally.

II. To give interest to their correspondence, it is necessary, that besides relating the news, they should also choose subjects for discussion: he is pleased, therefore, that John has sent him this problem.

III. He is happy to inform his friend, that after severe study, he has been enabled to solve the problem; then states his manner of solution.

IV. After relating such items of news as he thinks will be of interest to his friend, he proposes the the following question, and requests an answer in John's next letter: What are the dates of the births and deaths of the four most celebrated men in Canadian history? (This question will test John's knowledge of the history of his country, and also show his judgment in selecting the greatest men of the land.)

5. Mary congratulates her friend Julia on the return of her birthday.

I. A year ago, these two friends were together at a young ladies' academy: since then many things have changed, but their love has remained the same.

II. To-day, on Julia's birthday, the remembrance of her dear friend is as lively as ever; and Mary feels herself urged to express her affection by a letter and a gift.

III. She wishes Julia all happiness; that she may often see this day, and enjoy it in health and pleasure. Her parents and sisters join in these good wishes.

IV. Mary has made a scarf, and sends it to her dear friend as a token of her affection and a sign of her kind remembrance. When, among the many presents with which she will be favored on her birthday, the gift of her friend will figure as an inferior one, she

begs her to bear in mind that the gift, however small, has come from a loving heart.

V. She hopes for her continued friendship, and the acceptance of the gift, and assures her of undying remembrance.

6. Frank requests his friend Charles to purchase certain books for him.

I. Frank's teacher has lately shown him his fine library; and the boy has been so delighted with it, that he is resolved to begin the collection of a small one for himself.

II. Frank's father is pleased with his son's resolution, and has given him a sum of money for the purpose of carrying it out.

III. But Frank lives in a village where there is no bookstore; and he wishes to engage his friend Charles, who resides in the city, to make the purchase of a few books for him, names the books, and encloses a money-order.

IV. He hopes that he may soon be able to return the favor of his friend in some way, and assures him of his affectionate regard.

7. Write a letter from the Montmorency Falls, to a friend.

I. Acknowledge the receipt of his letter, and offer to give an account of a summer tour which you are making.

II. Preparations for leaving home.

III. Incidents on the way to Quebec.

IV. General remarks on the pleasures, fatigues, and advantages of travelling.

V. Description of the Falls and the surroundings.

VI. Comparison with any other scene.

VII. Emotions awakened by this sublime scenery.

VIII. General remarks about returning, and the anticipated pleasure of rejoining friends.

NOTE.—It will be well for the teacher to insist that a plan or outline of the following subjects be drawn up, in all cases, before the pupils proceed to their composition.

8. Compose a familiar letter asking a friend for the loan of a book.

9. Write to some publisher for a book, to be sent by mail.

10. Write a note accepting a friend's invitation to dinner; one to tea; one to spend the evening.

11. Write a letter to your teacher, giving an account of the manner in which you spent your last vacation.

12. Write a note requesting a private interview on important business.

13. Write a note, inviting a friend to spend the holidays at your father's house.

14. Write a letter announcing the death of a friend, a brother, sister, father, mother, etc. ; and addressed to the same individuals respectively.

15. Write a letter of congratulation to a friend on his supposed graduation, recovery from sickness, or some other occasion of joy.

16. Write to a friend in the country, giving an account of a concert, an exhibition, the Museum, or any place of public amusement which you may have recently visited.

17. Write a letter describing a ride in the stage-coach, (mentioning the passengers, etc., and their deportment,) to or from any town or city mentioned.

18. Write a letter of condolence to some real or imaginary friend who is supposed to be in grief on account of some painful event.

19. Write a letter informing a friend of the misfortunes of another.

20. Write a letter of thanks for some favor received.

21. Write to a parent, travelling in Europe, about domestic matters.

22. Write an answer to the preceding letter, in which the parent would naturally give some account of his travels in Europe.

23. Announce in a letter to a friend that his brother whom you knew, and who resided in the same place that you do, is dead. Give an account of his sickness. Offer such consolation as is in your power.

24. Write a note, regretting that prior engagements will compel you to decline a friend's invitation.

25. Write a letter to a friend in the city, from some country retreat which you may have lately visited.

26. Write a letter to a merchant, applying for a situation as clerk, and stating your qualifications.

27. Write an answer for the merchant.

28. Compose two recommendations—one special, the other general,—to accompany the above letter of application.

29. Compose a general recommendation of a house-servant, farm-laborer or mechanic.

30. Write in your own name, to S. Brown & Co. booksellers, 37, St. Paul street, Montreal, for the following works, to be sent by Canadian Express: Robinson's University Algebra, 3 copies; Gould Brown's Grammar of English Grammars, 1 copy; the Christian Brothers' Commercial Arithmetic, 4 copies; Quackenbos's French and English Dictionary, 1 copy.

31. Answer the above, stating that you have sent the books as ordered. Also make out a bill of the books and enclose it, charging for the first work \$1.50 each; for the second, \$4.00; for the third, 50 cts. each; for the fourth, \$5.00

A List of Subjects for Compositions.

NOTE.—Our object, in exhibiting in outlines the following subjects, has been to assist the young writer in these two essential points,—the formation of correct ideas, and their systematic arrangement.

Several of the general outlines have divisions which, with their respective sub-divisions, afford ample range for single compositions. Therefore, if deemed advisable, certain parts of an outline may be taken as topics for separate and distinct treatment.

1.—A Room.

I. *Definition.*

II. *Inclosure.*— *a* Four walls.— *b* Floor and ceiling; direction, height.

III. *Openings* in the walls.— *a* Windows. Describe.— *b* Doors. Describe.

IV. *Articles* contained in a room.— *a* Stove. — *b* Furniture; uses of the same.

V. *Different kinds* of rooms, according to their use.— *a* Schoolrooms.— *b* Living rooms; parlors, dining-rooms, kitchens, etc.— *c* Bedrooms.— *d* Offices, studies, libraries, etc.

VI. *Care* necessary.— *a* Painting, papering, or whitening.— *b* Sweeping, dusting, etc.— *c* Ventilating.

NOTA.—This subject, as well as the 20th and 29th, is written out, as a model; in the "Select Reading Lessons," or fourth Reader, of the Series in use in the Schools of the Christian Brothers.

2.—A Garden.

I. *Situation*.—Between the house and the front gate.—Behind the house, to the right or to the left.—By itself (in a large town or city).

II. *Inclosure*.—Walls.—Fences.—Hedges.

III. *Contents*.—Beds for flowers, kitchen, vegetables, etc. Divisions among the beds, paths, walks.—Sometimes summer-houses, bowers.—Trees.

IV. *Different kinds of gardens*.—Flower.—Fruit.—Kitchen.

VI. *Work done in gardens*.—Digging, plowing, manuring.—Planting and sowing.—Hoeing and weeding.—Sprinkling or watering.

3.—A Town.

I. *Situation*.—In what country and state; on what river, or near what lake, mountain, or other noted natural object. How far, and in what direction, from what large city.

II. *Size*.—*a*. Number of inhabitants, houses, markets.—*b*. Steamers, railroads, and other public means of conveyance.

III. *Streets and roads*, their direction.

IV. *Names*, location, and number of public buildings,—churches, schools, colleges, court-houses, halls, banks, hotels, etc.

V. *Occupations* of the inhabitants,—teachers, clergymen, mechanics, merchants, lawyers, physicians, laborers, farmers, etc.

VI. *Surrounding scenery*.—*a*. The finest views,—forest, hills or mountains, lakes, rivers, plains, farms, etc.—*b*. Any other object of note in the vicinity; as village, college, fine country-residence, nurseries, gardens, manufactories, etc.

4.—The Teeth.

I. *What they are*, where placed, number (thirty-two in grown persons).

II. *Different kinds*,—name them.

III. *Their parts*,—crown, enamel, root, cavity, with nerve and vein (describe all).

IV. *Use*,—in chewing and speaking.

V. *What injures the teeth*.— *a.* Hot food and drink.— *b.* Taking hot and cold articles into the mouth one after another.— *c.* Picking with a knife or other metallic instrument.— *d.* Cracking nuts, or biting any hard substances.— *e.* Uncleanliness—necessity of brushing and washing every morning, and after meals. (Pure soap and water are the best cleansers of the teeth.)

5.—Flowers.

I. *Definition*.—The most beautiful part of plants, after whose decay comes the seed.

II. *Parts of a flower*.—Crown, leaves, anthers, dust or pollen.

III. *Seasons*.—Spring, summer (chiefly), autumn, and some even in winter.

IV. *General characteristics* of the flowers of each season.—Spring, delicate blue and white, etc.

V. *Kinds* which appear at the different seasons in your locality.

VI. *Use*.— *a.* To produce seed.— *b.* To beautify Nature, and give pleasure to the sight and smell.— *c.* To afford food for many insects,—bees, butterflies, etc.

6.—Fruit.

I. *Definition*.—That which grows from the seed-vessel of a flower.

II. *Different parts*.— *a.* Seeds.— *b.* Seed-coverings.

III. *Kinds of fruit*.— *a.* The nut; the seed being inclosed in

a hard shell.— *b.* Stone-fruit; the covering flesh-like, as the peach.
— *c.* Seed-fruit; the covering flesh-like, as the apple. Describe the different kinds, and give other examples of each.

IV. *Use.*—Wholesome food for man and beast.

7.—The Goat.

I. *Class of Animals* to which it belongs.—mammiferous (milk-giving), ruminating (cud-chewing), domestic, a native of Persia.

II. *Form* and general appearance.— *a.* Size; about four feet long, two and a half high.— *b.* Color; white, black, or spotted.— *c.* Shape; head short and small, with a beard on the under lip; often horns; large yellow eyes; neck long; tail short and smooth; legs thick, feet cloven (divided into two parts).

III. *Characteristics.*—Lively, changeable, full of tricks, lives to the age of twelve years. The female bears two young goats every year, called kids.

IV. *Food and treatment.*—Feeds upon nearly all kinds of herbs, as hay, straw, etc. Rose and vine leaves are its dainties. Salt and bread are good for its health. Its stable should be clean and warm, and well ventilated.

V. *Uses* of the goat.— *a.* Its milk is pleasant to the taste, and very wholesome.— *b.* Its flesh makes very good food.— *c.* From its skin kid gloves are made.— *d.* Its hair is used for making hats, and the horn is manufactured into various articles, as knife-handles, etc.

8.—A School-day.

I. *Forenoon.*— *a.* At what hour do you rise, pray, breakfast, play?— *b.* When do you begin study?— *c.* What branches do you pursue?— *d.* Who are your teachers? What interest do you take in your studies? What progress do you make? Give a true account.

II. *Afternoon.*—Continue to narrate the events of the day till you retire for the night.

9.—The Frog.

I. *Class* to which it belongs,—amphibious, cold, red blood.

II. *Description*.—Two to three inches long; color green, with black spots, and three long yellow stripes on the back; the fore feet shorter than the hind ones, the former having four, the latter five toes.

III. *Peculiarities*.—*a*. Produces its young from eggs.—*b*. Undergoes change of form. The young are called tadpoles, or polliwigs; have a tail, and no legs; and live only in water or mud.—*c*. Moves in the water by swimming; on the land, by jumping, for which its hind legs are admirably adapted.

IV. *Abode*.—Stagnant water, banks of ponds, lakes, rivers, and other moist places; and, in winter, in the mud.

V. *Uses*.—*a*. Parts good for food.—*b*. Destroys flies and other noxious insects.

10.—Birds' Nests.

I. *Purposes* for which they are built.—*a*. For laying and hatching eggs.—*b*. For dwellings for the young.

II. *Materials*.—*a*. Straw and feathers.—*b*. Brushwood.—*c*. Hair, moss, or wool.—*d*. Clay and dirt.

III. *Form*.—*a*. Round and hollow the prevailing form. The bird, in a sitting posture, turns round and round, rubbing the brink and sides smooth with her breast and neck.—*b*. Birds of prey have deep, flat nests, more coarsely made.

IV. *Places* where they build.—*a*. On the ground (whippowill quail, thrush, lark, etc.: hens are not particular where or how they build).—*b*. Upon rocks and high trees (birds of prey).—*c*. Under the eaves of houses and barns, or other places in the neighborhood of man (swallows, martins).—*d*. In bushes, hedges, etc.

V. *Use* of birds to man.—They preserve our gardens, orchards, and fields from numberless injurious insects which infest plants, trees, fruits, and vegetables. We should therefore not kill birds, but rather protect them from the attacks of others.

10.—Time.

I. *Value*.—It is the most precious of all things.— *a*. It passes quickly.— *b*. Once lost, it cannot be recovered.— *c*. It is the means of accomplishing our objects in life.

II. *How to be spent*.— *a*. Conscientiously, in industry.— *b*. Not in idleness.— *c*. Not in too much play.— *d*. Not in too much sleep.

III. *The most precious time*,—the time of youth; for it is : *a*. The time when we learn most easily.— *b*. And the time of preparation for future usefulness. We should bear constantly in mind that our success in manhood will depend upon the manner in which we spend our youth.

12.—Courtesy.

I. *Meaning*.—The quality of pleasing others by our proper conduct toward them. By courtesy is not meant any thing that concerns personal appearance, but only what concerns manners, words, and actions.

II. *Source*.—Love for God will inspire us with love for our fellow men.—a love free from all selfishness.

III. *Value of Courtesy*. — *a*. It wins us the esteem of others and this sweetens life.— *b*. It unites men in social intercourse, and thus prevents disputes and quarrels.

IV. *Courteous Acts*.—Would that all were to act courteously toward one another; each one yielding a little for the sake of peace and happiness!— *a*. Should we sometimes yield in favor of evil for the sake of peace? Never! That would be weakness and sin, not courtesy.

13.—Thoughtless Persons.

I. *A thoughtless person* is one who does not reflect upon the consequences of what he does; who acts without thinking.

II. *Some of the actions* of such a person.— *a*. Studying without any object in view.— *b*. Speaking without reflection.— *c*. Drinking cold water, or bathing, when over-heated.— *d*. Eating unripe fruit.— *e*. Exposing himself, without necessity, to the inconvenience of the weather.

III. *What parents are obliged to do to such children.*—
a. To advice.— *b.* And sometimes to punish.

IV. *Evil consequences* sure to result to those who will not improve in this respect.— *a.* They will never rise in the world ; never do much good for themselves or for others.— *b.* They will remain thoughtless even in manhood.— *c.* They will be apt to contract habits which bring on consumption and other kinds of disease.

14.—How a Student may succeed in his Studies.

I. *During class-hours.*— *a.* He must be attentive, giving all his thought to his recitation, and to the instructions of his teacher.— *b.* He must answer promptly, and try to understand fully the meaning of what he says and does, always thinking for himself.

II. *In study-hours.*— *a.* He should recall to mind what he has learned in class, and endeavor to comprehend it more understandingly.— *b.* He ought to prepare his lessons well for next class, always trying to understand, as well as to commit to memory.— *c.* He should set apart a certain time for learning each lesson, so that none may be neglected.— *d.* He should hearken attentively when wise men speak, and try to put their good counsel into practice.— *e.* He should read those books which give him valuable information or make him think on noble subjects.— *f.* He should keep the company of none but virtuous and diligent companions.

15.—Utility of Wood.

I. *As fuel.*— *a.* In dwelling-houses.— *b.* In furnaces, engines, workshops, etc.

II. *For building purposes,*—to construct,— *a.* Houses, churches, etc.— *b.* Ships, railroad-cars, wagons, and other means of conveyance.— *c.* Bridges ; plank-roads, side-walks, pavements, fences, etc.

III. *For furniture,*—to make,— *a.* Articles of convenience,—tables, chairs, etc.— *b.* Means of preserving or covering what is precious or small,—boxes, cupboards, etc.— *c.* Instruments, machines, tools, etc.,—organs, pianos, fanning-mills, ploughs, etc.

16.—Advantages of Reading.

I. *Pleasure*.—*a*. Reading interesting books, good newspapers, and periodicals.—*b*. Reading letters from distant friends.

II *Usefulness*.—*a*. Enables us to obtain information.—*b*. Protects us against fraud, and enables us to transact business.—*c*. Enables us to understand the laws of the land, and our duties to our country.—*d*. Fits us for public office, and other high positions in society, if we desire them.—*e*. Enables us to grow better, by reading good books, and joining in the singing of the praises of God in the church.

17.—The Month of May.

I. *Name*,—Latin *Maius* (from the goddess *Maia*).

II. *Natural appearances*.—*a*. Length of the day,—fourteen to fifteen hours.—*b*. Increase of heat, neither too warm nor too cold.—*c*. Rapid growth of plants; many in blossom, especially fruit-trees; the orchards very beautiful.—*d*. Delightful singing of birds returned from the warmer climates.—*e*. Insects and many animals come forth from the earth, or wake from their winter sleep.

III. *Other causes* which render the month beautiful.—*a*. Farming and gardening.—*b*. Religious festivals,—Ascension of our Lord, Whitsunday, the month of Mary.—*c*. Pleasure,—May Day, walks, picnics, etc.

IV. *Unpleasantness*.—*a*. The first days are often cold, wet, and otherwise disagreeable.—*b*. Yet even this is beneficial; for it prevents the growth of noxious insects, and keeps the ground moist.

18.—Cleanliness.

I. *Cleanliness requires*—*a*. That we should use pure language.—*b*. That we should keep our person free from impurity.—*c*. That we should remove dirt from every thing belonging to us,—dress, books, utensils, etc.

II. *Advantages*.—*a*. It tends to make us good and industrious. Many wicked and idle persons are dirty, as drunkards, quarrelsome persons, swearers, and loafers.—*b*. It promotes health.—*a*.

It adds to our comfort and prosperity. Clean persons are not wasteful.— *d.* It wins for us the respect and love of others.

19.—Compassion.

I. *Meaning*,—a feeling of sorrow for another's misfortune.

II. *Compassion prompts us*—*a.* To help others,—*b.* And to console them when they are in trouble.

III. *Reasons for being compassionate*.—*a.* It is the duty of a Christian.—*b.* We wish others to be compassionate towards us in our need.—*c.* By being compassionate, we win the love of others.

20.—Utility of Forests.

I. *To nature* in general.—*a.* They beautify it.—*b.* They draw vapors from the clouds, and shelter the ground; hence rains, dews, springs, and streams.

II. *To living creatures*, in particular,—*a.* To men; furnishing wood, sugar, pitch, etc.—*b.* To beasts; giving them 1. Shelter from the heat of summer and the storms of winter. 2. Also food by their own leaves, and by sheltering the more tender grasses and plants.

III. *Preserve the forests*.—*a.* By protecting them from injury or destruction.—*b.* And by planting and cultivating if necessary.

21.—Utility of the Sense of smell:

I. *Affords enjoyment*,—the fragrance of flowers and perfumes. A hungry person is pleased with the savor of food.

II. *Protects against danger*,—poisonous plants, foul air, fire in a building, poison, spirituous liquors, impure water, etc.

III. *A means of applying restoratives* to the faint and weak,—camphor, hartshorn, etc.

22.—Play.

I. *Meaning*,—Any occupation intended for amusement or for the recreation of mind or body.

II. Other objects.—*a.* Strengthening, and developing the body, games of ball and other gymnastic exercises.—*b.* Improving the faculties of the mind,—chess, riddles, etc.—*c.* Seeking for gain,—cards and all games of chance.

III. In what kinds we should engage.—Those which strengthen the body are best for persons whose occupation is mental or sedentary,—students, teachers, and others engaged in professional pursuits. Those which strengthen the mind are best for one whose daily occupation is chiefly of the body. *No one* should engage in vicious plays intended for gain: that would be gambling, and sure to end in the ruin of both mind and body.

IV. Proper time for play.—After finishing our regular occupation, when the overtaken mind or body needs rest or relaxation.

V. Conduct during play.—*a.* Peaceable, joyous.—*b.* No boasting, or very loud talking.—*c.* Most important rule, —**AVOID ANGER.**

23.—Health.

I. Definition.—That state of mind and body in which all their parts are in proper order; that is, the natural state.

II. The greatest of earthly blessings; for—*a.* Only those who are healthy can enjoy life.—*b.* Without it, man can do no good for himself or others.

III. Duties of those who are in good health.—*a.* To be thankful to God for their health.—*b.* To use it in the service of God, for their own good, and for the good of others.—*c.* To preserve it, 1st by temperance, 2nd by labor and exercise, and 3rd by cleanliness.

IV. Duties of the sick.—*a.* To suffer patiently, and receive their sickness from the hand of God.—*b.* To recover their health, if in their power.—*c.* To submit to the requirements of the physician.—*d.* To be calm, keep mind and body free from all unnecessary agitation.

24.—Dress.

I. *Objects or reason of dressing.*— *a.* Protection against heat, cold, moisture, and all other external dangers.— *b.* Respectable appearance.

II. *Making of dress.*— *a.* Material, 1st animal kingdom,— wool, furs, skins, hair; 2nd vegetable kingdom,— cotton, linen, silk.— *b.* Maker, 1st tailor, dress-maker; 2nd shoemaker, stocking-weaver, or knitter; 3rd hatter, milliner.

III. *Necessary qualities:* it should be— *a.* Clean.— *b.* Not torn.— *c.* Well-fitting.— *d.* Comfortable, according to the season.— *e.* Not too expensive, but plain and good-looking.— *f.* In the fashion, not to appear odd; but (for a man or boy especially) never too stylish or flashy in any way, which would be vulgar and foppish.

25.—A Wagon.

I. *Chief parts.*—Wheels, axles, tongue or pole, box, rack, etc.

II. *Persons employed in making.*—Wagon-maker, smith, painter.

III. *Utility.*—To farmers, to merchants, etc.

VI. *Other wheel-vehicles.*—Carriages, buggies, carts, stage-coaches, etc. Describe their forms and uses.

26.—Rain.

I. *Meaning and cause.*—Water falling from the clouds. Vapors rise from the earth, and form into clouds.

II. *Different kinds.*— *a.* General rain throughout the country which may be 1. Heavy, with or without thunder and lightning, or 2. Light mist or drizzle.— *b.* Partial rain, confined to certain places. 1. A thunder-storm, sudden and bursting, with floods of rain. 2. A sun-shower.

III. *Describe the rainbow.*—Always seen opposite the sun after a rain or during a sun-shower; caused by the sun shining on the drops of rain.

IV. *Utility of rain.*— *a.* Refreshes the earth and the atmosphere, thus 1. Promoting the growth of plants, and 2. Re-invigorat-

ing man and beast.— *b.* Renews the springs and streams.— *c.* Either excessive rain or long-continued drought is injurious to the growth of plants and the health of animals.

27.—The Earth-Worm.

I. *Size*.—A span or less in length, the thickness of a quill.

II. *Covering and color*.—Moist and slimy skin of a flesh color.

III. *Form*.—Long, stretched or contracted, round, pointed at each end, covered with a hundred and forty-five rings.

IV. *Abode*.—Moist rich earth, into which it drills deep holes. In winter, it remains several feet under ground.

V. *Manner of living*.—At night and during moist weather, it leaves its abode, feeding upon moist earth, foul substances, and fresh roots.

VI. *Hurtfulness and utility*.— *a.* Injures tender roots.— *b.* Serves as food for hens and other animals.

28.—Society.

I. *Definition*.—An association of many families, forming, as it were, a great household; their purposes being mutual aid in danger, security of person and property, mutual help in the acquisition of wealth and in the attainment of useful knowledge.

II. *Relief in danger*.— *a.* On the outbreak of a fire, — firemen, fire-engines, relief for the sufferers.— *b.* In case of inundations.— *c.* Support of the poor and the unfortunate, — orphan asylums, free schools, asylums for insane, the deaf, dumb, and blind, etc.

III. *Security of person and property*.— *a.* To settle disputes by proper authority, as by a judge, mayor, justice of the peace, arbitrator, etc.— *b.* To protect the innocent, and detect criminals, — by policemen, constables, sheriffs, and the military.— *c.* To punish the guilty, — magistrates, prisons, jails, etc.

IV. *Acquiring wealth.*—*a.* Laying out and making streets, walks, roads and bridges.—*b.* Constructing houses, churches, public works, etc.; —*c.* Thus giving employment to mechanics and laborers, and opening a market for farmers, and —*d.* Securing a flourishing business for merchants and other tradesmen.

V. *Attaining knowledge,* by means of—*a.* The clergy, sermons and lectures. —*b.* Teachers, private instruction, schools, and colleges.—*c.* Newspapers, public libraries, reading-rooms. —*d.* Daily intercourse, and interchange of thought, among persons of refinement and good sense.

VI. *The preservation of society* requires for all these things various expenses; hence—*a.* Taxes, and, —*b.* In order to enforce laws and good customs, moral, and, if need be, physical supports,—good advice, good example, police, armies, etc.

29.—The Benevolent Man.

I. *Name some misfortunes* which may befall men. A child may lose its parents; a man, his house by fire. A poor mechanic, the father of a large family, may become sick.

II. *Consequences.*—The child is quite helpless, and obliged to beg; the man who has lost his house becomes poor, and cannot shelter his family; the mechanic, being unable to provide food for his family, contracts debts.

III. *Assistance.*—A rich person takes the child to his own home, and sends him to school; citizens collect money to build a house for him whose home was destroyed by fire, meanwhile one of them gives the family shelter until the house is built; a kind physician heals the sick mechanic gratis, and through his intercession the sick man is furnished with food and other necessities which soon restore his strength.

IV. *Gratitude* of those who have received help. The child attends to his studies, and leads a useful and virtuous life; the man, on beholding his new house, sheds tears of joy, and calls down the blessings of Heaven upon his kind neighbors; the children of the sick man surround

the physician, kiss his hand, and look gratefully upon him; the wife, full of emotion, thanks him in silence.

30.—The grateful Person.

I. *A favor* which one may do for another.—A child may give a poor boy his dinner; a good-hearted man may clothe or find employment for one in great need; a boy may assist an old lady who slips and falls upon the icy road or sidewalk.

II. *Opportunities* of showing gratitude for these favors.—The charitable child may lose its way in the forest; the kind-hearted man may be attacked by robbers, his house may be entered by thieves, or set on fire by wicked persons; the good boy may become an orphan and grow sick.

III. *Gratitude* shown in these cases.—The poor boy may find the lost child, and lead it home; the poor man may save the life or the property of his benefactor; the old lady may bring medicine, and wait upon the sick orphan, and find him a good home.

31.—Forgiveness.

I. *Some offenses* which one may commit against another.—A scholar may speak unkindly to another while at play; a student may, without just cause, accuse another of some fault; a brother may wilfully break his sister's toys.

II. *Forgiveness*.—The offended scholar does not scold in return, or inform against the ones who have spoken unkindly; the student passes the false accusation over in silence, and continues to treat the wrong-doer generously; the sister does not scold or revenge herself by breaking her brother's playthings, nor does she complain to her parents.

III. *Consequences*.—The scholars become fast friends; the student feels remorse for his wickedness, and endeavors to repair the wrong he has done; the brother weeps in

sorrow for his unkindness, and gives part of his toys to his sister ; joy of the parents.

36.—On the arrangement of the Materials of a Composition.

I. *The division* of the subject being of the greatest importance, the author, as well as the reader, is obliged to pay the closest attention to it.

11. *The usual fault* of young writers is to compose without order, due reflection, and proper arrangement of thought. They write at random, and, by doing so, obscure their meaning, and make but a feeble impression upon the minds of their readers.

III. *By arrangement* we are to understand the corresponding succession of the thoughts belonging to the subject : this supposes—*a.* A collection of materials or thoughts, which is obtained by observation, reading, conversation, reflection.—*b.* We proceed to arrange our thoughts, 1. By examining them separately, according to their character and importance ; 2. By grouping those that are like, and putting them together under general heads ; 3. And, finally, by placing the separate thoughts under each head in the order of their importance and mutual relation ; always remembering that each general heading must correspond with the subject, and serve for its development.—*c.* Having acquired a certain facility, we may analyze the different divisions of the subject, and introduce additional sentences, found by reflection, until the whole subject is fully developed.

IV. *Such an arrangement* is certainly not easy at first ; but it is complete, and will teach us to *think out* a subject in a more thorough manner ; and, having by practice overcome the difficulties, we shall find ourselves enabled to set down our thoughts in a systematic manner, according to the requirements of good composition.

37.—Writing.

I. *A young man* who writes a poor hand complains to a friend that his teacher urges him to improve his pen-

manship. He finds this request troublesome, thinks himself unable to become a good penman, and, in order to justify himself, mentions the fact that some eminent men do not write a very legible hand.

II. *His friend*, who thinks good hand-writing a valuable accomplishment, endeavors to convince him of his error, and uses the following reasons to induce him to follow the advice of his teacher:— *a.* A good hand-writing recommends a person to a stranger. In this respect, it is like neatness of dress, which makes a favorable impression at first sight.— *b.* It is the preservative of language, the business man's security, the poor boy's capital, and the ready servant of the world of mind.— *c.* Bad writing requires no small amount of patience, on account of the time lost in making out the meaning.— *d.* Good hand-writing is an evidence of good taste and a love of the beautiful, and thus indicates the character of the writer.— *e.* It affords pleasure both to the writer and the reader.

III. *Writing* is still further worthy of our attention on account of its benefits to mankind.— *a.* Before its invention, the voice of wisdom perished; but little knowledge could be acquired or preserved.— *b.* With its invention, the mind of man may be almost said to have been re-created.— *c.* Before its invention, the voice of man only could communicate ideas, and but a few thousand could listen; now, the whole world may read.— *d.* Before its invention, the mind of one country was estranged from that of another; now, wisdom seems endowed with the gift of tongues, and, through her interpreters, speaks to all the nations.— *e.* Before its invention, history and thought faded from the minds of men; since, they have become imperishable.

IV. *A practical knowledge* of this elegant art, therefore, each one should gain: for, as long as he lives, it will be to him a source of pleasure, profit, and improvement; and, after his death, it will remain a monument to his character.

38.—Reading.

- I. *In these times*, when nearly every one reads, and when the number of books is legion, the taste for reading

certainly deserves a chapter for its consideration. The subject has its dark as well as its bright side: reading may be profitable, and also injurious.

II. *Reading is injurious*.— *a.* When we read for mere pastime, and without any object in view.— *b.* When we read, without choice, the good and the bad.

III. *What we should read*.— *a.* Books which are instructive as well as interesting.— *b.* Biography, travels, history, poetry, general literature, and religious books.— *c.* Scientific works, which enlarge the domain of our knowledge.

IV. *How we should read*.— *a.* With attention, to the substance, to the style.— *b.* With pen in hand, ever ready to copy choice extracts.— *c.* Never to lose sight of the end or design of the work.— *d.* After perusing a book, let us ask ourselves, What benefit have we derived from it? what impression has it left on our mind? how much wiser and better are we?— *e.* It will be well for two friends to read the same book together, and interrogate each other now and then concerning the substance of their reading, when each one may express his opinion upon this or that subject. This will give new intelligence and life to each mind; for ideas are like sparks, they kindle new fires.

V. *It would be well* if every body, especially the young, were more careful in the choice of reading: for numbers of books contain, under a handsome appearance, the poison of the soul; just as many flowers of enticing beauty have within them the poison of the body. Read, therefore, only such books as cultivate and ennoble the mind, but none that debase it.

39.—Language.

I. *Introduction*.—Language, which constitutes the glorious preeminence of man over the brute, is the means by which we arrange our ideas, and reveal, by articulate sounds or sensible signs, our inmost thoughts and feelings.

II. *The influence exercised by language*.— *a.* Language is a symbol of mental activity, and a medium of communication between different minds. Man is a mirror of all objects: he digests and assimilates in his mind the material furnished by his senses,

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and then communicates it by speech.— *b.* Every people, according to its own genius, amalgamates the phonetic element with its own feelings and conceptions into organic unity. Our very thoughts are not clear and well defined until united with the symbols of speech; for, 1. Thought crystallizes the momentum of the mind, and is then uttered by words. 2. Speech is as much a function of thinking as breathing is of living.— *c.* Speech is developed only in society; and men can neither understand themselves, nor their own ideas fully, except by trying the intelligibility of their words on one another.— *d.* Mutual communication sharpens the intellectual powers; so that, with the increase of social intercourse, language gains in perfection.

III. *As language* is of such importance, great care should be bestowed upon its cultivation.— *a.* To endeavor to acquire a correct pronunciation.— *b.* To learn to apply the principles of grammar in our conversation.— *c.* To attend to these five requisites of purity and propriety in the choice of our words.— 1. The words should belong to the language we use. 2. They should be arranged in phrases and sentences according to the syntax of our language. 3. They should be employed in that sense which usage has annexed to them. 4. We should avoid obsolete terms. 5. We should reject newly-coined words, as well as those that are low and provincial.

IV. *Other means of improving our language.*— *a.* Reading good authors.— *b.* Conversation with persons of refined taste.— *c.* Practical exercises, as loud reading, etc.— *d.* Attention to purity of heart and mind, by which we shall learn to prize noble words, refined ideas, pure thoughts, and despise what is vulgar in thought and conversation.

V. *Conclusion.*—Such care will be richly rewarded by the advantages and pleasure we shall derive, by the esteem of our companions, and especially by the approbation of Him who gave language to man, for no other purpose than that it should serve as an instrumentality to promote his temporal and eternal happiness.

40.—Good Books the best Companions.

I. *Man is by nature social.*—He looks for his equals,

either to amuse himself, or to enjoy the advantages of conversation.

II. *This social companionship* is, however, attended with many disappointments and inconveniences. It often costs money, and wastes still more precious time. And, instead of satisfying his wishes and expectations, man often finds himself sadly disappointed in the character and disposition of those persons on whom he relied. Sad delusions are generally the result of inexperience: we should, therefore, be on our guard in the choice of companions.

III. *Good books* are companions in whom we may confide.—*a.* It is true that they, too, cost money, but not so much as false friends: moreover, once in possession of them, they are always ours, never prove faithless.—*b.* We may consult them at any time; for they are ever ready to amuse and instruct. Even on our travels, they are cheap and useful companions. Are we tired of them? We may lay them aside, without fear of offence.—*c.* If during our reading, we find a beautiful, important, or difficult passage, we may dwell on it at pleasure, without becoming tedious or burdensome to any one; while in society, we are obliged to submit to the customary rules, which often compel us to sacrifice our inclinations for the sake of pleasing our companions.—*d.* If we are not pleased with a passage, we may express our disapprobation without running the risk of giving offence. In society, it is for the most part quite otherwise, which made Mrs. Hale exclaim,—

“The burning soul, the burdened mind,
In books alone companions find.”

IV. *Our constant endeavor* should then be to procure good books; for they not only give testimony of the tendency of our mind, but they are also admirable companions which enlighten, instruct, and guide us through the labyrinth of life.

41.—The Tongue.

The most useful and the most hurtful member of the human body.

I. *Æsop* was once ordered to buy the best article the

market afforded, and he brought home a tongue: on another occasion, when ordered to buy the worst, he again brought a tongue.—*a.* The tongue, capable of rendering the greatest services in favor of all that is noble and good, is likewise the source of much evil.

II. *The principal organ of the sense of taste.*—*a.* It is, therefore, the medium of our sensations of pleasure in eating and drinking; and consequently gives encouragement to the art of cookery, and promotes the interests of commerce by its fondness for spices, etc., from distant countries.—*b.* But it also encourages the desire for dainties, revelry, drunkenness, lavishness, etc. It may even reduce men to a state of poverty,—Apicius. And, according to Shakspeare,

Dainty bits

Make rich the ribs, but bankrupt quite the wit."

III. *The organ of speech.*—1st Its beneficial effects:—*a.* It enables us to express our sensations of joy, grief, etc., not in mere rough, abrupt sounds, as animals, but by articulate words, figurative language, foreign tongues.—*b.* It is the chief medium of the culture of the mind, awakening and animating the slumbering thought.—*c.* It enables us to make known our wants and desires; to console, advise, warn, and defend those who are in need.—*d.* It is the organ of eloquence, the true guardian of free institutions,—Greece and Rome, Demosthenes and Cicero; Great Britain and Ireland, Burke, Pitt, and O'Connell; France, Berryer, Montalembert, Dupanloup, and Chesnelong; the United-States, Henry, Webster, and Clay.—*e.* From the tongue, life receives its most attractive charm, conversation.—*f.* It enables us to worship God in hymns of praise.—*g.* Without the tongue, there would be no words; consequently, no written language, no books.

2nd Its hurtful effects:—*a.* It is the instrument of lying, deceit, backbiting, calumny, indiscretion, wicked instigation, and flattery; and the poet is right in saying,

"There is a lust in man no charm can tame,
Of loudly publishing his neighbor's shame:
On eagle's wings immortal scandals fly;
While virtue's actions are but born to die."

b. By its means, persons have disgraced themselves by singing

vicious songs.—c. By its means, demagogues pervert the truth, and sow the infernal seed of discord in peaceful communities.

IV. *Be cautious, therefore, in using your tongue: it is the source of much good, but also of much evil. Keep it in proper bounds, and bear in mind that man has to render an account of every idle word. "Speak little, but think much;" for "many words and good judgment seldom go together," and "speaking is very different from thinking."*

42.—The noblest Enjoyment of Youth.

I. *Man is not created for continual work.—His mind is naturally inclined to partake of enjoyment.—a. This enjoyment affords strength to mind and body. We should, therefore, not abstain from the delights of innocent pleasure. Every age should partake of them,—youth as well as manhood.—b. But we frequently commit faults in the pursuit of pleasure, either by excess or by wrong selection.*

II. *Which are the noblest enjoyments of youth?—a. All pleasures do not fulfil their promise. Many leave a great emptiness behind them, and fill the soul, sooner or later, with deep remorse. These are the sensual pleasures, many of which are incompatible with innocence and virtue.—b. Among the noblest enjoyments of youth are reckoned,—1. The joys which Nature affords,—a pleasant evening's walk, or a walk on a bright spring or summer's morning, a little traveling on foot, the cultivation of flowers, etc.—2. The joys which we derive from agreeable companions and pleasant conversation.—3. The joys which arise from observing our advancement in knowledge, from the conviction that we learn with more ease than formerly, and that our labors are crowned with better success.—4. The joys we feel on knowing that we daily advance in virtue, goodness, morality.—5. The joys which the approbation of good men affords.*

III. *These joys possess the excellent qualities, that,—a. They are attainable by all, poor and wealthy.—b. They leave after them no sorrow.*

Remember the golden maxim,—

"Enjoy thyself, but sin not."

43.—Life is a Journey.

I. *The life of man* is frequently compared to different things,—as, the seasons ; the divisions of the day ; a tree which grows, blossoms, bears fruit, and decays ; to a flower, a river, a sea-voyage, etc.

II. *Man's life* may also be compared to a journey.—*a.* In general,—1. As the traveler has a destination in view, so is there fixed before man during his earthly pilgrimage a twofold object,—one planted by Nature ; namely, death : the other, by himself ; namely, the station which, by his exertions, he intends to reach. 2. The journey of one traveler is pleasant, and free from all cares ; that of another is quite the contrary. So in the life of man. On one, Fortune smiles from the very cradle ; on another, she always looks coldly.—3. The traveler needs a guide : man needs faithful friends.

1st. The life of the child.—*a.* The traveler begins his journey without knowing what awaits him : the child begins life in equal ignorance.—*b.* At the outset, every thing looks hopeful to the traveler : the child also enjoys the present, and indulges in glowing anticipations of the future.—*c.* Unacquainted with the road, the traveler at first needs way-marks : the child also needs help to guide him.

2nd. The life of the youth.—*a.* After a cheerful journey, the traveler inquires for the best and nearest route to the next station : so the youth, after the time of play has passed, enters a new state of life, and tries to prepare himself for it.—*b.* Relying more on himself, the traveler tries to proceed without guides : the youth too, begins to rely on his own strength.—*c.* Striving to advance too quickly, the traveler becomes easily exhausted : so the youth, when ambition spurs him on.—*d.* The traveler grows lonesome : he looks for associates, but, from want of experience, often finds himself disappointed in his companions. The youth also seeks for friends, but often finds flatterers and deceivers, who take away his good name and his virtue.

3rd. The life of man in his prime.—*a.* More prudent by experience, the traveler goes forward, and, in spite of obstacles, never loses sight of his destination. Man, too, meets difficulties : but, in stead of being dismayed by them, he is rather stimulated to

make new exertions, till he has attained his end ; namely, a position of honor and respect in society, where he may do good, both for himself and for his fellow-men.

4th. The life of the old man.—*a.* On account of the toils of his journey, the traveler has become weary, and longs for repose. Even so with the old man,—the staff with which he once played is now his necessary support ; but he is consoled with the reflection that the troubles of life are past, the battle is fought : now he may live on the remembrance of his good deeds, till death leads him gently to a better land.

44.—Utility of traveling.

1. *In our day, people travel much more than formerly, —some on business, some to gain information, and some to recruit their minds and bodies.*

II. *The advantages of travel are manifold.*—1st In regard to the traveler himself,—*a.* He strengthens his mind and body by a change of air.—*b.* He learns to know men in their different modes of life, and thereby cultivates his mind and refines his taste.—*c.* It forms his character.—1. He comes into contact with men of different dispositions and habits, and thus learns their peculiarities, draws comparisons, adopts the good, and rejects the bad.—2. The more he knows of men, the more his prejudices disappear.—3. He finds so many men with good qualities, that he becomes convinced that mankind is not so depraved as some would have him believe.—4. Frequent dangers and accidents, the usual accompaniments of travel, strengthen the character and fortify the mind.—5. He becomes more contented with his country, and more attached to its laws and institutions.—6. It affords him pleasant recollections, and furnishes his mind with useful thought. What we learn from observation makes a deeper impression on our minds than what we learn from the narrations of others.

2nd. In regard to others.—*a.* Traveling has been the means of making important discoveries (instances).—*b.* The judicious traveler learns from foreign people many beautiful and useful things, with which he may acquaint his own countrymen ; as organizations, laws, manner of living, useful inventions, customs worthy of imitation (instances).—*c.* Promotion of general intercourse between

the inhabitants of different countries, and advantages of the same.

3rd. Particularly in regard to motives of travel.—*a.* On business, political negotiations, etc.—1. By being present in person, business relating to commerce, the nation, or the family affairs, may be conducted with greater safety than by letter.—2. The merchant derives particular advantage from it, in the extension of his trade, business connections, etc.—5. By traveling, threatening dangers may be warded off,—bankruptcy, money-crises, etc.

45.—Different Kinds and Modes of Travel.

I. *Travels are journeys from place to place.* Most people are fond of traveling, particularly the young: in advanced age, this inclination seems to diminish. Why?

II. *Travels may be classified according to the purpose for which they are undertaken.*

1st *Travels on business.*—*a.* Merchants travel to sell or buy or to extend their commercial relations.—*b.* Officers of the State, ambassadors, etc., travel in the service of their governments.—*c.* Others travel on account of family relations; as sickness or death of friends, inheritance of property, etc.

2nd *Travels for mere pleasure, or for the sake of recruiting health.*—*a.* To watering-places.—*b.* To hilly countries.—*c.* To warmer or more bracing climates, etc.

3rd *Travels for information.*—*a.* Scholars travel to consult libraries, examine monuments, etc.—*b.* Artists, to visit museums of paintings and sculpture, or other works of art.—*c.* These and others also desire to study man in his various modes of life, and to see the manifold charms of Nature, both in their own and in foreign countries.—*d.* Voyages are made on sea to obtain information concerning new places (Columbus, Cartier, Vasco de Gama, Magellan, Cook, La Peyrouse, Parry, Kane), and on land for the same purpose (Mungo Park, Bruce, Chateaubriand, Humbolt).

III. *Different modes of travel.*—*a.* On water, 1. Inland navigation,—on rivers, lakes, and canals.—2. Sea-voyages.—*b.* On land. 1. Afoot.—2. On horseback, or on camels.—3. Riding in a carriage, stage, sleigh, reindeer-sledge, etc.—4. On the railroad-cars.—*c.* In the air. 1. In balloons.—2. Flying-machines.

IV. *Examine the excellence and the defects of these various*

modes of travel, the fitness of each for the different purposes of travel, and the influence which they exercise upon the advancement of civilization.

46.—On the force of Good Example.

I. *Instruction* is indeed a great blessing. What would man be without it? It serves to set the youth right in the path of life; and he will profit by it, for he feels that it makes him wiser and better for the time to come. But instruction, however good in itself, would be of little or no avail, if he who instructs did not support his teaching by setting forth a good example. According to the old proverb, "Words teach, example wins."

II. *Difference between example and pattern.*—*a.* Example comprehends what is either to be followed or avoided;—*b.* Pattern, only that which is to be followed or copied. (Every one, let his age and station be what they may, can often afford a pattern of Christian virtue. The student may be a pattern of diligence and dutifulness to his fellow-students; the citizen may be a pattern of sobriety and conformity to the laws.)

III. *Characteristics of a good example.*—*a.* It shows the contrast between good and evil in a striking manner. 1. So that even the most indifferent becomes stirred up. 2. And the moral feeling is aroused with such force, that at least some degree of emulation is excited.—*b.* It instructs, 1. By bringing its lessons to the comprehension of the dullest intuition, 2. And conveying to the mind what language can scarcely express.—*c.* It convinces, by removing all doubts concerning the value of good actions.—*d.* It encourages. 1. By involuntary incitements to resolutions of amendment. 2. By affording strength in the combat with evil. (Give examples from history of those who have gained courage to suffer in a just cause by calling to mind how others have suffered and died before them,—martyrs of religion, of liberty, etc.) 3. It inflames the soul with emulation of all that is good and noble.—*e.* It conquers. 1. No power on earth is able to hinder its final triumph. 2. No length of time can prevent its fame from being handed down to posterity.

47.—The Life of the Warrior.

(Reflections of a young man after seeing a regiment of troops march by.)

I. *A beautiful sight*: such a splendid regiment of finely dressed soldiers, charming music, excellent order, pretty uniform, every where welcomed with bountiful receptions. One may well feel a desire to join. The outside is indeed handsome and alluring

II. *The life of the soldier.*—

1st The recruit.— *a.* Parting from home and friends.— *b.* Drilling, fatigue, etc.

2nd The drilled soldier.— *a.* In time of peace,—1. In garrison; compelled to associate with men of different characters, etc. 2. Days on duty; how tedious! 3. Off duty; how may this time be profitably spent?— *b.* Marching,—1. Hardship, toil, etc. 2. Obligated to compel men who consider him only an object of imposition to furnish him quarters.— *c.* In time of actual war, 1. Thoughts before the first deadly combat. (The honor of his country, the preservation of its laws and liberties. Personal considerations: Is he always prepared for death?)

3rd Marching to battle.— *a.* Through friendly country.— *b.* Through hostile territory.— *c.* In camp. (Anxiety felt by the people waiting for the result of the engagement.)

4th During and after battle.— *a.* Victorious.— *b.* Defeated (What different trains of reflection!)— *c.* Not wounded. Mirth, joy, much blood shed; but the price is not too great for the purchase. Peace is restored; a new epoch begins.— *d.* Wounded. Ah! pain, hospital, extreme anguish; but the thought that he is suffering for his country nerves him to glory in his pain. Even if he should die, he will be reconciled to God, and prepare hopefully for his end; for he has done his duty.— *e.* Perhaps an invalid for life, maimed, unable to work to make a living. But a grateful people will not forget him, who, in the hour of danger, advanced to the post of peril, and acted manfully for his country.

48.—Agriculture as a Source of Civilization.

1. *Introduction.*—Every thing must have a cause whose influence continues while the effect remains. Man

possesses within him the germs of his own development; but some external, favoring circumstance is necessary before this development can take place, just as the seeds of plants will only germinate when favored with heat and moisture.

II. *Agriculture is one of the original sources of man's advancement in civilization.*— *a.* It attached him to fixed habitations, thus weaning him from nomadic life.— *b.* It drew his mind away from rude customs, the passionate love of hunting, etc., and directed him to turn the vast resources of Nature to his advantage.— *c.* It accustomed him to regulate his activity according to the demands of the season and the temperature of the air. He thus became gradually imbued with the love of order and regularity.— *d.* It afforded his mind greater tranquillity, and a taste for domestic life.— *e.* By becoming more acquainted with the powers of Nature, he became more acquainted with his own powers.

"Nature is man's best teacher. She unfolds

Her treasures to his search, unseals his eye,

Illumes his mind, and purifies his heart:

An influence breathes from all the sights and sounds

Of her existence. She is wisdom's self."—STEELE.

f. Agriculture made it necessary for man to live according to fixed laws, which gave security to life, person, and property. The desire to have his own rights respected taught him to respect the rights of others.

"A man of law, a man of peace,

To frame a contract or a lease."—CRABBE.

g. Agriculture improved social habits; the forming of associations for mutual defense against robbers, invaders, etc.

III. *Conclusion.*—Thus it appears that agriculture was at the foundation of all human improvement. Even now, it is considered necessary to the well-being of states, as well as the chief source of their happiness. What material for reflection have we in our own country! Two hundred years ago, a mere wilderness, a hunting-ground for the red-man; we now behold it as it has been transformed by agriculture.

49.—Advantages of Commerce.

I. *Wealth.*—1st To the producer.—*a.* The farmer.—*b.* The manufacturer.—2nd To the merchant.—*a.* The wholesale shipper.—*b.* The retail dealer.—3rd To those who transport merchandise.—*a.* Mariners, and owners of vessels.—*b.* Railroad companies.—*c.* Carters, etc.

II. *Industry.*—*a.* Disposes of merchandise.—*b.* Encourages, therefore, the fabrication of new goods.—*c.* Excites competition, thus calling forth the energies of man.

III. *Intellectual advantages.*—*a.* Brings men together from different countries, thus causing an interchange of ideas, and an acquaintance with one another's customs.—*b.* Promotes the study of languages.—*c.* Leads to discoveries in,—1. Geography. 2. Astronomy. 3. Natural Philosophy. 4. Statistics.

50.—Railroads and Steamboats.

I. *One of the most successful of inventions,* which keeps pace in importance with the art of printing, is the steam-engine. It is applied to the uses of travel and traffic on railroads and steamboats, and has called forth a powerful revolution, which has found its opponents as well as its defenders. We shall therefore speak of the advantages and the disadvantages of these rapid modes of locomotion.

1st Disadvantages.—*a.* Many persons, as drivers, inn-keepers, etc., have lost their occupation.—*b.* Smaller towns have either become desolate, or have advanced very slowly; while larger ones grow with amazing rapidity. In these latter is rushing to and fro a population not having the least interest at heart in the welfare of the city, speculating for money, and desecrating the place with immoral and irreligious principles; whence the sad state of a large portion of the population of our great cities.—*c.* The growing wealth of many of the citizens, may, in the course of time, be the means of making them hostile to our free institutions, and imbuing them with a spirit foreign to our Constitution and State organizations. With increasing riches, luxury enters, which may in the end destroy all simplicity of manners among the people.—*d.* The quickness of travel lessens the enjoyment and information which should be derived from that source.

2nd Advantages.—*a.* Commerce and trade gain exceedingly by the ease and quickness of intercourse. "Time is money." The peculiar products of different places find new markets.—*b.* Agriculture is benefited; the farmer is not compelled to sell his products in the nearest market; hence higher prices, and consequently increase of wealth with improved modes of cultivating the land, new machinery, fine stock. Famine, formerly so common, may now in most cases be avoided by sending the surplus of one country to feed the suffering population of another.—*c.* General culture is diffused by the facility of communication: every one may see more in a day than formerly in a week. Not only is commerce promoted but also art and science.—*d.* By the growing wealth, enterprise receives constant stimulus, and opens new fields of industry; the rich, instead of becoming dangerous to our institutions, rather feel that, for the most, they owe their prosperity to those free institutions. Besides, public opinion has become such a power in our day, that even wealth is obliged to submit to it.—*e.* Even family ties are drawn more closely, and new ones are formed by means of easier intercourse.—*f.* In times of war, a more speedy concentration of troops takes place: hence, a quicker decision, and shortening of the suffering produced by war. The Italian campaign of 1859, the civil war of the United-States of 1861-63, the Prussian of 1870, would have had quite different results if these modern improvements had not been brought into requisition.

II. Conclusion.—Which are greater, the advantages or the disadvantages? What would be the condition of the United States and Canada, with their great lakes and rivers, their broad expanse of territory, if the steam-engine had not been invented? God brings about great revolutions in the affairs of men when they are most needed: look at the map of Europe and at that of America, and it will be apparent that there was design in reserving the great inventions of the steam-engine and the telegraph until the discovery of the western continent, with its broad inland territories, should render them necessary.

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