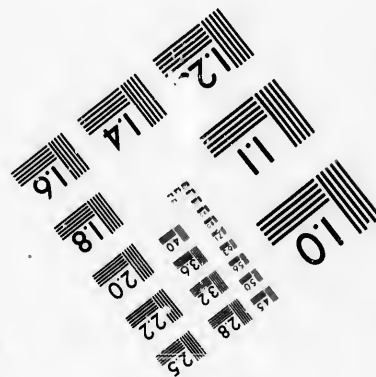
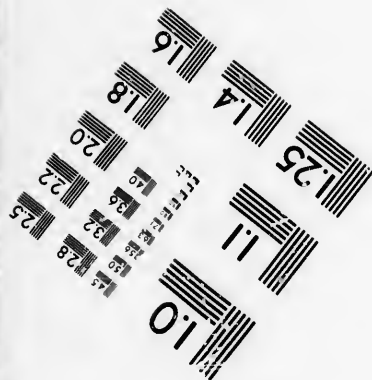
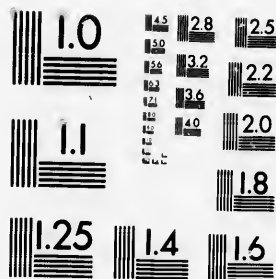


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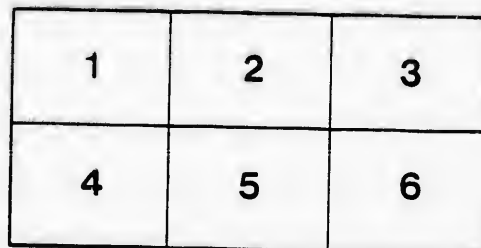
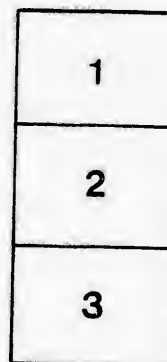
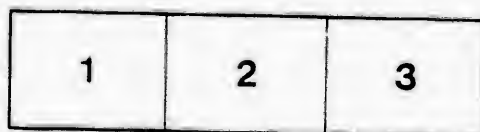
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OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE,

CONTAINING, IN ADDITION TO OTHER NEW MATTER, A SECTION ON THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS; A VOCABULARY OF SAXON, LATIN, AND GREEK ROOTS; EXTENSIVE SELECTIONS IN PROSE AND POETRY, FOR ANALYSIS, AND A COMPLETE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION AND EXERCISES IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

SECOND CANADIAN EDITION,
ADAPTED TO THE USE OF CANADIAN SCHOOLS.

TORONTO :
PUBLISHED BY ADAM MILLER,
AND SOLD BY ROBERT MILLER, MONTREAL.

1866.

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ERRATA.

- Page 65. (3) After "*Neither*," read *active nor passive meaning*.
" 153. (516 clause) For "*He replied*," read *He said*.
" 155. (527) For "*Preposition*," read *prepositional*.
" 158. (In the question ending "*as examples*,") read *Give examples*.
" 159. (In sentence and form for parsing,) for "*telegraph*," read *telegram*.
" 165. (Connectives of manner) for "*accordingly as*," read *according as*.
" 178. (156) Omit the last words "*in determining*."
" 234. (794) For "*their*," read *there*.
" (Last paragraph of Part III) for "*forester*," read *forest*:

T569

PREFACE.

WE have reason to congratulate ourselves, that in most departments of study, Canadian Schools are now supplied with excellent text books, many of them prepared in the country by Canadian Teachers. In the department of English Grammar, however, it is scarcely necessary to say that, among all classes of teachers the utmost dissatisfaction is felt. It is the peculiarity of almost every English Grammar in use that, while it may be very good, or even excellent, in some department of the subject, it either entirely omits others of at least equal importance, or is so inaccurate, or meagre, or behind the times, in the manner of treating them, that in many cases it would be better had they been altogether passed over. The consequence is, that a teacher who would make his course of instruction comprehend what is necessary to render it practically useful, and give it a degree of completeness, is compelled, either to depend on oral instruction to supplement the deficiencies of the text book, or submit to the inconvenience and needless expense of introducing several different books. To this, more than any other cause is, doubtless, to be attributed the fact, that the study of English Grammar does not occupy that position in our schools to which its importance entitles it. Whatever opinion therefore, may be entertained of the pretensions of the text book now presented to be *the identical desideratum*, of this at all events, the Editor is fully assured, that both teachers and pupils will appreciate the attempt to render their labor in this department somewhat more pleasant and remunerative, and will cheerfully recognise whatever merit it may possess.

In undertaking the revision of Bullion's Analytical and Practical Grammar, the intention, in the first place, was merely to correct some of the numerous inaccuracies, and supply a few of its worst defects; but the more closely it was examined with a view to this, in the light of the latest improvements in the mode of treating and presenting the subject, the more obvious it became, that *such superficial* changes, so far from satisfying the reasonable demands of intelligent teachers, could scarcely be expected to allay the existing dissatisfaction to an extent sufficient to procure for it even a temporary recognition. Such being the aspect of the matter the Editor found, that he had no alternative but to abandon the project altogether or face the enquiry, what alterations and additions must be made to supply a text book, such as is required,—what must such a book contain,—and how should the matter be presented to bring it fully up to the standard of philosophical accuracy which late writers, especially Morell, in his scientific treatment of the subject, has so conclusively shown it to be capable of. In prosecuting this enquiry, one *Elimination*, *Alteration*, and *Addition*, after another, was found necessary, till the original has undergone such an entire transformation, that like the miser's stockings, it may now fairly question its own personal identity.

The opportunity of collecting facts and observing results, which

an extensive acquaintance with teachers and many years experience in teaching English Grammar, have afforded the Editor, has convinced him that our best grammars are not sufficiently practical,—that with a text book adapted to the purpose, the grammar class ought to be made to contribute much more directly to the grand end in view, viz: *readiness, accuracy, and elegance, in the use of language.*

In order to remedy this defect, and render all the assistance possible to teachers who would be practical, *Examination Questions* followed by thorough *practical exercises* are placed at proper intervals throughout the book, and a general exposition of the *Principles of English Composition* followed by a complete course of *Exercises* designed to be taken up in connection with Analysis and Syntax, is appended. A glance at these examination *Tests*, for they are rather *tests* than questions, will convince any one, that so far from leading to “Mechanical teaching,” they are designed and fitted to call forth the highest intellectual efforts of the pupils.

The subject of analysis has been completely re-written, and will, it is hoped, be found fully up to the most approved standard. Diagrams to be used in conjugating the verb, and in oral and written exercises in parsing and the analysis of simple and compound sentences, have been prepared, and will, it is confidently expected, be found valuable aids to both teacher and pupil. The Section on the Structure of Words, followed by Examination Questions and practical Exercises on each part of speech will supply a great want in this direction, and, taken in connection with the Vocabulary of Saxon, Latin and Greek roots at the close, may be viewed as forming a complete and distinct text book of itself on this important branch of the subject. The Selections in Prose and Poetry, embracing a great variety of construction, will furnish ample *exercises in analysis*, and will be found suited to the wants of every class of schools, teachers and pupils. Most teachers will consider it a decided improvement, that correct and incorrect examples are mixed together in the exercises under the rules of Syntax, requiring the pupil constantly to draw upon his knowledge of the subject and to apply it as he proceeds.

In conclusion, the Editor would express how much it has been a matter of constant regret to him, that he has been absolutely limited as to time. Although this circumstance has not been allowed to interfere with the general features of the book, it has prevented that careful consideration, that might, in some instances, have resulted in greater accuracy or better selections, and compelled him to avail himself of the labors of others, more especially of MORELL & ANDERSON, (to whom he takes this opportunity of acknowledging his great indebtedness) more freely than he would have felt inclined to do under other circumstances.

EDITOR.

Toronto, Canada West, July, 1866.

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GRAMMAR.

1. GRAMMAR is both a SCIENCE and an ART.

2. As a SCIENCE, it investigates the principles of language in general: as an ART, it teaches the right method of applying these principles to a particular language, so as thereby to express our thoughts in a correct and proper manner, according to established usage.

3. ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language, according to established usage.

4. Language is either spoken or written.

5. The elements of spoken language, are vocal and articulate sounds. (25 and 26.)

6. The elements of written language, are characters or letters which represent these sounds.

7. Letters are formed into syllables and words; words into sentences; and by these, properly uttered or written, men communicate their thoughts to each other.

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

9. *Orthography* treats of letters and syllables;* *Etymology*, of words; *Syntax*, of sentences; and *Prosody*, of elocution and versification.

* As the whole subject of Orthography is treated more fully in the spelling-book and dictionary, a brief synopsis of its principles only is here given, rather as a matter of *form* than with a view to its being particularly studied at this stage. The teacher may therefore, if he thinks proper, pass over PART I. for the present.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

10. ORTHOGRAPHY treats of letters, and of the mode of combining them into syllables and words.

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

12. There are *Twenty-six* letters in the English Alphabet.

13. Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

14. A *Vowel* is a letter which represents a simple *inarticulate* sound; and, in a word or syllable, may be sounded alone. The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and *w* and *y* not before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in *law, bay*.

15. A *Consonant* is a letter which represents an *articulate* sound; and, in a word or syllable, is never sounded alone, but always in connection with a vowel. The consonants are *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*, and *w* and *y* before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in *war, youth*.

16. A *Diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one sound. Diphthongs are of two kinds, proper and improper.

17. A *Proper Diphthong* is one in which both the vowels are sounded, as *ou*, in *out*; *oi*, in *oil*; *ow*, in *cow*.

18. An *Improper Diphthong*, or digraph, is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded, as *ou* in *court*, or *oa* in *boat*.

19. A *Triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one sound, as *eau* in *beauty*.

THE POWERS OF LETTERS.

20. In analyzing words into their elementary sounds, it is necessary to distinguish between the *name* of a letter and its *power*.

21. The *name* of a letter is that by which it is usually called; as *A, bē, sē, dē, &c.*

22. The *power* of a letter is the effect which it has, either by itself or combined with other letters, in forming a word or syllable.

23. Each of the vowels has several powers. Several letters have the same power; and certain powers or elements of words are represented by a combination of two letters.

24. The elementary powers or sounds in the English language are about *forty*, and are divided into *Vocals*, represented by vowels and diphthongs; and *Subvocals* and *Aspirates*, represented by consonants, single or combined.

25. VOCALS are *inarticulate* sounds produced by the organs of voice, with the mouth more or less open, and with no change, or but slight change, of position in the organs of speech.

26. SUBVOCALS are sounds produced by the organs of voice, articulated or modified by certain changes in the positions of the organs of speech.

27. ASPIRATES are mere whispering sounds without vocality, but which still have an audible effect in the enunciation of words. They are all articulate except *h*.

28. The elementary powers of letters can not be exhibited to the eye, but must be learned from the living voice.

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

30. A full view of the elementary powers of letters in the formation of words, is exhibited in the following table. In the words annexed as examples, the letter whose power is indicated is printed in *Italic*. By pronouncing the word distinctly, and then leaving out all but the power of the *Italic* letter, and uttering that alone, we have the power of that letter.

31. TABLE of Elementary Sounds in the English Language.

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

* R before a vowel has a hard or trilling sound; as, *rat*, *rough*; after a vowel, a soft and liquid sound; as, *arm*, *far*.

32. Certain letters in the English alphabet have the same power as others in the preceding table, and may therefore be called *Equivalents*. *Equivalents* of vowels and diphthongs are numerous.

33. Of the *Subvocals* and *Aspirates*, eight pairs are *Correlatives*. In sounding the first of any of these pairs, the organs of voice* and speech are in the same position as in sounding its fellow, but the first, or subvocal, has vocality; the second, or aspirate, has not.

34. TABLE of *Equivalents and Correlatives*.

EQUIVALENTS.			CORRELATIVES.	
W	=u	cow, new.	<i>Subvocals.</i>	<i>Aspirates.</i>
Y	=i	tyrant, system.	V. vow.	F. fame.
C hard	=k	cat.	G. gone.	K. keep.
Q	=k	liquor.	B. bat.	P. pen.
C soft	=s	cent.	Z. zinc.	S. sin.
G soft	=j	gin.	D. do.	T. top.
X	=ks	fix.	Th. this.	Th. thick.
			Z. azure.	Sh. show.
			J. judge.	Ch. chide.

35. These elementary sounds of the human voice, sometimes simple, but more commonly combined, are formed into *syllables* and *words*.

SYLLABLES.

36. A *Syllable* is a certain vocal or articulate sound, uttered by one impulse of the voice, and represented by one or more letters, as, *farm*, *farm-er*, *ea-gle*, *a-e-ri-al*.

37. Every word contains as many syllables as it has distinct vocal sounds, as *gram-ma-ri-an*.

38. A word of one syllable is called a *Monosyllable*.

39. A word of two syllables is called a *Dissyllable*.

40. A word of three syllables is called a *Trisyllable*.

41. A word of more than three syllables is called a *Polysyllable*.

* The *Organs of Voice* are those parts (called by physiologists the larynx and its appendages) which are employed in the production of simple vocal sounds.

The *Organs of Speech* are those parts employed to articulate or modify whispering or vocal sounds. These are the tongue, lips, teeth and palate.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

42. The division of words into syllables is called *Syllabication*.

GENERAL RULE.

43. Place together in distinct syllables, those letters which make up the separate parts or divisions of a word, as heard in its correct pronunciation.

44. The only definite rules of much value on this subject are the following:—

45. *Rule 1.* Two or more consonants forming but one elementary sound, are never separated; such as, *ch, tch, th, sh, ng, ph, wh, gh* silent, or sounding *f, lk* sounding *k*, &c.; as, *church-es, watch-es, wor-thy, fish-es, sing-ing, philoso-phy, sigh-ing, cough-ing, walk-ing.*

46. *Rule 2.* The terminations, *cean, cian, ceous, cious, cial, tion, tious, tial, geon, gian, geous, sion*, are hardly every divided; as, *o-cean, gra-cious, na-tion, coura-geous*, &c.

47. *Rule 3.* Compound words are divided into their simple ones; as, *rail-road, bee-hive, hope-less, thank-ful*, &c.

48. *Rule 4.* The terminations of words, when they form a syllable, are usually separated from their roots; as, *writ-er, teach-es, think-ing, cold-er, old-est.*

49. Two separate words combined as one name, are usually separated by a hyphen; as, *rail-road, glass-house, bee-hive.*

50. In writing, a word of more than one syllable may be divided at the end of a line, but a monosyllable, never.

SPELLING.

51. SPELLING is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters.

52. The Orthography of the English language is so anomalous, and in many cases arbitrary, that proficiency in it can be acquired only by practice, and the use of the spelling-book or dictionary. The following rules are of a general character, though even to these there may be a few exceptions:—

GENERAL RULES FOR SPELLING WORDS.

RULE I.

53. Monosyllables ending with *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass*.

54. *Exceptions*.—Of, if, as, is, has, was, his, gas, yes, this, us, thus, pus.

RULE II.

55. Words ending with any consonant except *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter; as, *sit*, *not*, *up*, *put*, *that*, *in*.

56. *Exceptions*.—Add, bunn, butt, buzz, ebb, egg, err, inn, odd, purr.

RULE III.

57. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* before an additional letter or syllable; as, *spy*, *spies*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; *carry*, *carrier*, *carried*; *fancy*, *fanciful*.

58. *Exception 1*.—But *y* is not changed before *ing*; as, *deny*, *denying*.

59. *Exception 2*.—Words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* unchanged; as, *boy*, *boys*, *boyish*, *boyhood*.

Exception 3.—But *lay*, *pay*, *say*, make *laid*, *paid*, *said*; and *day* makes *daily*.

RULE IV.

60. Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *rob*, *robber*; *admit*, *admittance*, *admitted*.

Exception.—But *x* and *h* are never doubled.

61. But when a diphthong or a double vowel precedes, or the accent is *not* on the last syllable, the consonant is not doubled; as, *boil*, *boiling*, *boiler*; *wool*, *woolen*; *fool*, *foolish*; *visit*, *visited*.

62. *Exceptions*.—In about fifty words ending in *l* with a vowel before it, and not accented on the last syllable, many writers, contrary to analogy and without necessity, double the *l* improperly before an additional syllable. These are such words as *travel*, *traveller*, *travelling*, *travelled*.*

*The words referred to are the following: Apparel, bevel, bowel, cancel, carol, cavil, channel, chisel, counsel, cudgel, dishevel, drivel, duel, embowel, enamel, empanel, equal, gambol, gravel, grovel, handelsel, hatchel, imperil, jewel, kennel, label, level, libel, marshal, marvel, model, panel, parcel, pencil, peril, pistol, pommel, quarrel, ravel, revel, rival, rowel, shovel, shrivel, snivel, tassel, trammel, travel, tunnel, unravel.

63. So also *s* and *p* are generally, though improperly, doubled in *bias*, *worship*, and *kidnap*; as, *biassing*, *worshipper*, *kidnapping*. Webster, and many writers following him, in these words conform to the general rule.

RULE V.

64. Words ending with *ll* drop one *l* before the terminations *less* and *ly*, to prevent trebling; as, *skill*, *skillless*; *full*, *fully*; and some writers, before *ness* and *full*; as, *fulness*, *skilful*.

65. But words ending in any other double letter, preserve the letter double before *less*, *ly*, *ness*, and *ful*; as, *harmlessly*, *stiffly*, *gruffness*, &c.

RULE VI.

66. Silent *e* is preserved before the terminations *ment*, *less*, *ly*, and *ful*; as, *paleness*, *peaceful*, *abatement*, &c.

67. *Exceptions*.—Duly, truly, awful, and generally, judgment, acknowledgment, lodgment, abridgment, are excepted. Argument from the Latin *argumentum*, is not an exception.

RULE VII.

68. Silent *e* is omitted before terminations beginning with a vowel; as, *slave*, *slavish*; *cure*, *curable*; *sense*, *sensible*; *lodge*, *lodging*; *love*, *lovest*.

69. *Blame*, *move*, *reprove*, *sale*, and their compounds, sometimes, though improperly, retain *e* before *able*; as, *blameable*, &c.

70. But words ending in *ge* and *ce* retain *e* before *able*, in order to preserve the soft sound of *g* and *c*; as, *changeable*, *peaceable*, &c. For the same reason we have *singeing*, and *swingeing*; *dye* has *dyeing*, to distinguish it from *dying*. So also words ending with *c* hard insert *k* before a syllable beginning with *e* or *i* to preserve the hard sound; as, *frolic*, *frolicked*, *frolicking*.

71. The letters *ie* at the end of a word, are changed into *y* before *ing*; as, *die*, *dying*; *lie*, *lying*.

RULE VIII.

72. Simple words, ending in *ll*, when joined to other words generally drop one *l*, when they lose the accent; as, *awful*, *hopeful*, *handful*, *careful*, *already*.

73. But when they are under the accent, the double *l* should be retained; as, *fulfil*, *wilfull*, *recall*, *foretell*. But, *until*, *welcome*, *always*, *also*, *withal*, *therewithal*, *wherewithal*, have single *l*.

74. In words under this rule, however, usage is far from uniform, *fulfil* and *fulfill*; *willful* and *wilful*; *recal* and *recall*; *foretel* and *foretell*, and similar varieties are common.

75. Other compounded words are generally spelled in the same manner as the simple words of which they are formed; as, *glass-house, mill-wright, thereby*.

76. Many words in English admit of two or more different modes of spelling; as, *connection, connexion; enquire, inquire; chemistry, chymistry, &c.* In such cases, prevailing usage and analogy must be our guides.

CAPITALS.

77. Formerly every noun began with a capital letter, both in writing and in printing; but at present only the following words begin with capital letters:—

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or of any other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period; also after a note of interrogation, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other.

But if several interrogatory or exclamatory sentences are so connected, that the latter sentences depend on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter; as, "How doth the city sit solitary, that was full of people! *how* are her habitations become as desolate! *how* is she become as a widow!"

3. Proper names, titles of office or honor; as, *George Washington, General Lee, Judge Story, Sir Walter Scott, America, the Ohio, Pratt, Woodford & Co., Pearl Street, New York.*

4. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals.

5. The first word of every line in poetry.

6. The appellations of the Deity; as, *God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, &c.*

7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, *Grecian, Roman, English, &c.*

8. The first word of a direct quotation (1124), when the quotation would form a complete sentence by itself; as, "Always remember this ancient maxim: '*Know thyself*.'"

When a quotation is not introduced in the direct form (1125,) but follows a comma, the first word must not begin with a capital; as, "Solomon observes, that '*pride* goes before destruction.'"

9. Common nouns when personified; as, "Come, gentle *Spring*."

10. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books; as, "*Euclid's Elements of Geometry*;" "*Goldsmith's Deserterd Village*."

78. Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

79. ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivation.

WORDS.

80. A Word is an articulate sound used by common consent as the sign of an idea.

81. A few words consist of vocal or vowel sounds only, without articulation; as, *I, ah, awe, oh, owe, eye, &c.*

82.—1. Words, in respect of their *Formation*, are either *Primitive* or *Derivative*, *Simple* or *Compound*.

83. A *Primitive* word is one that is not derived from any other word in the language; as, *boy, just, father.*

84. A *Derivative* word is one that is derived from some other word; as, *boyish, justice, fatherly.*

85. A *Simple* word is one that is not combined with any other word; as, *man, house, city.*

86. A *Compound* word is one that is made up of two or more simple words; as, *manhood, horseman.*

87.—2. Words, in respect of *Inflection*, are either *Declinable* or *Indeclinable*.

88. A *Declinable* word is one which undergoes certain changes of *form* or *termination*, to express the different relations of gender, number, case, degree, voice, mood, tense, person; usually termed in Grammar, *ACCIDENTS*; as, *man, men; love, loves, loved, &c.*

89. In the changes which they undergo, Nouns and Pronouns are said to be *declined*, Verbs, to be *inflected* or *conjugated*.

90. An *Indeclinable* word is one which undergoes no change of form; as, *good, some, perhaps.*

91.—3. In respect of *Signification* and *Use*, words are divided into *eight* different classes, called *Parts of Speech*.

92. The principle according to which words are classified is their *use*, or the part they perform in the expression of thought. Words which are names of objects are classed as *nouns*; those which qualify nouns are *adjectives*; those which attribute an action or state to some subject are *verbs*, &c. Hence, when the same word is used for different purposes—at one time as a *name*, at another to *qualify* a noun, and at another to express an *action* or *state*—it should, in parsing, be assigned to that class of words, the office of which it performs for the time: thus, “Before *honor* [noun] is humility.” “*Honor* [verb] thy father and thy mother.”

93. The parts of speech are :—

1. The words used to name persons or things; as, *table, book, kindness*.—**NOUNS**.
2. The words used to express the *qualities* of persons or things; as *Good book, Sweet apples*, &c.—**ADJECTIVES**.
3. The words used *instead* of the *names* of persons or things; as, *he, you, who, they*, &c.—**PRONOUNS**.
4. The words used to *declare, affirm* or *assert* what persons or things do; as, *John reads, He stands*, &c.—**VERBS**.
5. Words used to express the *manner, time, place*, &c., of an act, or the *degree*, &c., of a quality; as, *He acts justly, He will go soon, He lives there, He is a very good boy*.—**ADVERBS**.
6. Words used to express the relation which names of persons or things bear to other words; as, *They live in Toronto, He went to Montreal*.—**PREPOSITIONS**.
7. Words used merely to show the connection, when words and thoughts require to be connected together; as, *James and William left home this morning; but they will return when they have completed their engagement*.—**CONJUNCTIONS**.
8. Words used merely to express *emotion*, without any connection with other words; as, *Adieu! my friend, Hurrah!* for the volunteers of Canada.—**INTERJECTIONS**.

94. Definitions of the parts of speech.

1. A **NOUN** is the *name* of anything; as, *Quebec, city, love*.
2. An **ADJECTIVE** is a word used to *qualify* or *limit* the meaning of a noun; as, an *honest* man; *ten* days; *this* book.
3. A **PRONOUN** is a word used to *supply* the *place* of a noun; as, when *our* friends visited Niagara *they* returned to Hamilton.

4. A **VERB** is a word used to make an *assertion*; or, a word which *affirms* the *act, being* or *state* of its subject; as, *I write. He is loved.*

5. An **ADVERB** is a word used to modify the sense of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, "*She reads very correctly.*" A *remarkably* diligent boy.

6. A **PREPOSITION** is a word used to express the *grammatical relation* of a noun or pronoun depending upon it, to some other word in the sentence; as, *He went from Montreal to Halifax. We moved up the river in a small boat.*

7. A **CONJUNCTION** is a word used to connect words, phrases, or sentences; as, *He and I must go; but you may stay. Of him and to him, and through him, are all things.*

8. An **INTERJECTION** is a word used merely to *express emotion*, without any connection with other words; as, "*Oh! what a full was there!*" *Alas!* my friend is no more.

1st EXERCISE.

The classification of words and the relations they bear to each other in sentences.

The teacher would find it an excellent plan, at this stage of the pupils' progress, instead of following the order of the book, to turn to any page of the selections in prose and poetry appended to this edition, and require the class, with the assistance of his oral instruction, first, to pick out the nouns and pronouns on any page; then the adjectives, connecting them with the nouns they limit or qualify; then the possessives, connecting them with the things possessed; then the verbs, connecting, with each, its subject. Then, explaining the difference between a *transitive* and *intransitive* verb, go over the piece again to find and point out the nouns and pronouns which are used as *objectives* to verbs. Then, explaining and illustrating the fact, that every preposition must have its noun or pronoun depending upon it to make sense, go over the piece again, pointing out the *prepositions*, and the nouns or pronouns used as their objectives; then, after explaining that this preposition and its object is in every instance used to complete the meaning of some other word, the preposition and its object taken together should be connected with the word which it completes. Then, go over the verbs and adjectives, to see whether they are modified by any adverbs, and point them out as modifying their verbs or adjectives. Then, go over the piece again in search of conjunctions, stating what each connects, and at the same time explaining the connecting office of relative pronouns and conjunctive adverbs. Then the words on the same page might be again taken up, just as they come, and the relation or construction of each word pointed out.

Then, having explained and illustrated what a *proposition* or *sentence* is, and the distinction between a *principal* and *dependent* proposition, go over the piece again to count off the *propositions* and distinguish between those that are principal and those that are dependent. This exercise should be continued on the same page till the class have a good idea of the classification of words, and propositions and the general relations to each other that exist among them. Then, a new piece should be taken up in the same manner. While proceeding with the lesson, the members of the class should be called upon to illustrate each point as it comes up, by examples of their own construction; and, at the close of each lesson, an exercise should be given out to prepare for the next day. The regular lessons in the book should not be resumed till the class have obtained considerable familiarity with the structure of sentences, and with the classification and general construction of words; and when the regular lessons are resumed, exercises of this kind should form part of every lesson till the Analysis is reached.—Ed.

NOUNS.

95. A **NOUN** is the *name* of anything; as, *tree, Toronto, kindness*.

96. Nouns may be divided into three classes, *Proper, Common* and *Abstract*.

97. A *Proper Noun* is the name applied to an individual only; as, *John, London, America, the Ohio*.

98. When a proper noun is used to denote a whole class, it becomes common, and generally has an article before it; as, "The twelve *Cæsars*," "He is the *Cicero* of his age," "A *Daniel* come to judgment." A *Campbell*, i.e., one of the Campbells.

99. Common nouns become proper when personified and also when used as proper names; as, *Hail, Liberty! The Park*.

100. A *Common Noun* is a name applied in common to everything of the same kind; as, *man, chair, table, book*.

Common Nouns may be subdivided into,—

1. *Class Names*.—Names applicable to any one of a class; as *book*.

2. Collective nouns—the name of a number of individuals *united* together; as *people*.

3. Material nouns—names of substances not made up of individual parts; as, *honey, butter*.

4. Names of numbers, weights, measures, &c.; as, an *ounce, a peck*.

101. An *Abstract Noun* is the name of anything which we only conceive of as having a real existence; as *goodness, rest, singing, to sing*.

Abstract nouns may be divided into,—

1. Names of *qualities*; as, *simplicity, size, courage*.

2. Names of actions, including verbal nouns; as, *flight, walking, to walk*.

3. Names of states or conditions; as, *poverty, sickness*.

2ND EXERCISE.*

1. In the following list, distinguish between proper, common, and abstract nouns; and give a reason for the distinction:—

Albany, city, tree, nation, France, Philip, dog, horse, house, garden, Dublin, Edinburgh, London, river, Hudson, Ohio, Thames, countries, America, England, Ireland, Spain, sun, moon, stars, planets, Jupiter, Venus, Mars, man, woman, boy, girl, John, James, Mary, Susan, mountain, stream, valley.

2. In the following sentences, point out the nouns. Say why they are nouns; tell whether they are proper, common, or abstract, and why; and to which class of the common, proper, or abstract they belong, and why. Thus, "*Army*," a noun, because the name of a thing; common, because applied to all things of the same kind; and collective, because it is a name of a number united together.

The table and chairs in this room belong to John; the book-case, writing-desk, and books, to his brother.

* The exercises furnished here, and throughout this work, are intended merely as a specimen of the way in which the leading truths and facts in Grammar may be wrought into the minds of pupils, by means of exercises properly devised. It is not, however, expected or desired that the teacher should limit himself to these. Every active and ingenious teacher will devise such new and various methods of exercising his pupils as their age, capacity, and circumstances, and his own judgment and experience may suggest, as best calculated to *draw out* their powers, and cultivate in them a habit of thinking and reasoning for themselves.

They landed at Quebec on Monday. The peace of the country is disturbed. They are the people of his choice. His forbearance was remarkable. The iron of Marmora is excellent. I bought a dozen pencils for a shilling. It is pleasant to travel by moonlight. His decision was commendable. Contentment is the best fortune. Coral is produced by marine animals. I am impatient to depart. The coachman has harnessed the horses. Ottawa is the capital of Canada. Canada is one of the brightest gems in the British crown. The roofs of houses are sometimes covered with slate. There is a great deal of wood in Canada, but no coal. He has been chairman of the board for ten years.

3. Write down ten nouns, or names of persons or things, and say something respecting each, so as to make a sentence; thus:—

Summer—*summer* is the warmest season of the year.

4. Go over this exercise again, and point out the *verb* and *subject* in each sentence, and give the *construction* of the words that modify the subject, then the words that modify the verb.

Ans.—If the 1st Exercise has been done as recommended, the class, by the aid of a little *Oral* instruction from the Teacher will be quite able to do this. Let it be done by all means with every succeeding exercise.

ACCIDENTS OR PROPERTIES OF THE NOUN.

102. The accidents of nouns are *Gender*, *Person*, *Number*, and *Case*.

NOTE.—These accidents belong also to pronouns.

GENDER.

103. GENDER is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex.

104. There are three genders, *Masculine*, *Feminine*, and *Neuter*.

105. Nouns denoting males are *Masculine*; as, *man*, *boy*.

106. Nouns denoting females are *Feminine*; as, *woman*, *girl*.

107. Nouns denoting neither males nor females, i. e., things without sex, are *Neuter*; as, *house, book, tree*.

108. Nouns which denote either males or females, such as *parent, neighbour, friend, &c.*, are sometimes, for the sake of convenience, said to be of the *Common Gender*, i. e., either masculine or feminine.

109. When the *feminine* is not distinguished from the *masculine* by using a different word; as, *boy, girl*,—it is distinguished by the termination "*ess*"; as, *lion, lioness*;—and sometimes by "*ine*"; as, *hero, heroine*.

110. Nouns which have different words for the *Masculine* and *Feminine* are,

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor	maid	Husband	wife
Boar	sow	King	queen
Beau	belle	Lord (a title)	lady
Boy	girl	Lad	lass
Brother	sister	Man	woman
Bridegroom	bride	Master	mistress or miss
Buck	doe	Monk	nun
Bull	cow	Nephew	niece
Cock	hen	Papa	manma
Drake	duck	Ram, buck	ewe
Dog	bitch	Son	daughter
Earl	countess	Sir	madam
Father	mother	Stag	hind
Friar	nun	Sloven	slut
Gander	goose	Swain	nymph
Gentleman	lady	Uncle	aunt
Hart	roe	Wizard	witch
Horse	mare		

111. Nouns which form the *feminine* by the termination "*ess*."

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot	abbess	Arbiter	arbitress
Actor	actress	Author	authoress
Adulterer	adulteress	Baron	baroness
Ambassador	ambassadors	Benefactor	benefactress
Count	countess	Peer	peeress
Conductor	conductress	Poet	poetess
Deacon	deaconess	Priest	priestess
Duke	duchess	Prince	princess
Electer	electress	Prior	prioress
Emperor	empress	Prophet	prophetess
Enchanter	enchantress	Protector	protectress
Giant	giantess	Shepherd	shepherdess
Governor	governess	Songster	songstress
Heir	heiress	Sorcerer	sorceress
Hunter	huntress	Sultan	{ sultanness or sul- tan
Host	hostess	Tiger	tigress
Jew	jewess	Traitor	traitress
Lion	lioness	Tutor	tutress
Marquis	marchioness	Viscount	viscountess
Mayor	mayress	Votary	votress
Negre	negress		
Patron	patroness		

112. The nouns which form the Feminine by the termination "*ine*" are *hero—heroine*; *Landgrave—landgravine*.

113. The Masculine and Feminine are sometimes distinguished by using a masculine or feminine word before the noun; as a *cock* sparrow—a *hen* sparrow; a *he* goat—a *she* goat; *male* descendant—*female* descendants, &c.

114. Words originally Latin, ending in "*or*" take the Latin form of the feminine in "*ix*"; as, testator—testatrix; executor,—executrix. Widower has *widow* for the feminine; Czar has *Czarina*.

OBSERVATIONS ON GENDER.

115. Many masculine nouns have no corresponding feminine;

as, *baker, brewer, dandy, &c.*; and some feminine nouns have no corresponding masculine; as *laundress, seamstress, &c.*

116. Some nouns naturally neuter, are often, by a figure of speech, converted into the masculine or feminine; as, when we say of the sun, "*He* is setting;" of the moon, "*She* is eclipsed;" or of a ship, "*She* sails."

117. REMARK.—This inferior species of personification, peculiar to the English language, is often used with great beauty to impart animation and liveliness to the style, without rendering it inflated or passionate. No certain rule, however, can be given as to the gender assumed, except that nouns denoting objects distinguished for strength or boldness, are usually regarded as masculine, while on the other hand, those denoting objects noted for softness, beauty and gracefulness, are considered feminine.

118. In speaking of animals whose sex is not known to us, or not regarded, we assign the masculine gender to those distinguished for boldness, fidelity, generosity, size, strength, &c., as the dog, the horse, the elephant. Thus we say, "The dog is remarkably various in *his* species." On the other hand, we assign the feminine gender to animals characterized by weakness and timidity; as the hare, the cat, &c.; thus, "The cat, as *she* beholds the light, draws the ball of *her* eye small and long."

119. In speaking of animals, particularly those of inferior size, we frequently consider them without sex, or of the neuter gender. Thus, of an infant, we say, "*It* is a lovely creature;" of a cat, "*It* is cruel to *its* enemy."

120. When the male and female are expressed by distinct terms, as, *shepherd, shepherdess*, the masculine term has sometimes also a general meaning, expressing both male and female, and is always to be used when the office, occupation, profession, &c., and not the sex of the individual, is chiefly to be expressed. The feminine term is used only when the discrimination of sex is necessary. Thus, when it is said, "the Poets of this country are distinguished for correctness of taste," the term "Poets" clearly includes both male and female writers of poetry. But, "the best Poetess of the age," would be said when speaking only of females.

121. Collective nouns, when the reference is to the aggregate as one whole, or when they are in the plural number, are considered as neuter; as, "The *army* destroyed everything in *its* course;" but when the reference is to the objects composing the collection as individuals, they take the gender of the individuals referred to.

3RD EXERCISE.

1. *What is the feminine of*—Father, prince, king,

master, actor, emperor, bridegroom, stag, buck, hart, nephew, friar, priest, heir, hero, Jew, host, hunter, sultan, executor, horse, lord, husband, brother, son, bull, he-goat, &c.

2. *What is the masculine of*—Lady, woman, girl, niece, nun, aunt, belle, duchess, abbess, empress, heroine, wife, sister, mother, hind, roe, mare, hen-sparrow, shepherdess, daughter, ewe, goose, queen, songstress, widow, &c.?

3. *Tell of what gender the following nouns are, and why.*

Man, horse, tree, field, father, house, mother, queen, count, lady, king, prince, castle, tower, river, stone, hen, goose, seamstress, mountain, cloud, air, sky, hand, foot, head, body, limb, lion, tiger, mayor, countess;—friend, neighbor, parent, teacher, assistant, guide;—sun, moon, earth, ship;—cat, mouse, fly, bird, elephant, hare.

4. Take any of the above words, and say something respecting the person or thing which it denotes, so as to make a sentence; thus, "My father is at home."

PERSON.

122. PERSON, in Grammar, is the distinction between the speaker, the person or thing spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

A noun is in the *first* person, when it denotes the speaker; as, "I, *Paul*, have written it."

A noun is in the *second* person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken to; as, "Thou, *God*, seest me."—"Hail, *Liberty*!"

A noun is in the *third* person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, "*Truth* is mighty."

123. REMARK.—The third person is used sometimes for the *first*; as, "thy *servant* became surety for the lad to my father."—Gen. xli. 32. Sometimes, particularly in the language of supplication, it is used for the *second*; as, "O let not the Lord be angry." Gen. xviii. 30. "Will the Lord bless us!"

OBSERVATIONS ON PERSON.

124. The first and the second person can belong only to nouns denoting persons, or things personified; because persons only can

speak or be spoken to. The *third* person may belong to all nouns, because every object, whether person or thing, may be spoken of.

125. A noun can be the subject of a verb only in the *third* person. A noun in the *first* or *second* person is never used as the subject of a verb, but only in apposition with the *first* or *second* personal pronoun, for the sake of explanation or emphasis; and sometimes in the *second* person, without a pronoun, as the object addressed.

126. A noun in the predicate is generally, though not always in the *third* person, even when the subject is in the *first* or *second*; as, "I am *Alpha*," &c., "who *is*." So with the pronouns *I* and *thou*; as, "I am *he*." "Thou art the *man*."

NUMBER.

127. NUMBER is the distinction of *one* from *more than one*.

128. Nouns have two numbers, the *Singular* and the *Plural*. The singular denotes but one object: as, *book, tree*; the plural, more than one; as, *books, trees*.

GENERAL RULE.

129. The plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular; as, *book, books*.

SPECIAL RULES.

130. RULE 1.—Words ending in a sound that will not unite with the sound of *s*, form their plural by adding *es*.

Nouns in *s*, *sh*, *x*, and *ch* soft, ending in a sound that will not unite with the sound of *s*, form their plural in *es*; as, *fox, foxes*; *match, matches*; *rose, roses*.

131. RULE 2.—Most nouns in *o*, preceded by a consonant form their plural in *es*; as, *cargo, cargoes*.

EXCEPTIONS.—*Canto, momento, octavo, two, zero*; with respect to grotto, junto, portico, quarto, solo, tyro, halo, and a few others, usage is not uniform.

132. RULE 3.—Nouns in *y* after a consonant, change *y* into *ies* in the plural: as, *lady, ladies*. But

Nouns in *y* after a vowel, and all proper nouns in *y*, follow the general rule; as, *day, days*; the *Pompeys, the Tullys, &c.*

133. RULE 4.—Nouns in *f* or *fe*, change *f* or *fe* into *ves* in the plural: as, *loaf, loaves; life, lives*.

134. EXCEPTIONS.—Dwarf, scarf, reef; brief, chief, grief, kerchief, handkerchief, mischief; gulf, turf, surf; safe, life, strife; proof, hoof, reproof,—also nouns in *ff*; as, *muff, muffs*; except *staff*. plural *staves*; but its compounds are regular; as, *flagstaff, flagstaffs*; *wharf* has either *wharfs* or *wharves*.

4TH EXERCISE.

1. Give the plural of the following nouns, and the rules for forming it; thus, *Fox*, plural *foxes*. RULE—Nouns in *s, sh, ch*, soft *z, x*, or *o*, form the plural by adding *es*. Or, more briefly; Nouns, in *z* form the plural by adding *es*.

Fox, book, leaf, candle, hat, loaf, wish, sex, box, coach, inch, sky, bounty, army duty, ruin, loss, cargoe, wife, story, church, table, glass, calf, branch, street, potato, peach, sheaf, booby, roe, cone, house, glory, hope, flower, city, difficulty, distress, wolf.

Day, bay, relay, chimney, journey, valley, needle, enemy, army, vale, ant, hill, sea, key, toy, monarch, tyro, grotto, nuncio, punctilio, embryo, gulf, handkerchief, hoof, staff, muff, cliff, whiff, cuff, ruff, reef, safe, wharf, fief.

2. *Of what number is*—Book, trees, plant, shrub, globes, planets, toys, home, fancy, mosses, glass, state, foxes, houses, prints, spoon, bears, lilies, roses, churches.

glove, silk, skies, hill, river, scenes, stars, berries, peach, porch, glass, pitcher, valleys, mountain, cameos ?

3. Take six of the above words, and say something respecting each ; first in the *singular*, and then in the *plural*.

NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.

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

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

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

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

137. NOTE.—Though *pence* is plural, yet such expressions as *fourpence*, *sixpence*, &c., as the name of a sum, or of a coin representing that sum, is often regarded as singular, and so capable of a plural ; as, “Three fourpences, or two sixpences, make a shilling.” “A new sixpence is heavier than an old one.”

138.—Compounds ending in *ful* or *full*, and generally those which have the important word last, form the plural regularly : as, *spoonful*, *cupful*, *coachful*, *handful*, *mouse-trap*, *ox-cart*, *court-yard*, *camera-obscura*, &c. ; plural, *spoonfuls*, *cupfuls*, *coachfuls*, &c.

139. Compounds in which the principal word stands first, pluralize the first word ; as—

Singular.

Commander-in-chief
Aid-de-camp
Knight-errant
Court-martial
Cousin-german
Father-in-law, &c.

Plural.

commanders-in-chief
aids-de-camp
knights-errant
courts-martial
cousins-german
fathers-in-law, &c.

Man-servant changes both ; as, *men-servants*. So also, *women-servants*, *knights-templars*.

140. The compounds of *man* form the plural as the simple word ; as, *fisherman*, *fishermen*. But nouns accidentally ending in *man*, and not compounds of *man*, form the plural by the general rule ; as, *Turcoman*, *Mussulman*, *talisman* ; plural, *Turcomans*, *Mussulmans*, &c.

141. Proper names, when pluralized, and other parts of speech used as nouns, or mere names, form the plural like nouns of similar endings ; as, the *Aristotles*, the *Solons*, the *Mariuses*, the *Pompeys*, the *Ciceros* ; the *eyes* and *noes*, the *ins* and the *outs* ; by *sixes* and *sevens*, by *fifties* ; three *fourths*, two *halves* ; " His *aunts* and his *ors* ; " " One of the *buts* is superfluous."

142. EXCEPTION.—Such words ending in *y* after a consonant, follow the general rule, and not the special rule ; as, the *Livys*, the *Tullys*, the *Henrys*—"The *whys* and the *bys*."

143. Letters, marks, and numerical figures, are made plural by adding 's ; as, " Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*."—" Your *s's* are not well made."—" The + 's and — 's are not in line."—" Four 6's = eight 3's,"—" 9's give place to 0's."

144. NOTE.—Some good writers form the plural of proper names, &c., in this way ; as, the *Marius's*, the *Pompey's*,—the *why's* and the *wherefores*. But this is unnecessary, and should be avoided.

145. Words adopted without change from foreign languages, generally retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns

in *um* or *on*, have *a* in the plural. Latin nouns in *is*, in the plural change *is* into *es*; Greek nouns in *is*, change *is* into *ides*; Latin nouns in *a* change *a* into *e*; but Greek nouns change *a* into *ata* in the plural. The following are the most common, some of which, however, from common use, have become so much a part of the English language as to have also the *English* form of the plural. In the following table, these are indicated by the letter R.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Alumnus	alumni	Chrysalis	chrysalides
Alumna	alumnae	Crisis	crises
Amamensis	amamenses	Criterion	criteria
Analysis	analyses	Datum	data
Animalculum	animalcula, R.	Desideratum	desiderata
Antithesis	antitheses	Diaeresis	diæreses
Apex	apices, R.	Effluvium	effluvia
Appendix	appendices, R.	Ellipsis	ellipses
Arcanum	arcana	Emphasis	emphases
Automaton	automata, R.	Enconium	enconia, R.
Axis	axes	Ephemeris	ephemerides
Baudit	banditti	Erratum	errata
Basis	bases	Focus	foci
Bean	beaux, R.	Formula	formulae
Calx	calces, R.	Fungus	fungi, funguses
Cherub	cherubim, R.	Genius	genii (145)
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Genus	genera	Nebula	nebulae
Gymnasium	gymnasia	Oasis	oases
Hypothesis	hypotheses	Parenthesis	parentheses
Ignis fatuus	ignes fatui	Phenomenon	phenomena
Index (<i>a pointer</i>)	indexes	Radius	radii
Index (<i>in algebra</i>)	indices	Scholium	scholia, R.
Lamina	laminae	Seraph	seraphim, R.
Larva	larvae	Speculum	specula
Magus	magi	Stamen	stamina, R.
Medium	media, R.	Stimulus	stimuli
Memorandum	memoranda, R.	Stratum	strata
Metamorphosis	metamorphoses	Thesis	theses
Miasma	miasmata	Vertebra	vertebrae
Momentum	momenta, R.	Vertex	vertices, R.
Monsieur	messieurs	Virtuoso	virtuosi
Mr. (<i>master</i>)	messis. (<i>masters</i>)	Vortex	vortices, R.

5TH EXERCISE.

ON NOUNS IRREGULAR IN NUMBER.

Give the Plural of—Man, foot, penny, mouse, ox, child, woman, brother, goose, tooth ;—sow, die, court-martial, father-in-law, son-in-law ;—cupful, coachful, spoonful ; erratum, medium, radius, genius, lamina, automaton, phenomenon, stratum, axis, ellipsis, stamen, index, cherub, seraph, &c.

Of what number is—Dice, arcana, fishermen, geese, dormice, alms, riches, thanks, snuffers, tongs, teeth, woman, child, courtmartial, apparatus, miasma, genii, geniuses, indices, indexes, mathematics, Matthew, James, John ?

OBSERVATIONS ON NUMBER.

146. Some nouns are used *in the singular only*. Such are the names of *metals, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, abstract qualities*, and things *weighed or measured* ; as, *gold, meekness, piety, idleness, intemperance, sculpture, geometry, wisdom, flour, milk, &c.* Except when different sorts of things are expressed ; as, *wines, teas, sugars, liquors, &c.*

147. Some nouns are used *in the plural only* ; as, *annals, antipodes, archives, assets, ashes, billiards, bitters, breeches, clothes, calends, colors* (military banners), *dregs, goods, hysterics, ideas, intestines, literati, lees, letters*, (literature), *minutiae, manners, morals, nones, orgies, pleiads or pleiades, shambled, tidings, thanks, vespers, vitals, victuals* ; Also, things consisting of two parts ; as, *bellows, drawers, hose, nippers, pincers, pliers, snuffers, scissors, shears, tongs, &c.*

A few words usually plural, viz., *bowels, embers, entrails, lungs*, have sometimes a singular, denoting a part or portion of that expressed by the plural ; as, *bowel, lung, &c.*

148. Some nouns are alike in both numbers ; as, *deer, sheep, swine, vermin ; grouse, salmon, tench, trout ; apparatus, hiatus, series, congeries, species, superficies ; head* (in the sense of individual), *cattle* ; certain building materials ; as, *brick, stone, plank, joist*, in mass ; also *fish*, and sometimes *fowl*, denoting the class. But several of these, in a plural sense, denoting individuals have the regular plural also ; as, *salmons, trouts, fishes, fowls, &c.*

149. The words *brace*, *couple*, *pair*, *yoke*, *dozen*, *score*, *gross*, *hundred*, *thousand*, and some others, after adjectives of number, are either singular or plural; as, *a brace*, *a dozen*, *a hundred*; *two brace*, *three dozen*, *six hundred*, &c. But without an adjective of number, or in other constructions, and particularly after *in*, *by*, &c., in a distributive sense, most of these words, in the plural, assume a plural form; as, "In *braces* and *dozens*." "By *scores* and *hundreds*." "Worth *thousands*."

150. 1.—The following words, plural in form, are sometimes singular, but most commonly plural in signification, viz.: *amends*, *means*, *riches*, *pains* (meaning laborious effort), *odds*, *alms*, *wages*; and the names of certain sciences; as, *mathematics*, *ethics*, *optics*, *acoustics*, *metaphysics*, *politics*, *pneumatics*, *hydrostatics*, &c.

2.—*Means* and *amends*, referring to one object, are singular; to more than one, plural. *Mean*, in the singular form, is now used to signify the middle between two extremes. *Alms* (*almsesse*, Anglo-Saxon) and *riches* (*richesse*, French), are really singular, though now used commonly in a plural sense. *News*, formerly singular or plural, is now mostly singular. *Molasses* and *measles*, though ending like a plural, are singular, and so used. *Oats* is generally plural; *gallows* is both singular and plural, though a distinct plural form, *gallowses*, is also in use.

151. The following are singular in form, but in construction various; thus, *foot* and *horse*, meaning bodies of troops, and *people*, meaning *persons*, are always construed as plural; *cannon*, *shot*, *sail*, *cavalry*, *infantry*, as singular or plural. *People* (also *folk*), when it signifies a community or body of persons, is a collective noun in the singular, and sometimes, though rarely, takes a plural form; as, "Many *peoples* and *nations*."—Rev. x. 11.

THE PLURAL OF PROPER NAMES.

152. Proper names for the most part want the plural; but—

153. Proper names without a title are used in the plural, when they refer to a race or family; as, "The *Campbells*," "the *Stuarts*;" or to several persons of the same name; as, "The twelve *Cesars*;" or when they are used to denote character; as, "The *Ciceros* of the age."

154. Proper names with the title of *Mrs.* prefixed, or with any title, preceded by the numerals, *two*, *three*, &c., pluralize the name,

and not the title; as, "The *Mrs. Howards*;" "the two Miss *Mortons*;" "the two Mr. *Henrys*."

155. But when several persons of the same name are spoken of individually, and distinguished by a particular appellation, or when persons of different names are spoken of together, the *title* only, and not the name is made plural; as, "*Misses Julia and Mary Robinson*;" "*Messrs. George and Andrew Thomson*;" "*Messrs. Pratt, Woodford, & Co.*"

Thus far, usage and the rule are settled and uniform; but—

156. In other cases, usage is still unsettled. Some writers, perhaps the majority, pluralize the *title* and not the name; as, "*The Misses Brown*;" "*the Messrs Harper*." Others, of equal authority, regarding the title as a sort of adjective, or the whole as a compound name, pluralize the *name* and not the title; as, "*The Miss Browns*;" "*the Mr. Harpers*." This form is more common in conversation, and, being less stiff and formal, is more likely to prevail. A few improperly pluralize both name and title; as, "*The Misses Browns*;" "*the Messrs. Harpers*."

157. Names with other titles prefixed, follow the same analogy; as, "*Lords Wellington and Lynedoch*;" "*the lords bishops of Durham and St. David's*;" "*the generals Scott and Taylor*."

CASES OF NOUNS.

158. CASE is the relation which nouns and pronouns bear to the other words with which they are connected in sense.

159. Nouns in English have four cases, the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, *Objective*, and *Independent*.*

*The nominative case is defined by the best grammarians, to be, "A noun used as the subject of a verb," and since a noun used independently; as, *John*, come here.—The *day* being cold we did not start.—The *prophets*, where are they, &c., cannot at the same time be the subject of a verb, it is certainly incorrect to class it with the nominative. Is there not as much difference between the *Nominative* and *Independent*, as there is between the *Nominative* and *Objective*? Nouns have *four cases*.—Kenyon Bucke, P. Smith, Felton, Fowle, Flint, Goodenow, Hagen, Goldsbury, Chapin, S. Alexander, Clark, Pinnes, &c. &c.

160. The *Nominative* case is the noun or pronoun when used as the subject of the verb; that is—the noun or pronoun about which the assertion is made; as, "*Life is short.*" The same verb may have several nominatives; as, "*James and William and Mary left home this morning.*"

161. When the noun coming after the verb *to be* and such verbs, stands for the same thing as the subject, it is also in the nominative; as, "*James is a good boy.*" "*Mr. Miller was elected chairman.*"

162. The *Possessive* case is the noun or pronoun, when used to denote the possessor of something; as, "*John's book, my slate.*"

163. The *Objective* case is the noun or pronoun when used as the object of a transitive verb, or of a preposition; as, "*James studies Greek.*" "*The Queen of England.*" "*He is in the City.*" The same verb or preposition may be followed by several objectives; as, "*He sent Henry and James and William.*" "*He sent to Henry and James and William.*"

164. The *Independent* case is the noun when used absolutely: having no dependence on any other word; as, "*Your fathers, where are they?*" "*The cars being late, we did not overtake him.*" "*There is no terror, Cassius, in your threats.*" "*O, the miseries of war.*" "*Miller's Grammar.*"

GENERAL RULES.

165. The nominative and the objective of nouns are alike.

166. The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the nominative; as, *John's*.

167. When the plural ends in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only; as, *ladies'*. But when the plural does not end in *s*, both the apostrophe and *s* are added; as, *men's, children's*.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

168. Nouns are thus declined—

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
Nom.	Lady	ladies	Man	men	John
Poss.	Lady's	ladies'	Man's	men's	John's
Obj.	Lady	ladies	Man	men	John

169. Proper names for the most part want the plural.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE POSSESSIVE.

170. The *'s* in the possessive case is evidently an abbreviation for the old English termination of the genitive in *es* or *is*. Thus, "The king's crown" was written, "The Kingis crown." That *s* is not an abbreviation for *his*, as some have supposed, is manifest from the fact, that it is used where *his* could not be properly employed; thus, *woman's*, *men's*, *children's*, *book's*, &c., can not be resolved into *woman his*, *men his*, *children his*, &c.

The apostrophe (') after *s* in the plural, is not a mark of abbreviation, but is used, in modern times, merely as a sign of the possessive. Its use in the plural is but of recent date.

171. When the nominative singular ends in *ss*, or in letters of a similar sound, though to retain the *s* after the apostrophe is never wrong, yet, as a matter of taste, it is sometimes omitted in order to avoid harshness, or too close a succession of hissing sounds; as, "For goodness' sake;" "for conscience' sake;" so also "Moses' disciples;" "Jesus' feet."

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

173. REMARK.—In written language, the omission of the *s* occasions but little inconvenience; for the apostrophe sufficiently indicates the case, and the construction will generally indicate the number. Thus, in spoken language, "Davy's Surveying," and "Davies' Surveying," sound precisely alike, though the names are different. Hence, to indicate the last name correctly in speaking, it will be more accurate, though less euphonic, to say, "Davies's

Surveying. Thus, also, "Perkins' Arithmetic," "Sparks' Analysis," in spoken language, may be mistaken, for "Perkin's Arithmetic," "Spark's Analysis." In such cases, precision will be secured at the expense of euphony, by retaining the *s*, while euphony will be attained, frequently at the expense of precision, by dropping it.

174. The meaning of the possessive may, in general, be expressed by the word *of* with the objective; thus, for "*man's* wisdom," "*virtue's* reward," we may say, "the wisdom *of man*," "the reward *of virtue*." This mode will generally be preferred, when the use of the possessive would appear stiff or awkward; thus, "the length of the day," is better than "the day's length." In some few words which want the possessive plural, such as *father-in-law*, *court-martial*, &c., this is the only substitute. These two modes of expression, however, are not always equivalent; thus, "the king's picture," means any picture belonging to the king; "a picture of the king," means a portrait of him, without saying to whom it belongs. So also, *of* with the objective, can not always be represented by the possessive; as, "A piece *of gold*," "a cord *of wood*," "the house *of representatives*," &c.

ON THE NOUN.

175. A noun is parsed by stating its kind, gender, person, number and case.

6TH EXERCISE.

176. Give sentences with a noun in the Nominative, Possessive, Objective, Independent. Give a sentence with a noun or pronoun in it, in each case. Point out the nouns in the following sentences, and give the case of each, with the reason. Go over them a second time, and give the kind, gender, person, number and case of each, with the reasons; thus, in the first sentence, "*Romulus*" is a noun—proper, third, singular, nominative to the verb *founded*.

Romulus founded the City of Rome. The king's heart is in the hand of the Lord. The prophets; do they live for ever? A wise man's anger is of short duration. Genius lies buried on our mountains, and in our valleys. Columns, arches, pyramids; what are they but heaps of sand? Bless the Lord; O, my soul. O, the depth of the riches of the wisdom of God. I have always preferred cheerfulness to mirth. The sun having risen, we departed on our journey. Ease, fortune, life, all were squandered. He left the country

ten years ago. The world's prosperity often brings pain.

Go over this Exercise again, and point out the *Subject* and *Verb* in each sentence, and give the *construction of each word*.

1st EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

177. Into how many classes may words be divided, in respect of their formation?—Define each, and give an example of each. How are they divided, in respect of inflection?—Define each, and give an example of each.

How are words divided in respect of signification and use?—Define each, and give an example of each.

OF NOUNS.

Into what classes are nouns divided?—Define each, and give an example.—Into what classes are *common nouns* subdivided; give an example of each.—Into what classes are *abstract nouns* divided;—Describe each, and give an example of each. What are the *accidents* or *properties* of nouns.

OF GENDER.

What is gender?—Why so called?—What are the genders?—Define each, and give a reason for its name.—What are the different methods of denoting the masculine and feminine?—What is the feminine corresponding to brother?—King?—Author?—Heir?—Hero?—Gentleman?—Landlord?—Mention two words which are masculine only.—Two which are feminine only.

OF PERSON.

What is person?—How many and what persons do nouns have?—What does the 1st person denote?—The 2d?—The 3d?

OF NUMBER.

178. What is number?—How many numbers are there?—What does each denote?—Give the general rule for forming the plural?—Give the 1st special rule?—Give examples of words that form their plural by it?—Repeat the 2d special rule?—Give examples of words that form their plural by it?—Repeat the 3d special rule?—Give examples of words that form their plural according to it?—Repeat the 4th special rule?—Give examples of words forming their plural by it?—Repeat the exceptions under each rule?—Mention some nouns that are irregular in the formation of the plural?—Mention some that have different significations, and a different plural for each?—How do compounds generally form the plural?—Give examples?—How are letters, numerical figures, &c. made plural?—How do words adopted from other languages form their plural?—Latin words in *um*, *is*, *a*, *us*?—Give examples?—

Greek words in a, is, on?—Give examples?—Give some nouns that are used in the plural only?—Some that are used in the singular only?—Some that are alike in both numbers?—Some that are either singular or plural?—Some plural in form, but singular in meaning?—How do proper names with Mrs. prefixed, or with any title preceded by two numerals, form the plural?—Give an example?—When several persons of the same name are spoken of individually, and distinguished by a particular appellation, how is the plural formed?—Give an example?

When persons of different names are spoken of together, and distinguished by a particular appellation, how is the plural formed?—In what case is usage unsettled?—Give examples of cases in which usage is unsettled, and state the different ways of forming the plural in such cases?—What rule do names with title prefixed follow?—Give an example?

OF CASE.

What is case?—Why so called?—What are the cases?—Which case denotes the *subject*?—Which the *object*?—Which denotes possession?—What does the object *we* follow? Give a sentence containing an example of each. Spell the possessive singular and plural of *friend*—of *dove*—of *eagle*. May there be more than one nominative to a verb?—May there be more than one objective after a verb or preposition? Give an example. For what is the independent case used?—Form a sentence with a nominative, a possessive, an objective, and an independent in it.

THE ADJECTIVE.

179. AN ADJECTIVE is a word used to *qualify* or *limit* the meaning of a noun; as, "A good boy;" "that box;" "ten dollars;" "we found him poor."

180. A noun is *qualified* or *limited* by an adjective, when the object named is thereby *described*, *limited*, or *distinguished* from other things of the same name. This is done two ways:—

1. Certain adjectives connect with their nouns some *quality* by which the objects named are described or distinguished from others of the same kind; as, "A red flag;" "an amusing story." Such are *qualifying* adjectives.
2. Others merely limit, without expressing any quality; as, "An American book;" "ten dollars;" "last week;" "this year;" "every day," &c. Such are *limiting* or *defining* adjectives.

181. Adjectives, as predicates, may qualify an infinitive, a pronoun, a clause of a sentence used as a substantive, &c.; as, "*To play is pleasant.*"—" *That the rich are happy* is not always true."

182. Several adjectives sometimes qualify the same noun; as, "A *smooth, round* stone."

183. An adjective is sometimes used to qualify the meaning of another adjective, the two forming a sort of compound adjective; as, "A *bright-red* color;" "a *dark-blue* coat;" "a *cast-iron* ball."

184. When other parts of speech are used to qualify or limit a noun or pronoun, they perform the part of an adjective, and should be parsed as such; thus,

Noun; as, A *gold* ring; *silver* cup, *sea* water, a *stone* bridge.

Pronouns; as, A *he* bear; a *she* wolf.

Adverbs; as, Is the child *well*? for *very* age; the *then* king.

Prepositions; as, The *above* remark; the *under* side.

185. On the contrary, adjectives without a substantive are sometimes used as nouns; as, "God rewards the *good*, and punishes the *bad*."—"The *virtuous* are the most *happy*." Adjectives used in this way are usually preceded by *the*, and when applied to persons, are for the most part considered plural.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

186. Adjectives are divided into various classes corresponding to the various ways in which they affect the meaning of the nouns to which they belong, and the manner in which they are used.

The most useful general classification is, perhaps, into the two following:—

187.—1. *Qualifying* or *descriptive*, including all adjectives used to express a *quality* or *property* of the noun.

188.—2. *Limiting* or *defining* adjectives, including all words joined to nouns to *define*, or in any way *limit*, their meaning.

189. Under the general head of *qualifying* or *descriptive* adjectives, may be classed:—

1. *Proper adjectives*,—Those derived from proper nouns; as *Canadian, British*.

2. *Verbal* or *participial*,—Those derived from verbs; as, *seeing, written, having seen*.

3. *Adverbial*,—Those expressing a quality resulting from the action of the verb and affecting the meaning of both the

subject and the predicate; as, "He painted the door *green*." "He rubbed the *silver* bright."

190. Under the general head of *limiting* or *defining* adjectives, may be classed:—

1. *Ordinal numeral*.—Those used in *numbering*; *first, second, third*.
2. *Cardinal numeral*.—Those used in *counting*; as, *one, two, three*.
3. *Indefinite numeral*.—Those which do not denote any exact number; such as, *all, any, some, few, other, several, certain, divers*.
4. *Multiplicative numerals*.—Those which indicate the repetition of the noun; as, *twofold, &c.*
5. *Distributive*.—Those which point out *separately* and singly the objects that make up a number; They are, *each, every, either, neither*.
6. *Demonstrative*.—Those that point out their nouns precisely to the exclusion of all others; They are, *this, these, that, those*, the words *former* and *latter*.—the indefinite article "a" or "an" usually limiting the noun to a class of things to the exclusion of all other classes,—the definite article "the" usually limiting the noun to a particular individual of the class to the exclusion of others,—the word *yon*, as, "*Yon* tall cliff;" *which, what*, before a noun; as, "*which* things are an allegory," "take *what* book you please."
7. *Interrogative*.—The words *which* and *what* joined to nouns in asking questions; as, "*what* book is that?" "*which* horse will you take?"
8. *Exclamatory*.—The word *what*, &c., joined to a noun in making an exclamation; as, "*what* misery they must endure!"

191. When any of the words here classed as adjectives, are not joined to nouns, but stand instead of nouns, they will, of course, be parsed not as adjectives but as *pronouns*.

192. Remarks on the limiting adjectives *a, an, the*, usually called the *article*.

193. *A* is used before a consonant; as, *a book*; also before a vowel or diphthong, which combines with its sound the power of initial *y*, or *w*; as, *a unit, a use, a eulogy, a ewe*, many *a one*.

194. *An* is used before a vowel or silent *h*; as, *an age, an*

hour; also before words beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, *an heroic* action, *an historical* account;—because *h* in such words is but slightly sounded.

195. NOTE.—The primary form of this article is *An* (*ane*.) The *n* has been dropped before a consonant, from regard to euphony.

196. *A* or *an* is sometimes used in the sense of *one, each, every*; as, “Six cents *a* pound;” “two shillings *a* yard;” “one dollar *a* day;” “four hundred *a* year.”

197. REMARK.—In the expressions *a hunting, a fishing, a going, a running, a building*, and the like; also, in the expressions, now nearly obsolete, “*a Wednesdays,*” “*a nights,*” “*a pieces,*” &c., *a* is equivalent to *at, to, in, on*, and is to be regarded, not as an article, but as a preposition (548). In the same sense, it is used as a prefix in such words as *afloat, ashore, asleep, abed*, &c.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

198. Adjectives which express qualities, that admit of degrees, have *three degrees of comparison*; the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

199. The *Positive* expresses a quality, simply without reference to other degrees of the same quality; as, “Gold is *heavy*.”

200. The *Comparative* expresses a quality in a higher degree in one object than in another, or in several taken together; as, “Gold is *heavier* than silver.” “He is *wiser* than his teachers.”

201. The *Superlative* expresses a quality in one object in the highest degree compared with several others; as, “Gold is the *most precious* of the metals.”

202. REMARK.—The superlative degree, when made by prefixing the adverb *most*, is often used to express a very high degree of a quality in an object, without directly comparing it with others; as, “He is a *most distinguished* man.” Thus used, it is called the

superlative of eminence, and commonly has *a* or *an* before it, if the noun is singular; and is without an article, if the noun is plural. The same thing is expressed by prefixing the adverb *very*, *exceedingly*, &c.; as, "a *very distinguished* man;" "*very distinguished* men." The superlative of comparison commonly has *the* before it.

RULES FOR COMPARISON.

203. RULE 1. Adjectives of one syllable form the comparative by adding *er* to the positive, and form the superlative by adding *est*; as, *sweet*, *sweeter*, *sweetest*.

Words ending in *e* mute, drop *e* before *er* and *est*; as *large*, *larger*, *largest* (68.)

204. RULE 2. Adjectives of more than one syllable, are commonly compared by prefixing *more* and *most* to the positive; as, *numerous*, *more numerous*, *most numerous*.

205. REMARK.—Though these rules indicate the prevailing usage, yet adjectives of two syllables are not unfrequently compared by *er* and *est*; as, "Our *tenderest* cares;" "The *commonest* materials," and some adjectives of one syllable, as, *wise*, *apt*, *fit*, &c., from regard to euphony or taste, are sometimes compared by *more* and *most*. Dissyllables in *le* and *y* are generally compared by *er* and *est*; as, *able*, *abler*, *ablest*. All adjectives in *y* after a consonant, change *y* into *i* before *er* and *est*; as, *dry*, *drier*, *driest*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; but *y* after a vowel is not changed; as, *gay*, *gayer*, *gayest*.

206. A lower degree of a quality in one object compared with another, and the lowest compared with several others, is expressed by prefixing *less* and *least* to the positive; as, *sweet*, *less sweet*, *least sweet*. This, by way of distinction, is sometimes called the comparison of diminution, or comparison descending.

207. The meaning of the positive is sometimes diminished without employing comparison, by annexing the syllable *ish*; as, *white*, *whitish*; *black*, *blackish*. These may be called diminutive adjectives. So also various shades, degrees, or modifications of quality are frequently expressed by connecting with the adjective such words as *rather*, *somewhat*, *slightly*, *a little*, *too*, *very*, *greatly*, &c., and, in the comparative and superlative, by such words as *much*, *far*, *altogether*, *by far*, &c.

208. Such adjectives as, *superior*, *inferior*, *exterior*, *interior*, &c.

though derived from Latin comparatives, and involving the idea of comparison, are not considered the comparative degree in English, any more than such words as *preferable*, *previous*, &c. They have neither the form nor the construction of the comparative.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

209. The following adjectives are compared irregularly, viz. :

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad, evil, or ill	worse	worst
Little	less (<i>sometimes</i> lesser)	least
Much or many	more	most
Late	later (<i>irregular</i> , latter)	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest or next
Far	farther	farthest
<i>Forth</i> (obsolete)	further	furthest
Fore	former	foremost or first
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest

210. *Much*, is applied to things weighed or measured; *many*, to things that are numbered; *more* and *most*, to both. *Farther* and *farthest* generally denote place or distance; as, "The *farther* they went, the more interesting was the scene;" *further* and *furthest* refer to quantity or addition; as, "I have nothing *further* to say." *Older* and *oldest* are applied to persons or things, and refer to age or duration; as, "Homer is an *older* poet than Virgil;" "The pyramids are *older* than the pantheon." *Elder* and *eldest* (from the obsolete *eld*) are applied only to persons of the same family, and denote priority of birth; as, "An *elder* brother." *Later* and *latest* have respect to time; *latter* and *last* to position or order.

211. Some superlatives are formed by annexing *most*, sometimes to the comparative, and sometimes to the word from which the comparative is formed; as, *upper*, *uppermost*, or *upmost* from *up*; *neither*, *nethermost*; *inner*, *innermost*, or *inmost*, from *in*; *hinder*, *hindermost*, or *hindmost*, from *hind*; *outer*, *outermost*, or *utmost*, from *out*.

ADJECTIVES NOT COMPARED.

212. Adjectives whose signification does

not admit of increase or diminution, can not properly be compared. These are—

1. *Numerals*; as, *one, two; third, fourth, &c.*
2. *Proper adjectives*; as, *English, American, Roman.*
3. *Adjectives that denote figure, shape, or material*; as, *circular, square, wooden, &c.*
4. *Such adjectives as denote posture or position*; as, *perpendicular, horizontal.*
5. *Definitives*; as, *each, every, all, some, &c.*
6. *Adjectives of an absolute or superlative signification*; as, *true, perfect, universal, chief, extreme, infinite, complete.*

213. REMARK.—Of these last, however, comparative and superlative forms are sometimes used, either to give greater force to the expression, or when the words are used in a sense not strictly absolute or superlative. The following are examples:

Extreme.—"The *extremest* of evils."—*Bacon*. "The *extremest* verge."—*Shaks*. "His *extremest* state."—*Spencer*. [So in Greek *ἑσχάτος*.]

Chief.—"Chiefest of the herdsmen."—*Bible*. "*Chiefest* courtier."—*Shaks*. "First and *chiefest*."—*Milton*.

Perfect.—"Having *more perfect* knowledge of that way," i.e., knowledge nearer to perfection.—*Bible*. So, "the *most perfect* society."—*E. Everett*. "*Less perfect* imitations."—*Macaulay*.

More complete, most complete, less complete, are common.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE ADJECTIVE.

Define the Adjective. Into what two general classes is the Adjective divided? What classes are given under the general head of Qualifying Adjectives? Give sentences containing an example of each kind. What classes are given under the general head of Limiting Adjectives? Give sentences containing an example of each. What adjectives do not admit of comparison? What is the general rule for comparing adjectives of one syllable? The rule for comparing adjectives of more than one syllable? What departure from these rules does usage allow us to make? How is a lower degree than the positive usually expressed? Is there any other method of varying the degree of quality expressed by the adjective? Compare good, bad, little, much, late, near, forth, fore, old. What distinction is made in the use of the following adjectives; viz, much, many; more, most; farther, furthest; further, furthest; older, oldest; elder, eldest; later, latest; latter, last? What classes of adjectives do not admit of comparison? What departures from this are authorized?

7TH EXERCISE.

In the following sentences parse the adjectives by mentioning first the *general*, then the *particular* class; then compare them; then the degree of comparison; then the noun to which they belong; thus, "*Some men are taller than others.*"

Some is a limiting adjective, indefinite numeral, and belongs to the noun *men*. *Taller* is a qualifying adjective; compared, tall, taller, tallest; comparative degree, and belongs to the noun *men*.

Milton and Cowper are poets of the highest rank. The greatest men are not always the best. A benevolent man helps the indigent. Each individual fills a space in creation. There are seven days in a week. The long grass of the American prairies sometimes catches fire. The distant mountain, seen through the blue mist, alone remained. Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing onward through life we go. Heaven opened wide her ever-during gates. Children just let loose from school. The first fleet contained three hundred men. Numbers are expressed by ten Arabic characters. Few young people like seclusion. I have some fine trees in the garden. He has a threefold duty to perform. He performed each part with the most consummate skill. Read this lecture four times. That book belongs to you, this belongs to me. The former lecture was the best. What time the year puts on her bloom thou flyest the vocal vale. Unto which promise our twelve tribes hope to come. Which road did he take. What man do you mean. What havoc thou hast made, foul monster, sin! He is never overbearing. This house is colder than yours. I saw her several times. The best fruits grow in warm countries. England expects every man to do his duty. Which of these large oranges will you have.

Go over this exercise again and point out the *Verb* and *Subject* in each sentence, and give the *construction** of all the other words, parsing the *nouns in full*, according to the form already given.

PRONOUNS.

214. A PRONOUN is a word used to supply

the place of a noun ; as, "*John* is a good boy ; *he* is diligent in *his* studies."

215. The noun for which a pronoun is used, is called its *antecedent*, because the pronoun refers to it as *previously mentioned*, or in some way understood.

216. Pronouns of the third person are used in writing and speaking, to prevent the frequent and awkward repetition of the noun. Thus, without the pronoun, the above example would read, "*John* is a good boy ; *John* is diligent in *John's* studies." A pronoun is sometimes used instead of another pronoun ; as, "*You* and *I* must attend to our duty."

217. Pronouns may be divided into *Personal*, *Relative*, *Interrogative*, and *Possessive*.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

218. *Personal Pronouns* are simple substitutes for the names of persons and things, having a distinct form for each person.

They are either *simple* or *compound*.

SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

219. The simple personal pronouns are *I*, *you*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it* ; with their plurals, *we*, *ye*, *you*, *they*.

220. Of these, *I* is of the first person, and denotes the *speaker* ; *you* is of the second, and denotes the *person spoken to* ; *he*, *she*, *it*, are of the third, and denote the person or thing *spoken of*.

221. The pronoun *I* denotes the speaker, and *you* the person addressed, without previous mention, or even knowledge of their names, the persons intended being sufficiently indicated by their presence, or some other circumstance. The pronouns of the third person refer to some person or thing previously mentioned, or easily understood from the context, or from the nature of the sentence.

222. *He*, *she*, *it*, and *they*, are frequently used as general terms in the beginning of a sentence, equivalent to "the person," &c., without reference to a noun going before ; as, "He [the person] that loveth pleasure shall be a poor man." "How far is it [the distance] to the city."

223. *They* is also used in a vague sense for "people," in such expressions as "They say," [like the French *on*, or the German *man*.]

224. The Accidents of personal pronouns, like nouns, are, *Gender, Person, Number, and Case*. They are thus declined:—

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
1. <i>M.</i> or <i>F.</i> I	my	me	We	our	us
2. <i>M.</i> or <i>F.</i> You*	your	you	You	your	you
3. { <i>Masc.</i> He	his	him	They	their	them
{ <i>Fem.</i> She	her	her	They	their	them
{ <i>Neut.</i> It	its	it	They	their	them

OBSERVATIONS ON PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

225. *You* was formerly used exclusively in the plural number, but it is now the singular pronoun, as well as the plural, it still, however, takes a plural verb. For further remarks, and the opinion of critics and grammarians on *you*, as the singular pronoun, [see Appendix.] "*Thou*" is now only used in the solemn style, and sometimes in poetry. "*Ye*" the plural of *you* is seldom used.

Thou is thus declined:—

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Obj.
Thou	thy or thine	thee	Ye or you	you or ye

226. There are three views taken by different grammarians, of the pronouns *mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs*; and, *my, thy, his, her, our, your, their*.

1st. That the long forms, *mine, thine, &c.*, are the *possessive cases* of the personal pronouns; and the short forms, *my, thy, &c.*, are possessive pronouns.

2nd. That neither of them are to be regarded as a distinct class of pronouns, both forms being the possessive cases of the personal pronouns, the short forms, *my, thy, &c.*, being used when the noun possessed is expressed in connection with them, and the long forms being used when the noun is omitted.

3rd. That the long forms, *mine, thine, &c.*, are a distinct class of pronouns, that is, possessive pronouns, used in the *nominative* or *objective* case, but *never* in the *possessive*; and, that the short forms *my, thy, &c.*, are simply the forms of the possessive cases of the personal pronouns.

The *first* of these views, though the one adopted by the author

of this grammar, is, we think, obviously incorrect, and farthest of all from the truth.

To the *second* view, there is much less ground of objection, but, in its practical application it is not satisfactory so far, at least, as the long forms, *mine*, *thine*, &c. are concerned; because these words, as used in construction, always represent a noun in the nominative or objective case, so that, if they do include the *possessor*, they certainly, also stand for, and include the thing possessed.

If we must choose which of the things represented by them, shall determine their character, surely their office as representing the thing *itself*, is of more importance in the construction of the sentence, than their office as possessive case, which is, *grammatically*, but a mere *appendage* to the thing possessed. As well, indeed, might you call your *house* a *door-plate*, because it *includes*, the door-plate which tells *whose* it is, as to call these words possessive cases, because while standing for the *thing itself*, they indicate the *possessor* of the thing. We, therefore, adopt the third view, as being *more simple*, and according better than either of the others, with the *facts* and *necessities* of the case. The reasons for this conclusion will be found more fully stated in the Appendix, to which the reader is referred—C. Ed.

227. The pronoun *it* is used in a variety of ways:—

1. Properly it is used instead of a neuter noun, or any thing used as a neuter noun; as, "*Life* is short; *it* should be well improved." "*James* is a good scholar, and he knows *it*."
2. It is used as an indefinite subject of the verb *to be*, followed by a predicate in any person or number; as, "*It* is *I*;" "*It* is *you*;" "*It* is *they*," &c.
3. It is used in the same manner after the verb *to be* in interrogative sentences; as, "Who is *it*?" "What is *it*?" &c.
4. It is prefixed as an introductory subject to such verb as *to be*, *to happen*, *to become*, and the like, referring to an infinitive mood, or substantive phrase, which follows the verb, and is its true subject; as, "*It* is an honor for a man *to cease from strife*;" i. e., To cease from strife is an honor for a man. "*It* has been proved, *that the earth revolves on its axis*;" i. e., *It*, namely, *that the earth revolves on its axis*, has been proved.
5. It is used indefinitely before certain verbs, to denote some cause unknown,—or general,—or well known, whose action is expressed by the verb; as, "*It* rains;" "*It* snows;" "*It* thunders;" "*It* is cold;" "*It* is hot," &c. Verbs before which *it* is thus used, are said to be impersonal.

6. It is sometimes used as a mere expletive; as, "Come and trip it as you go."

228. The possessives, *hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*, should never be written *her's, it's, our's, your's, their's*.

229. *His* and *its*, before a noun, are the possessive case; without a noun following, they are the possessive pronouns. *Her* before a noun, is the possessive case; without a noun, it is the objective case.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

230. *Myself (ourselves), yourself (thyself), himself, herself, itself*, with their plurals, *ourselves, yourselves, themselves*, are called *Compound personal pronouns*. They are used in two cases—the nominative and the objective. In the nominative they are emphatic, and are added to their respective personal pronouns, or are used instead of them; as, "I *myself* did it," "*Himself* shall come," In the objective they are *reflexive*, showing that the agent is also the object of his own act; "Judas went and hanged *himself*."

231. The simple pronouns, also, are sometimes used in a reflexive sense; as, "Thou hast hewed *thee* out a sepulchre, as he that hewed *him* out a sepulchre on high."—*Bible*.

232. *Ourselves* and *yourselves* are used as compounds, corresponding to *we* and *you*, applied to an individual; as, "We *ourselves* will follow."—*Shaks*. "You must do it *yourself*."

233. The possessive *emphatic* or *reflexive*, is made by adding the word *own* to the possessive cases *my, thy, his, her, &c.*; as, "God created man in *his own* image."

234. *One* is also used in combination with any, every, some, no, &c. as an indefinite personal pronoun; as, *any one, some one, no one, &c.*

235. The demonstrative adjectives, *this, that, &c.*, the indefinite adjectives, *some, any*; and the distributive adjectives, *either, neither*, and others are frequently used as *pronouns*; as, "*This* is the best." "*Some* were left." "I did not take *any*." "*All* must die," &c. When so used they should be parsed as *demonstrative, indefinite, distributive* pronouns, &c.

QUESTIONS ON THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

What is a pronoun?—What is the antecedent of a pronoun?—Into what classes are pronouns divided?—How do you define a personal pronoun?—Into what two classes are personal pronouns divided?—Repeat the simple personal pronouns?—For what purpose is I, thou, you, used?—Decline I, you, she?—Besides standing for a neuter noun, what may the pronoun *it* represent?—What are the compound personal pronouns?—How are they used;

Give examples showing how they are used?—How is a possessive rendered emphatic?

8TH EXERCISE.

Give, without hesitation, the objective singular of *I, he, she*. Objective plural of *thou, it, he*. Possessive singular of *I, we, you*. Give without hesitation, the person, number, and case, of *thou, I, us, me, she, they, her, you, them, its &c.*

Parse the pronouns in the following sentence: thus, "Mr. Fraser, you are my friend." *You*, is a personal pronoun, second, singular, to agree with its antecedent, "Mr. Fraser," and nominative to the verb "are." *My* is a personal pronoun, first, singular, to agree with its antecedent, the speaker, and possessive case, possessing the noun *friend*. Decline it. "Mine" (in the first sentence) is a possessive pronoun, objective case, to the verb *injured*.

John lost his own books and injured mine. The mountains themselves decay with years. We must not forget to improve ourselves. I hope you will come to see us soon. It is your own fault. He found the children, and brought them to their home. James says he is older than I; but I am taller than he.—That book is mine; take it and read it.—Let them do it themselves.—When you learn the lesson, come to me, and I will hear you say it.—They will go when we return.—Thou art the man.—Your knife is sharper than mine; lend it me, if you please, till I mend my pen.

Write sentences, each of which shall contain a pronoun in the nominative case—in the possessive case—in the objective case.

Go over this exercise again and *parse* as already directed, the *Nouns, Adjectives and Pronouns*, and give the construction of all the other words.

II. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

236. A *Relative Pronoun*, or, more properly, a *Conjunctive Pronoun*, is one which, in addition to being a substitute for the name of a person or thing, connects its clause with the antecedent which it is introduced to describe or modify; as, "The master *who* taught us"—"This is the person *whom* we met."

237. The antecedent of a relative may be a noun—a pronoun—an infinitive mood—a clause of a sentence—or any fact or thing implied in it; as, “A *king who* is just, makes his people happy;” “*He that* is wise, is wise for himself;” “He who reads all will not be able to *think*, without *which* it is impertinent to read; nor to *act*, without *which* it is impertinent to think;” “We are bound to *obey the Divine law, which* we cannot do without Divine aid;” “The man was said to be *innocent, which* he was not.”

238. The Relative Pronouns are *who, which, that*, and *what*. *That* and *what* are indeclinable, and used only in the nominative and objective.

Who is masculine or feminine, and *which* is masculine, feminine, or neuter. They are declined thus:—

Nom.	Who	Which
Poss.	Whose	Whose
Obj.	Whom	Which

239. *Who* is applied to persons only; as, “The boy *who* reads.”

240. *Which* is applied to inferior animals, and things without life; as, “The dog *which* barks”—“The book *which* was lost.”

241. The relative *which*, as in Latin, sometimes, for the sake of greater perspicuity, has its antecedent repeated after it; as, “I gave him a knife with an ivory handle, *which knife* he still has.” This construction, however, is inelegant, and should be avoided.

242. *Which* is applied also to nouns, expressing collections of persons, when the reference is to the collection, and not to the persons composing it; as, “The *committee which* met this morning decided it.”

243. *Which* has for its possessive *whose*; as, “A religion *whose* origin is Divine.” Instead of “*whose*,” however, the objective with *of* before it is more common; as, “A religion the origin *of which* is Divine.”

244. *That* is applied to both persons and things; as, "The *boy that* reads;" "The *dog that* barks;" "The *book that* was lost" (748).

245. *What* is applied to *things* only, and is used when the antecedent from its indefiniteness is necessarily omitted; as, "Take *what* you want."

246. *What*, as used in this example, is by many grammarians called a *Compound Relative*, equivalent to *thing which*, that is, including both the *antecedent* and the *relative*. There appears, however, to be no necessity for resorting to such an expedient to explain the use of "*what*." It appears to be used when the thing referred to is too indefinite to be named, and can only be introduced by using a clause describing it. The whole clause in that case represents a noun in its relation to the sentence with which it is connected, and should be treated as any other substantive clause, or noun sentence, as such clauses may properly be called. It might be asked, what is gained by calling "*what*" a compound relative standing for "*thing which*?" In the example "I hear *what* you say," the clause "*what you say*" is used as the direct objective of the verb *hear*; and in the sentence, "Who steals my purse steals trash," the whole sentence "who steals my purse" is nominative to the verb "steals." Is any "*thing*" more required by either *grammar*, *sense*, or *perspicuity*? Does not the same principle apply to such sentences as to the following: Let us consider (how much depends upon it); do you know (by whom that house was built); I discovered (who was neglecting his duty). In each of these sentences, the whole clause stands as the objective to the verb in the principal clause. To supply the word *thing* or any other word, would serve no other purpose than to impose upon the dependent clause the servile duty of describing the usurper of its own rightful position, instead of occupying the position itself. Why not, on the same principle of analysis, before parsing it, turn the sentence, "I do not know who it can be," into "I do not know the *person* who it can be."

247. The real question, with respect to "*what*," as thus used, is whether it should not be classed as an *Indefinite Relative*. It connects clauses as a relative, but has no reference to anything in the previous clause as its antecedent.—C. Ed.

248. The relative, *Who*, is sometimes used in the same manner as *What*, in the above example; as, "I do not know *who* stole your watch." *Which*, also, is sometimes used in a manner nearly similar; but, in such cases, may always be treated as an adjective; as, Take *which* you please.

249. "Ever" is sometimes added to *who*, *which*, and *what*, used in this manner to give them a more *comprehensive* and *indefinite* signification; as, "Think *whatever* you please." "*Whoever* thinks so does him great injustice." "*Soever*" is sometimes (though now rarely) used to render the meaning more distributive and emphatic; as, "*Whosoever* will, let him come," &c. *Whoso*, formerly used in the sense of *whoever*, or *whosoever*, is now obsolete.

250. In old writings, the antecedent word is sometimes expressed, either before or after the compound relative, for the sake of greater emphasis or precision; as, "Blessed is *he, whosoever* shall not be offended in me,"—*Eng. Bible*. "*Whosoever* will, let *him* take the water of life." This usage, however, is now nearly obsolete, except with the word *whatever*; as, "*Whatever* you do, let *it* be done well."

251. *What, whatever, whatsoever, whichever, or whichsoever*, are often used before substantives, as a sort of indefinite adjective; as, "*What* money we had was taken away." "*Whatever* course you take, act uprightly." When thus used, the noun is sometimes placed between *what, which, or whose*, and *soever*; as, "*What* course *soever*"—"Into *whose* house *soever* ye enter."

252. The office of the relative is twofold :

1. It is sometimes merely *additive* or *descriptive*, and connects its clause with the antecedent, for the purpose of further describing, without modifying it; thus used, it is a mere connective, nearly equivalent to *and* with a personal pronoun *he, she, it, &c.*; as, "Light is a body *which* moves with great celerity"—"Light is a body, *and it* moves with great celerity."

2. It is more commonly *restrictive*, and connects its clause with the antecedent, in order to modify or restrict its meaning. Thus used, the relative with its clause is equivalent to an adjective; as, "Every thing *which has life* is an animal"—"Every *living* thing is an animal." When used in this way, the relative can not be resolved into *and* with a personal pronoun, for we can not say, "Every thing is an animal, *and it* has life."

253. The relative *who* and *which* are used in both senses. "*That*" is used in restrictive, more commonly than in addition clauses.

254. In English, the relative must always be in the same sentence with its antecedent, and, if restrictive, in close connection with it. In Latin, the relative has often its antecedent in a preceding sentence, and connected with it by a conjunctive term. When this is the case, it should be rendered into English by a demonstrative, or personal pronoun. This difference of idiom should be carefully marked by classical students.

255. In such sentences as the following—"Shun such *as* are vicious"—"Send such *as* you have"—some grammarians consider the word *as* a relative: in the first example, as the nominative to *are*; and in the second, as the objective, governed by *have*. Others regard it, in all such sentences, as a conjunction, and the expressions as elliptical—to be supplied thus: "Shun such *as* [those who] are vicious."—"Send such *as* [those which] you have." It is of little importance which view is taken. If taken as a *relative*, the ellipsis is lost sight of, as in many other elliptical forms of expression, and the language taken just as it stands.

9TH EXERCISE.

Write on the blackboard or slate a list of nouns, arranged in a column on the left hand side, and write after each its proper relative; thus, "The *man—who*;" "The *bird—which*."

In the following sentences, parse the relatives in the following manner, and tell whether the clause in which they are found is *additive* or *restrictive*:—"The boy *who* studies *what* is useful will improve." "Who" is a relative pronoun used in a restrictive clause, third singular, to agree with its antecedent "*boy*," and nominative case to the verb "*studies*."—"What" is a relative pronoun, third, singular, to agree with an indefinite antecedent and nominative to the verb *is*—the whole clause being the objective to the verb *studies*.

A man who is generous will be honoured.—God, by whose kindness we live, whom we worship, who created all things, is eternal.—That is the book which I lost.—He who steals my purse, steals trash.—This is the boy whom we met.—This is the man that did it. These are the books that you bought.—The person who does no good, does harm.—The woman who was hurt, is well.—This is the cat, that killed the rat, that ate the malt, that lay in the house that Jack built.

Whoever steals my purse, steals trash.—Whoever does no good, does harm.—Whatever purifies the heart, fortifies it. Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye to them also.—Whoever sins, will suffer.

—I love whoever loves me.—Now whatsoever God hath said to thee, do.

3. In the following sentences, wherever it can be done, change the relative and antecedent for the compound relative:—

Bring with you every thing which you see.—Any one who told such a story, has been misinformed.—Any thing that is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.—Any thing that gives pain to others, deserves not the name of pleasure.—Every one who loves pleasure, will be a poor man.

4. Go over this exercise again and distinguish between the principal and dependent propositions, show how they are connected, and put the words in each in the order in which they occur.

III. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

256. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when used with verbs in asking questions, are called *Interrogative Pronouns*; as, “*Who* is there?”—“*Which* will you take?”—“*What* did he say?”

257. *Who* and *which* are declined like the relatives.

258. In questions, *who* is equivalent to *what person*; when *which* and *what* have a noun following, they are not pronouns but adjectives; as, “Which book will you take?”

259. *Who* applies to persons only; *which* and *what*, to persons or things.

260. As applied to persons, *who* inquires for the name; *which*, for the individual; *what*, for the character or occupation; as, *Who* wrote that book?—“Mr. Webster.”—“*Which* of them?”—“Noah Webster.”—“*What* is he?”—“A lexicographer.”

261. The same pronouns used responsively, in the beginning of a dependent clause, or in what is called the indirect question (i.e., in a way which, in an independent clause, would be a direct question), are properly neither *interrogatives* nor *relatives*, in the usual sense, but a sort of *indefinite* relative pronoun, and this is the view we would prefer to take, as we have already said of the words “*whichever*,” &c., usually called compound relatives. This will be best illustrated by an example:—

Interrogative.—“*Who* wrote that letter?”

Relative.—I know the person *who* wrote that letter ;" that is, I am acquainted with him.

Indefinite Relative.—"I know *who* wrote that letter;" that is, I know by whom that letter was written.

10th EXERCISE.

1. Point out in which of the following sentences, *who*, *which* and *what* are *relatives*; in which, *interrogatives*; and in which, *indefinite relatives*.

2. Parse the Interrogative Pronouns; thus,—"Who comes?" I know not *who*." "Who" is an interrogative pronoun, (here state the gender, person and number when known) and nominative to the verb "is."—"Who is an indefinite relative, nominative to the verb comes understood. The whole clause is the objective of the verb *know*."

Who steals my purse, steals trash.—To whom did you give that book?—What I do, thou knowest not now.—Who you are, what you are, or to whom you belong, no one knows.—What shall I do?—Who built that house?—Do you know by whom that house was built?—Is that the man who built that house? Which book is yours?—Do you know which book is yours? I saw a book which was said to be yours.—I know which book is yours.—What in me is dark, illumine.—What is crooked, can not be made straight.—What is wanting, can not be numbered.—What is wanted?—I know what is wanted.

2. Write sentences, each of which shall contain one of these pronouns in one or other of these different senses. Classify these sentences into principal and dependent, and give the construction of the words in each.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

262. The POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS are *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, when they include the possessor and the thing possessed; as, your pleasures are past, *mine* are to come.

The exercise on the personal pronouns already given included the Possessive Pronouns.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

What is a relative pronoun?—What words are used as relative pronouns?—Decline "who."—To what is *who* and *which* applied?—To what is *that* and *what* applied?—In the sentence "Take what you want," state what is the objective to the verb *take*.—What is the nominative to the verb *injures*, in the sentence, "Whoever deceives a friend, injures himself"?—What is the object of the verb *conceal* in the sentence "What he knows he will conceal"?—Why is it not necessary to make *what*, *whatever*, &c., represent both the antecedent and the relative?—What is suggested as the best name to call *what*, *whatever*, &c., when not used as simple relatives?—Is *who* ever used as an indefinite relative? Give an example.—What is the effect of *ever* attached to these pronouns? What is the force of *so* prefixed to the *ever*? Illustrate this by an example.—Is *what*, *whatever*, &c., ever used as adjectives? Give an example.—Give an example of a relative used in an additive clause.—Give an example of the relative used in a restrictive clause.—How do you distinguish the one from the other?—Give an example of *as* so used that it may be considered a relative.—Are *which*, and *what*, used in asking questions, always interrogative pronouns?—Give examples illustrating their use as interrogative pronouns and as interrogative adjectives.—In asking questions to what is *who*, *which*, and *what* applied?—As applied to persons, what does *who*, *which*, and *what* enquire for?—In the sentence "I know who wrote that letter," how would you parse *who*, and what would you say is the objective of the verb *know*?—In the sentence "Your pleasures are past, mine are to come," how would you parse *your* and *mine*?

THE VERB.

263. A VERB is a word used to make an *assertion*: or, a verb is a word used to *affirm* the *act*, *being*, or *state*, of its subject; as, "John *runs*." "The boy *sleeps*." "He *is loved*."

264. The essential and distinguishing characteristic of the *verb* is, that it is the word used to make an *assertion*; or, in other words to *affirm* the act, being, or state of the subject. It is not the distinguishing characteristic of the *verb*, that it expresses *action* or *being*. A word may express *action* or *being*, and not be a verb;

as, for instance, "I wish to work." "The boy's manner of *reading* is bad." "That horse *running* through the field is a fine animal." "Call that boy *sitting* by the window," &c. In these examples, "*to work*," "*reading*," and "*running*," express the action of "I," "boy's," "horse's," and "*sitting*," expresses the state of "boy;" but, they *are not verbs*; they are, it is true, words derived from verbs, but are merely used, the first two as *verbal nouns*, and the last two as *verbal adjectives*. A verb always either directly or indirectly makes an assertion, and must have a word standing as the name of the thing, about which the *assertion* is made; a *verbal* on the contrary, though expressing the action or state of something, and though it may govern an *objective*, or be modified by an *adverb*, as a verb may, yet, it *never makes an assertion*. It merely assumes the act or state, which, if used as a verb, it would *assert*, and always stands related to the other words as a noun, or as an adjective. The words used as *verbals*, are the *Infinitive* and *Participles*; between these *verbals*, and the verb the pupil must carefully *distinguish*.

265. The words "*assert*," and "*affirm*," as used in the definition, must be understood as applying to all kinds of sentences, whether *affirmative*—*I teach*; *negative*—*I do not teach*; *interrogative*—*do I teach?* *imperative*—*teach me*; or *exclamatory*—*how you teach!*

266. Verbs, in respect of the sense they express, are divided into two kinds—*Transitive* and *Intransitive*.

267. A *Transitive* verb is one which expresses an action that passes from the agent or doer, to some person or thing which stands as the object of the verb in the *Active Voice*, and the subject of the verb in the *Passive Voice*; as, "James *struck* William."—"William *was struck* by James."

268. It will be seen by the above example, that there are two ways of expressing the same idea, in the first, the doer of the act—"James"—stands as the subject of the Verb, and the person to whom the act is done—"William"—stands as the object of the Verb. When this form is used the Verb is in the *Active Voice*. In the second, the person to whom the act is done—"William"—stands as the subject of the Verb, and the person who does the act—"James"—stands connected with the Verb, as the object of the preposition "by." When this form is used the Verb is in the *Passive Voice*.

269. *Voice*, then, can only apply to tran-

sitive verbs, as it is merely a term used to distinguish between these two methods of expressing the same idea. In the *Active Voice*, the subject is represented as acting upon the object, and is, therefore, the agent; in the *Passive Voice*, the subject is represented as being acted upon by the agent.

270. The *Passive Voice*, it will be observed, is always expressed by using the perfect participle with the verb "*to be*," and hence, may always be distinguished from the *Active* by its form, as well, as by the sense expressed.

The following advantages arise from these two forms of expression:—

1. We can, by the *form* alone, direct attention, chiefly, either to the *actor*, or to that which is *acted upon*—to the former, by using the active voice—"God *created* the world,"—to the latter, by using the passive—"The world *was created* by God."

2. By means of the passive voice, we are able to state a fact, when we either do not know, or, for some reason, may not wish to state, by whom the act was done. Thus, we can say, "The glass is broken," though we do not know who broke it; or, if we know, do not wish to tell.

3. By this means, also, we have a variety, and of course, a choice of expression, and may, at pleasure, use that which to us appears the most perspicuous, convenient, or elegant.

271. Some transitive verbs, are sometimes used to express an action, as a quality inherent in the thing which stands to it, in the relative of the subject; but, which is properly neither the agent nor the object; as, "This sentence does not read well."—"The horse *drives* badly in harness." The meaning in such sentences, is neither *active* nor *passive*, but more properly what might be called *middle voice*. Sometimes, also, the *active form* of the verb is used to convey a *passive meaning*; as, for instance, "The house *is building*."—"The church *opens* at eleven o'clock."—"A house *to let*." Sometimes, also, the *passive form* is used to convey an *active meaning*; as, "Year after year it *is stolen* till all are *stolen*."

272. An *Intransitive Verb* is one which makes an assertion, without expressing action as *done to anything*; as, "The horse *lay* down."—"The boy *ran* across the field."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

What is a verb?—Why is it not sufficient to say, a verb is a word which signifies to *be*, to *do*, or to *suffer*?—Give examples of words in sentences, expressing being, doing, and suffering, which are not verbs?—State what these words are?—How do you understand the words *assert* and *affirm*, as used in the definition of the verb?—How will you distinguish between a verb and a verbal?—In respect of the nature of the action, into what classes do you divide verbs?—How do you define a transitive verb?—How many ways are there of presenting the agent or doer of an act expressed by a transitive verb?—Illustrate this by an example.—How many ways are there of presenting the thing to which the action expressed by a transitive verb is done?—Illustrate this by an example.—How is the agent and object presented in the *Active Voice*, and how in the *Passive Voice*?—Why cannot an intransitive verb be used in the *Passive Voice*?—What is always used with the verb, to *be*, to form the *Passive Voice*?—Give an example.—Give an example of a verb, used in a sense, which is properly neither *Active* nor *Passive*.—Give an example of a verb in the *Active form*, used in a *passive* sense.—Of the *passive form* used in an active sense

11th EXERCISE.

1. In the words expressing action, distinguish between verbs and verbals.
2. Distinguish between transitive and intransitive verbs.
3. State which of the transitive verbs are in the *Active Voice*, which in the *Passive*, and which have an active form, and passive meaning, and which have, properly, neither.

He struck me. We ought not to complain of our lot. They were seen by us. He sat by the wayside. I teach my sister music. The wine tastes sour. He wishes to do right. I have been offered a situation. Let our friends know. Romulus built Rome. Who read last? The sun is rising calm and bright. The serpent having devoured his prey, slept. He undertook to thwart me. I am happy to answer yes. Home is a place which must be loved by all.

Write a sentence containing a transitive verb, and an intransitive verb—a verb in the passive voice—a verb with an active form and passive meaning—a verb used in a sense neither active nor passive.

MODE.

273. Mode is a term used to denote the

manner in which the verb is employed.

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

275. The *indicative* mode is that which indicates or declares, or asks a question; as, *He can learn*; *Does he learn?* *Can he learn?*

276. The Indicative Mode has *two forms*; the *common form* and the *potential form*.†

277. The *common form* of the indicative mode is that which merely expresses a declaration or an interrogation; as, "*He improves*;"—" *Will you go?* "

278. The *potential form* of the indicative is that which expresses a declaration or asks a question, and also implies *possibility, liberty, power, determination, obligation, necessity*, etc.; as, "*He can walk*;"—" *We must return*;"—" *What would they have?* "

[In speaking of the common form of the indicative, it will generally be found convenient to employ merely the term *indicative mode*; and in speaking of the potential form, to designate it as the *potential indicative*.]

279. *Were* is sometimes used for *would be* or *should be*; as, "*Ah! what were man, should Heaven refuse to hear!* "

* The *Infinitive* and *Participle* are placed among the modes of the verb merely out of deference to custom. It must be understood, however, that they are *modes* of the verb in a *different sense* from the Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative: that is, only in the sense, that being derived from verbs, they possess many of the characteristics of the verb. But, what distinguishes them clearly from the verb is, that they are never used to make an assertion.

† The recognition of the potential as a distinctive mood in so many popular grammars, affords a striking example of the power of custom. The expressions, "*It may rain*," "*He may go*," "*I can ride*," &c., are manifestly declarative. "*I can walk*," expresses quite as distinct a declaration as, "*I walk*," "*I can walk*," declares that I have the power to walk; while, "*I walk*," declares the act of walking.

As to the potential mode, it may, I think, in all cases, be resolved into either the indicative or the subjunctive."—*Beattie's Theory of Language*.

"The forms of expression, *I can go*, *we may ride*, *he must obey*, are really declaratory, and properly belong to the indicative."—*Webster*.

The potential mode is also rejected by Jamieson, H. Ward, Martin, Coote, Cobbett, Lewis, Hazlitt, Hodgson, St. Quentin, Bell, Barrie, Buchanan, Coar, Trinder, Adam, Arnold, Higginson, Giles, Beall, Pearce, Ross, Nutting, J. P. Wilson, Willard, Hallock, Dearborn, J. Flint, D. Adams, Judson, Pue, Cardell, Cutler, Balch, French, Spencer, and many others.

280. *Had* is also occasionally employed for *would have* or *should have*; as, "Had thought been all, sweet speech *had* [*would have*] been denied."—*Young*.

281. The *subjunctive mood* is that which implies *condition, supposition, or uncertainty*; as, "If he *had* the opportunity, he would improve rapidly;"—"Take heed, lest any man *deceive* you."

282. Every verb in the subjunctive implies two propositions; the one *principal*, and the other *subordinate*: The subordinate clause is usually preceded by the conjunction *if*,—subjoining it to the antecedent, or principal clause, on which it depends. Thus, in the sentence, "I will remain if you desire it," the dependent clause, "you desire it," is preceded by the conjunction *if*, which subjoins it to the principal clause, "I will remain."

283. The condition of a verb in the subjunctive is sometimes expressed by transposition, without the aid of a conjunction; as, "*Had* he *taken* the counsel of friends, he would have been saved from ruin."

284. The subjunctive mode, like the indicative, admits of the potential form; as, "He might improve, if he *would make* the necessary effort."

285. The subjunctive mode does not differ in form from the indicative except occasionally in the *present tense*; and in the verb *to be*, in the *present* and *past*.

286. In parsing, that only should be called the subjunctive mode, which has the subjunctive form. When the indicative or potential is used subjunctively, it should be so stated.

287. The *Imperative* mode is that which is used to command, exhort, entreat or permit; as, "*Go* thou. "*Study* diligently." "*Forgive* us our trespasses." "*Depart* in peace."

288. The *Infinitive* mode is a verbal noun, usually distinguished by the sign "*to*," and expressing action or state, as a thing ab-

strictly considered ; as, " I love *to skate*." " *To attempt* it would be vain." " A desire *to learn* is praiseworthy.

289. The infinitive *active* by an anomaly not uncommon in other languages, is sometimes used in a *passive* sense ; as, " You are *to blame*" (to be blamed)—" A house *to let*"—" A road *to make*"—" Goods made *to sell*"—" Knives *to grind*," &c.

290. The *Participial* mode embraces those forms of the verb called *Participles*, when used as *verbal nouns* and *verbal adjectives* : as, " There is a boy *amusing* himself." " *Devoted* to study, he soon excelled." " On *seeing* me he fled." " There is glory in *dying* for one's country."

TENSE.

291. TENSES are certain forms of the verb, which serve to point out the distinctions of time ; or, more correctly, Tense is the change in the form of the verb to show *time* and *state*.

292. Time is naturally divided into the *past*, the *present*, and the *future*. The *past* includes all that goes before the present ; the *future* includes all that comes after the present ; and the *present*, strictly speaking, is the point in which the past and future meet, and which has, itself, no space or continuance. In grammar, however, the present is not regarded in this strict sense, but as extending to a greater or less period of which the passing instant forms a part ; as, this *moment*, *hour*, *day*, *week*, &c. In each of these, an act, &c., may be expressed, either as going on and *imperfect*, or as completed and *perfect*, and, hence, there are *six* Tenses, *three* to express *time simply*, and *three* to express both *time* and *state*. The simple tenses—that is, the *present*, *past*, and *future*, are used for the first, and express merely the *time* of the act ; the other three,—the *present-perfect*, *past-perfect*, and *future-perfect*, express both its *time* and *state*.

293. The *time* is shown by the auxiliary verb *have*. Thus, in the *present* perfect the *present* of "*have*" is used—in the *past* perfect, the

past of have—"had" is used, and in the *future perfect*, the future of have—"shall have" is used. The *state* is shown by the *perfect participle*. This arises from the fact that the two participles used in conjugating the verb have only one element of tense, viz., *state*; they are always *imperfect* or *perfect*, and hence these participles may be used in a sentence which denotes any time. Thus we see how admirably the *auxiliary* and the *perfect participle* are adapted to forming the *perfect tenses*.

294. The six tenses are:—

Present, "I walk"—time only.

Present-perfect, "I have walked"—time and state.

Past, "I walked"—time only.

Past-perfect, "I had walked"—time and state.

Future tense, "I shall walk"—time only.

Future-perfect, "I shall have walked"—both time and state.

295. Besides these six grammatical tenses, there are numerous other distinctions of time, which are expressed by various modifying words and phrases; as, "I will go *immediately*;"—"I will go *soon*;"—"I will go *in an hour*;"—"I will go *to-morrow*;"—"I will go *in the course of the week*."

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MODE.

296. The **PRESENT** tense expresses what is going on at the present time; as, "I love"—"I am loved."

297. This tense is used also to express what is *habitual*, or *always true*; as, "He goes to church"—"Virtue is its own reward"—"Vice produces misery."

298. It is used, in animated narration, to express past events with force and interest, as if they were present; as, "Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy."

299. It is used sometimes instead of the *present-perfect* tense, in speaking of authors long since dead, when reference is made to their works which still exist; as, "Moses tells us who were the descendants of Abraham"—"Virgil imitates Homer;" instead of "has told," "has imitated."

300. It is used in dependent clauses after such words as *when*, *before*, *if*, *as soon as*, *after*, *till*, and also after *relative pronouns*, to express the relative time of a future action, that is, of an action future at the time of speaking, but which will be present at the time referred to; as, "When he *comes*, he will be welcome"—"We shall get our letters as soon as the post *arrives*"—"He will kill every one [whom] he *meets*," &c.

"No longer mourn for me when I *am* dead."—*Shaks.*

301. The PRESENT-PERFECT tense represents an action or event as completed at the present time, or in a period of which the present forms a part; as, "I *have sold* my horse"—"I *have walked* six miles to-day"—"John *has been* busy this week"—"Many good books *have been published* this century."

302. The sign of the present-perfect is HAVE—inflected in the common style, *have*, *have*, *has*, and in the solemn style, *habe*, *hast*, *hath*.

303. In the use of this tense, it matters not how long ago the act referred to may have been performed, if it was in a period reaching to and embracing the present, or a part of which is not yet past; as, "Many discoveries in the arts *have been made* since the days of Bacon," that is, in the period reaching from that time to the present. On the other hand, if the time of an act mentioned is past, and does not include the present, this tense can not be used however near the time may be. Thus, we can not properly say, "I *have seen* your friend a moment ago;" but, "I *saw* your friend," &c.

304. This tense is used to express an act or state continued through a period of time reaching to the present; as, "He *has studied* grammar six months"—"He *has been* absent [now] six years."

305. It is used to express acts long since completed, when the reference is not to the act of finishing, but to the thing finished and still existing; as, "Cicero *has written* orations"—"Moses *has told* us many important facts in his writings"—"Of old thou *hast laid* the foundation of the earth, and the heavens are the work of thy hand." But if the thing completed does not now exist, or if the reference is to the act of finishing, and not to the present continuance of the thing finished, this tense can not be used; thus, we can not say, "Cicero *has written* poems," because no such pro-

ductions now remain. Nor, "In the beginning God *has created* the heavens," because reference is only to the act of God at a certain past time indicated by the words, "In the beginning."

306. It is used in the same manner as the present instead of the future-perfect, to represent an action, &c., as perfect at a future time; as, "The cock shall not crow till thou *hast denied* me thrice."

307. Sometimes this tense is used in effect to *deny* the present existence of that of which the verb expresses the completion; as, "I *have been* young" meaning, this is now finished—"I am young no more."

308. The PAST tense expresses what took place in *past time*; as, "In the beginning, God *created* the heavens."—"God *said*, Let there be light."—"The ship *sailed* when the mail *arrived*."

309. The time expressed by this tense is regarded as *entirely past*, and, however near to the present, it does not embrace it; as, "I *saw* your friend a moment ago"—"I *wrote* yesterday."

310. In such expressions as "I *wrote this morning*"—"this week"—"*this year*," &c., the reference is to a point of time now entirely past, in these yet unfinished periods.

311. This tense is used to express what *was customary* in past time; as, "She *attended* church regularly all her life."

312. The PAST-PERFECT tense represents an action or event as completed at or before a certain past time; as, "I *had walked* six miles that day"—"John *had been* busy that week"—"The ship *had sailed* when the mail arrived"—that is, the ship sailed *before* the mail arrived.

313. The sign of the past-perfect is HAD; inflected, had, had^d, had in the common style.

314. The FUTURE tense expresses what will take place in *future time*; as, "I *will see* you again, and your hearts *shall rejoice*."

315. The signs of the future are **SHALL, WILL.**

316. The **FUTURE-PERFECT** tense intimates that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time yet future; as, "I *shall have* got my lesson by ten o'clock"—"He *will have finished* before you are ready."

317. The signs of the future-perfect are **SHALL HAVE, WILL HAVE.**

TENSES OF THE POTENTIAL MODE.

318. The Potential mood has, properly, *six tenses*—the *Present*, the *Present-perfect*, the *Past*, the *Past-perfect*, the *Future*, and the *Future-perfect*.

319. The *Present* potential expresses *present liberty, power, or obligation.*

320. The signs of the *Present* are *may, can, must.*

321. The *Present-perfect*, in this mood, does not correspond in meaning to the same tense in the indicative, but more properly expresses *present possibility, liberty, necessity, &c.*, with respect to an act or state *supposed* to be past; thus, "He *may have written*," means, *It is possible* that he *wrote*, or *has written*; "He *must have written*," means, "It *must be* that he *wrote*, or *has written*."

322. The signs of the *Present-perfect* potential are, *may have,—can have,—must have.*

323. The *Past* potential is very indefinite with respect to time, being used to express *liberty, ability, purpose, or duty*, sometimes with regard to what is past, sometimes with regard to what is present, and sometimes with regard to what is future; thus—

Past—"He *could not do it then*, for he was otherwise engaged."

Present—"I *would do it* with pleasure *now*, if I *could*."

Future—"If he *would delay* his journey a few days, I *might [could, would, or should,] accompany him*."

824. The signs of the Past potential are, *might*, *could*, *would* *should*.

825. The *Past-perfect* potential, also, never corresponds in time to the past-perfect indicative; that is, it never represents an act, &c., as completed at a certain past time, but expresses the *liberty*, *ability*, *purpose*, or *duty*, with respect to the act or state expressed by the verb, as now past and completed thus, "He *could have* written," means, "He *was able to write*."

826. The signs of the *Future-perfect* potential are, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, *should have*.

827. The *Future* and *Future-perfect* conjugated affirmatively with "*will*" in the first person, and "*shall*" in the second and third, express a *promise*, *determination*, or *authority*; they are therefore properly *Potential*, and are here placed as tenses of the *Potential Mood*.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

328. The Subjunctive mood, in its proper form, has only the Present tense. The verb "*to be*" has the present and the past. The indicative mood used subjunctively furnishes what may be called a second form of the present subjunctive, and the only form of the other subjunctive tenses.

329. The *Present* subjunctive, in its proper form, according to present approved usage, has always a *future* reference; that is, it denotes a present uncertainty or contingency respecting a supposed *future* action or event; thus, "If he *write*," is equivalent to, "If he should write," or, "If he shall write."*

330. Uncertainty or contingency respecting a supposed *present* action or state, is expressed by the *present indicative* used subjunctively; as, "If he writes as well as he reads, he will succeed."

331. The *PRESENT-PERFECT* subjunctive is only the same tense of the indicative, used subjunctively. Such expressions as "If she *have brought* up children," &c. (1 *Tim.* v. 10), are now obsolete.

332. The *Past* subjunctive is used in two senses—

1. It is used to express a *past* action or state as conditional or contingent; as, "If he *wrote* that letter he deserves credit, and should be rewarded;" "If he *was* at home, I did not know it."

2. It expresses a supposition with respect to something *present*, and implies a denial of the thing supposed; as, "If I had the money now, I would pay it," implying, I have it not. Used in this way, the verb "*to be*" (and of course the passive voice of transitive verbs) has a separate form of the singular, but not in the plural, viz., I *were*, thou *wert*, he *were*; for I *was*, thou *wast*, he *was*; thus, "If my kingdom *were* of this world, then would my servants fight," implying, It is not of this world; "O that thou *wert* as my brother," implying, "thou art not."

333. In this way, the Past subjunctive seems to be always used when the conjunctive term is omitted, and the verb or auxiliary is placed before its nominative; as, "Hadst thou been here, my brother had not (would not have) died."

334. When a supposition, &c., respecting something *past*, is expressed in this way, the *Past-perfect* must be used; as, "If I *had had* the money yesterday, I would have paid it," implying, I had it not; "O that thou *hadst been* as my brother," implying, "thou wast not."

335. Though the past tense, used in this way, refers to a *present* act or state, yet, as it has the past form, it should, in parsing, be called the past tense.

TENSE OF THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.

336. The Imperative mood has only the present tense, and that has respect to the time of the *command*, *exhortation*, &c. The doing of the thing commanded, must, of course, be posterior to the command requiring it.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE MODE.

337. The Infinitive mode has two tenses, the *Present* and the *Perfect*;* as, "To write,"—"To have written."

338. In the other modes, the time expressed by the tenses, is estimated from the time of speaking, which is always regarded as present; as, "I wrote" (that is, in a time *now* past), "I write" (that is, in time *now* present), "I shall write" (that is, in time *now* future). But the infinitive represents the action or state expressed as *present*, not, however, always at the time of speaking, but at the time indicated by the preceding verb, or some other word in the sentence; as, "He wishes to write"—*now—to-morrow—next-week*, &c.; "He wished to write" *then* (viz., at the time of wishing, *now*

past)—*next day*—*this day*—*to-morrow*, &c.; "He will wish to write"—*then* (viz., at the time of wishing, *now* future)—*next day*, &c. Hence the following definitions:—

339. 1st. The *Present* infinitive expresses an act or state not completed,—indefinitely, or at an any time referred to, expressed or implied; as, "I wish to write"—"I wished to go"—"Apt to teach."

340. The sign of the present infinitive is, *to*.

341. 2d. After the verb *to be*, the present infinitive is sometimes used to express a future action or event; as, "He is to go;" "If he were to go."

342. The *Perfect* infinitive expresses an act or state as perfect or completed, at any time referred to, expressed or implied; as, "He is said to have written"—*already*—*yesterday*—*a year ago*, &c.

343. The sign of the perfect infinitive is, *to have*.

344. In the use of the infinitive it is necessary to observe, that the *Present* must never be used in circumstances which imply a *completed* act; nor the *Perfect* in circumstances which imply an act *not completed*. Thus, it is improper to say, "He is said to write yesterday," because the language leads to regard the act as finished, since it took place in past time. It should be, "*To have written* yesterday." Nor can we say, "I hoped—I desired—I intended, &c.—to have written yesterday," because an act regarded as perfect or finished, the doing of which, of course, is past, can not be the object of *hope*, *desire*, *intention*, &c. We should say, "I hoped to write yesterday."

345. The *Participial Mode* has two forms, one expresses an action or state as *uncompleted* or *imperfect*; as, *loving*. The other, expresses it as *completed* or *perfect*; as, *loved*.

The perfect participle, when not used with an *auxiliary*, and taken as part of the verb, has the construction of a verbal *adjective*; as, *viewed* in that light I assented to the *proposal*.

The *imperfect* participle when not used with an *auxiliary* and taken as part of the verb, has the construction of either a *verbal adjective*, or a *verbal noun*; as, "*He loving his work performed it.*" "*After defeating the army he entered the city.*"

The *perfect* participle of a transitive verb used with the auxiliary verb "*to be*," in all its moods and tenses forms the *passive voice*; and the perfect participle of any verb used with the simple tenses of the auxiliary "*have*" forms the perfect tenses of the active voice.

The imperfect participle used with the auxiliary verb "*to be*," forms the progressive of the active.

"*Having*,"—used with the perfect participle; as, "*having written*," expresses both *time* and *state*, and is properly a perfect *tense* of the participle.

The form of the *infinitive* is sometimes used as a future participle; as, "*In the time to come.*"

NUMBER AND PERSON.

346. 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.

347. The subject of the verb, in the first person singular, is always *I*, in the plural *we*; in the second person singular, *you* in the *common* style, and *thou* in the *solemn* style; in the plural, *you*

in the *common* style, and *ye* in the *solemn* style; in the third person the subject is the name of any person or thing spoken of, or a pronoun of the third person in its stead; or, it may be an infinitive mood, a clause of a sentence, or any thing of which a person can think or speak.

348. In the simple form of the present and past indicative, the second person singular of the *solemn* style ends regularly in *st* or *est*, as *Thou seest*, *Thou hearest*, *Thou sawest*, *Thou heardest*; and the third person singular of the present, in *th* or *eth*, as *He saith*, *He loveth*.

349. In the simple form of the present indicative, the third person singular of the *common* or *familiar* style, ends in *s* or *es*; as, *He sleeps*, *He rises*.

350. The first person singular of the *solemn* style, and the first and second persons singular of the *common* style, have the same form as the three persons plural.

351. In forming the auxiliary tenses of the verb, the auxiliaries only are varied.

352. *Be* and *ought*, and the auxiliaries *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, are irregular in their modifications to denote person.

353. The verb *need* is often used in the third person singular of the indicative present, without the personal termination.

354. In ordinary discourse, the imperative mood has only the second person, because a *command*, *exhortation*, &c., can be addressed only to the person or persons *spoken to*.

355. In such expressions as "*Let us love*,"—" *Let him love*,"—" *Let them love*,"—phrases by which the first and the third person of the imperative in some languages are rendered—*let* is the proper imperative, in the second person, with its subject understood, and *love* the infinitive without the sign. Thus, "*Let [you] us [to] love*, &c.

356. This mode of expression is sometimes used, even when no definite individual is addressed; as, "*Let there be light*."

357. Among the poets, however, we sometimes find a *first* and a *third* person in the imperative; as, "*Confide we* in ourselves alone"—"*With virtue be we armed*."—*Hunt's Tasso*. "*And rest we here*, Matilda said."—*Scott*.

"*Fall he* that must beneath his rival's arm,
And *live the rest* secure from future harm."—*Pope*.

"*Laugh those* that can, *weep those* that may."—*Scott*.

358. Such expressions as "*Hallowed be thy name*"—"Thy kingdom come"—"*Be it enacted*"—"So be it," &c., may be regarded either as examples of the *third* person in the imperative,

or as elliptical for "*May*," or, "*Let* thy name be hallowed"—"*Let* it be enacted"—"*Let* it be so," &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON MODE, TENSE, NUMBER, AND PERSON.

What is mode? How many modes have verbs? Define the indicative. How many forms has the indicative? Define each, and give a sentence with a verb in each. Define the subjunctive. Give an example illustrating how the subjunctive is employed. Give an example of a verb in the subjunctive without using the conjunction *if*. State in what respects the subjunctive agrees with the indicative, and in what it differs from it. Define the imperative mode. Give an example of a verb in the imperative mode. Define the infinitive mode. Give examples of the infinitive as a verbal noun. Give an example of the infinitive active used in a passive sense. How is the participial mode defined? What is tense? Explain how it is that, while there are only three natural divisions of time, there are six tenses. Explain how it is that the perfect tenses express both time and state. Use the verb *write* in the three tenses that express time only. Use the verb *know* in the three tenses that express time and state. What part of the verb *have* is used an auxiliary to form the present perfect tense—the past perfect—the future perfect? Are there any other methods of expressing distinctions of time than by the use of the tenses? Define the present tense. Give examples showing four different uses of the present tense not strictly in accordance with the definition. Define the present perfect. Take the verb "*go*" through the present perfect tense in the common and solemn styles. Give examples showing four different uses of this tense not strictly in accordance with the definition. Define the past tense. Take the verbs *see*, *lie*, *study*, through the past tense. What would you say of such expressions as "*I wrote this morning*." "*She attended church regularly all her life*?" Define the past perfect. Take the verb *walk*, *lie* and *see* through the past perfect, first in the common and then in the solemn style. Define the future tense. What verbs are used as the auxiliaries in forming the future? Give an example. Define the future perfect and give an example. Signs of the future perfect. What are the signs of the present potential? How does the present perfect potential differ in meaning from the same tense of the indicative? Signs of the present perfect potential. Take the verbs *walk*, *forgive* and *have* through the present and present perfect potential. Give examples showing how indefinite the past potential is with respect to time. Give the signs of the past potential. Point out the difference in the time expressed by the past perfect, indicative and the past perfect potential. Signs of the past perfect potential. In the future and future perfect potential, how is *shall* and *will* used; and what is the meaning expressed?

Give examples to show that the subjunctive has a potential form as well as the indicative. Does any tense of the subjunctive ever differ in form from the corresponding tense of the indicative? Under what circumstances does the present subjunctive differ in form from the present indicative? Give an example. In what two senses is the past subjunctive used? In which of these senses is it used when the conjunctive term is omitted? Give an example. How is it that the imperative mode has only one tense? In relation to what does the present infinitive express *present* time? Give examples to show the relation of time expressed by the perfect infinitive. In the use of the infinitive, what is it necessary to observe? Give examples of the present and perfect infinitive used correctly and incorrectly. Would it be more correct to say the participle has two tenses or two forms? Why? When not taken with an auxiliary, as part of the verb, how is each participle used in construction? Illustrate by examples. Where does the perfect participle occur, and for what purpose is it used in the active voice? Give examples. How is the perfect participle used in forming the passive voice? Give a synopsis of the verb *see* in the passive voice. How is the progressive of the active voice formed? Give a synopsis of the verb *write* in the progressive form. Give an example of the use of the perfect tense of the participle. Give an example of what is sometimes called the future participle. What determines the person and number of the verb? What is the subject of the verb in the first and second person singular and plural? Give examples. Take the verb *arise* through the present and past in the solemn style. In the tenses formed by auxiliaries, is the verb or the auxiliary varied?

NOTE.—These questions are, purposely, close to the text, they touch, however, upon nothing but what an advanced class should know. Questions that may be thought too minute may, at first, be passed over to be taken up at a subsequent revision.

CONJUGATION.

359. The CONJUGATION of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several *voices, moods, tenses, numbers and persons*.

360. Most verbs have two forms—the *Common* and the *Progressive*.

1. The *Common* form expresses the simple existence of the fact; as, "He *speaks*"—"She *writes*"—"They *talk*."

2. The *Progressive* form represents an action as begun, and in progress, but not completed. It is formed by annexing the *imperfect* principle to the verb "*to be*," through all its moods and tenses; as, "*I am writing*;"—" *I was writing, &c.*"

361. The *Progressive Form* of the passive voice is used, when used at all, only in the present and past of the Indicative and Subjunctive; thus, "It is being done." "It was being done." "*If it is being done.*" "If it was being done."

362 The *Common* and *Potential* forms of the *Indicative* in both the *active* and *passive voice*, may be conjugated in four different ways, namely,—*Affirmatively, Negatively, Interrogatively, and Interrogatively and Negatively*; thus:—

Affirmatively.

Negatively.

I love or I *do** love.

I do not love.

I am loved.

I am not loved.

Interrogatively.

Interrogat. & Negat.

Do I love.

Do I not love.

Am I loved.

Am I not loved, &c.

In the other modes it can only be *Conjugated, Affirmatively and Negatively.*

363. The *solemn style* will constitute another form of conjugating the verbs, that is, using *thou* for the second person singular, with the terminative "*st*," and "*th*" or "*eth*" instead of the common termination "*s*" in the third singular of the present indicative; thus,

I *love*—thou *lovest*—he *loveth*. We *love*—ye *love*—they *love*—I have loved—thou *hast* loved.—He *hath* loved.—We have loved. Ye have loved.—They have loved, &c.

364. The tenses of the verb, inflected without the auxiliary *have*, are called *SIMPLE* tenses; those inflected with the auxiliary *have*, placed before the perfect participle, are called *COMPOUND* tenses.

365. In the present and the past tense, when *st* will easily coalesce with the final consonant, it is added in the same syllable; as,

*Do is used as an auxiliary in the *present*, and *did* in the *past indicative* of the *affirmative* form to render the verb emphatic; as, I *do* love—I *did* love. The other tenses, and also the progressive form and passive voice are rendered emphatic, by placing emphasis on the *auxiliary*; as, "I *have* written." "I *am* writing." "The letter *is* written."

saidst, lovedst. But when it will not easily coalesce, or the verb ends in a vowel sound, *est* is commonly added, and forms another syllable; as *wishest, teachest, lovest, goest, drawest, sayest, vexest, bleesest, &c.*

366. In the present indicative, the endings of the third person singular, *s* and *es*, are subject to the rules for the plural number of nouns, as, *sits, reads, wishes, teaches, loves, goes, draws, carries, says, &c.*

In annexing the tense and personal endings to the verb, the Rules III., IV., and VII., for spelling words must be carefully observed.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

367. AUXILIARY (or helping) verbs are those by the help of which other verbs are inflected. They are, *do, be, have;—shall, will;—may, can, must.* Except *have* and *be*, they are all used only in the present and the past tense; thus:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Do,</i>	<i>shall,</i>	<i>will,</i>	<i>may,</i>	<i>can,</i>	<i>must.</i>
<i>Past.</i>	<i>Did,</i>	<i>should,</i>	<i>would,</i>	<i>might,</i>	<i>could,</i>	<i>—</i>

368. *Be, do,* and *have*, are also principal verbs. *Be* is used as an auxiliary in all its parts. *Have* in the present, past, and future.

369. In *affirmative* sentences, *shall*, in the first person, simply foretells; as, "I *shall* write." In the second and third persons, *shall* is used potentially, denoting a *promise, command, or determination*; as, "You *shall* be rewarded;"—"Thou *shalt* not kill;"—"He *shall* be punished." *Will*, in the first person, is used potentially, denoting a *promise or determination*; as, "I *will* go, at all hazards." In the second and third persons, *will* simply foretells; as, "You *will* soon be there;"—"He *will* expect you."

370. In *interrogative* sentences, *shall*, in the first person, may either be used potentially to inquire the will of the party addressed, as "Shall I bring you another book?" or it may simply ask whether a certain event will occur, as "Shall I arrive in time for the cars?" When *shall* is used interrogatively in the second person, it simply denotes, futurity; as, "Shall you be in New York next week?" *Shall*, employed interrogatively in the third person, has a poten-

tial signification, and is used to inquire the will of the party addressed; as, "*Shall* John order the carriage?" *Will*, used interrogatively in the second person, is potential in its signification; as, "*Will* you go?" *Will* may be used interrogatively in the third person, to denote mere futurity, as "*Will* the boat leave to-day?" or it may have a potential signification, inquiring the will of the party spoken of, as "*Will* he hazard his life for the safety of his friend?"

371. In the *subjunctive mood*, *shall*, in all the persons, denotes mere futurity; as, "If thy brother *shall* trespass against thee, go and tell him his fault." *Will*, on the contrary, is potential in its signification, having respect to the will of the agent or subject; as, "If he *will* strive to improve, he shall be duly rewarded."

372. The following conjugation of *shall* and *will* is inserted to give the pupil a more distinct idea of the proper use of these auxiliaries:—

SHALL AND WILL.

AFFIRMATIVE.

INDICATIVE.

Expressing *simple futurity*.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person, I shall	1. We shall
2d Person, You will	2. You will
3d Person, He will	3. They will

POTENTIAL INDICATIVE.

Expressing a *promise, command, authority, &c.*

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I will	1. We will
2. You shall	2. You shall
3. He shall	3. They shall

INTERROGATIVE.

INDICATIVE.

Simple futurity.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. Shall I?	1. Shall we?
2. Shall you?	2. Shall you?
3. Will he?	3. Will they?

1.
2.
3.

1.
2.
3.

1.
2.
3.

373. S
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1.
2.
3.

1. I sho
2. You s
3. He el

1. S
2. S
3. V

POTENTIAL INDICATIVE.

Enquiring the *will* of the *person* addressed.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Shall I? | 1. Shall we? |
| 2. Will you? | 2. Will you? |
| 3. Shall <i>or</i> will he? | 3. Shall <i>or</i> will they? |

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Simple futurity.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| 1. If I shall | 1. If we shall |
| 2. If you shall | 2. If you shall |
| 3. If he shall | 3. If they shall |

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

Referring to the *will* of the agent.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. If I will | 1. If we will |
| 2. If you will | 2. If you will |
| 3. If he will | 3. If they will |

373. *Should*, the past tense of *shall*, and *would*, the past tense of *will*, may be used with a *simple indicative* as well as a *potential* signification; thus,

Should and Would.

AFFIRMATIVE.

SIMPLE INDICATIVE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| 1. I should | 1. We should |
| 2. You would | 2. You would |
| 3. He would | 3. They would |

POTENTIAL INDICATIVE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I should <i>or</i> would | 1. We should <i>or</i> would |
| 2. You should <i>or</i> would | 2. You should <i>or</i> would |
| 3. He should <i>or</i> would | 3. They should <i>or</i> would |

INTERROGATIVE.

SIMPLE INDICATIVE

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------|----------------|
| 1. Should I? | 1. Should we? |
| 2. Should you? | 2. Should you? |
| 3. Would he? | 3. Would they? |

POTENTIAL INDICATIVE.

Singular.

1. Should *or* would I ?
2. Should *or* would you ?
3. Should *or* would he ?

Plural.

1. Should *or* would we ?
2. Should *or* would you ?
3. Should *or* would they ?

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SIMPLE SUBJUNCTIVE.

Singular.

1. If I should
2. If you should
3. If he should

Plural.

1. If we should
2. If you should
3. If they should

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

Singular.

1. If I would
2. If you would
3. If he would

Plural.

1. If we would
2. If you would
3. If they would

§74. In the *solemn* style, *thou*, with the termination *st*, would be used instead of *you*, in the second person singular. *Will*, used as a principal verb, is conjugated regularly.

Correct Examples.

"Yes, my son, I *will* point out the way, and my soul *shall* guide yours in the ascent; for we *will* take our flight together."—*Goldsmith*. "The life of a solitary man *will* certainly be miserable, but not certainly devout."—*Johnson*. "The man who feels himself ignorant, *should* at least be modest."—*Ibid*. "He that *would* be superior to external influences, must first become superior to his own passions."—*Ibid*. "Rome shall perish—write that word," &c.—*Cowper*.

"By oppressions woes and pains!
By your sons in servile chains!
We *will* drain our dearest veins;
But, they *shall* be free!"

Burns

Incorrect Examples.

"What we conceive clearly, and feel strongly, we will naturally express with clearness and strength."—*Blair*. "A limb shall swing upon its hinge, or play in its socket, many hundred times in an hour, for sixty years together, without diminution of its agility."

course of lectures shall close." "Ye shall know them by their fruit."—*R——Bible*. Now, in an enquiry into the credibility of history, the first question which we will consider is, &c."—*Arnold*.

12th EXERCISE.

1. In the following sentences, which simply foretell, and which express *determination, command, &c.* :

You shall hear me.—You will hear me.—I shall go to church soon. I will defy him. He will understand me. Thomas will obey me.—They shall hear from us again.—Our friends will soon hear from us again.

2. Correct the errors in the following sentences, and give a reason for the correction :—

I will be a loser by that bargain.—I will be drowned and nobody shall help me.—I will be punished if I do wrong.—You shall be punished if you do not reform.—It will probably rain to-morrow.—If you shall come I shall come also.—I will be compelled to go home.—I am resolved that I shall do my duty.—I promised that if you would come home, I should pay you a visit.—I hope that I will see him.—You promised that you should write me soon.—He shall come of his own accord, if encouragement will be given.

3. In the following, tell which expressions are right, and which are wrong, and why :—

It is thought he shall come.—It will be impossible to get ready in time.—Ye will not come to me.—Ye shall have your reward.—They should not do as they ought.—We are resolved that we will do our duty.—They are resolved that they should do their duty.—I am determined that you will do your duty.—I am sure you will do your duty.

MAY, CAN, MUST—MIGHT, COULD—TO BE.

375. *May* denotes present liberty or permission ; *can*, present ability ; and *must*, present obligation or necessity. They are used as auxiliaries in the present potential, to express these ideas.

376. *May* sometimes denotes mere possibility, as "It may

378. *Can*, in poetry, is sometimes used by euphony for *canst*; as, "Thou trees and stones *can* teach."—*Davies*.

379. *Might* and *could* express, in past time, the same ideas generally that are expressed by *may* and *can* in the present. They are used as auxiliaries in the past potential.

380. *Might*, before the subject, is also used to express a wish; as, "*Might* it but turn out to be no worse than this!"

381. Sometimes, in the English Bible, *might* is used for *may*; as, "These things I say, that ye *might* be saved."—*John* v. 34.

382. Combined with *have*, these form a new series of compound auxiliaries; thus, *shall have* and *will have* are auxiliaries of the future-perfect indicative; *may have*, *can have*, and *must have*, of the present-perfect potential; and *might have*, &c., of the past-perfect potential.

383. But though *may* denotes present liberty, *may have* does not denote *past liberty*, but only the present *possibility*; thus, "He *may have* written," means, It is possible that he has written. So also, *must have* does not denote past necessity, but present certainty; thus, "He *must have* written," means, There is no doubt he has written; it can not be otherwise.

384. The verb "*to be*" in all its moods and tenses, is used as an auxiliary in forming the passive voice; as, "*I am* loved;" "*He was* loved," &c. Also, in the progressive form of the active voice; as, "*I am* writing;" "*He was* writing," &c.

385. All these auxiliaries are sometimes used without their verb, to express, by ellipsis, the same thing as the full form of the verb, together with its adjuncts, when that is used immediately before, either in the same or in a different tense; thus, "He writes poetry as well as I *do*;" "I can write as well as he *can*;" "If you can not write, I *will*;" "He will do that as well as I *can*;" "James can get his lesson as well as ever I *could*;" "He envies me as much as I *do* him."

386. The verb *do* (not auxiliary) is sometimes used as the substitute of another verb or phrase previously used; as, "We have not yet found them all, nor ever *shall do*."—*Milton*. "Lucretius wrote on the nature of things in Latin, as Empedocles *had* already done in Greek."—*Acton*.

ANOMALOUS USAGE.

387. Several of these auxiliaries are sometimes used in a way which it is difficult to explain in a satisfactory manner, and which may justly be regarded as *anomalous*. The following are a few of these:—

388. *Had* is sometimes used in poetry for *would*; as, "*I had* rather," "*I had* as lief," for, "*I would* rather," "*I would*

as lief." Sometimes it is used for *would have*; as, "My fortune *had* [would have] been his."—*Dryden*. Sometimes for *might*; as, "Some men *had* [might] as well be schoolboys, as schoolmasters."

389. *Will* is sometimes used to express what is customary at the present time; as, "He *will* sometimes sit whole hours in the shade;" "He *will* read from morning till night."
390. *Would*, in like manner, is sometimes used to express what was customary in past time; as, "The old man *would* shake his years away;" "He'd sit him down."
391. *Would* is sometimes used as a principle verb, equivalent to the present of *wish* or *desire*; as, "When I make a feast, *I would* my guests should praise it—not the cooks."—"When I *would* [when I wish to] do good, evil is present with me." Thus used, the subject in the first person is sometimes omitted; as, "*Would* God it were even,"—"I pray God;" "*Would* to God,"—"I pray to God."
392. *Would*, with a negative, used in this way, is not merely negative of a wish or desire, but implies strong opposition or refusal; as, "How often would I have gathered thy children—but ye *would* not;" "Ye *would* none of my reproof."
393. *Should* is used in all persons to denote *present duty*, and *should have*, to denote *past duty*; as, "You *should* write;" "I *should have* written;" "The rich *should* remember the poor." It often denotes merely a supposed future event; as, "If he *should* promise, he will perform." It is sometimes used in an indefinite sense after *that*; as, "It is surprising that you *should* say so."
394. *Should* and *would* are sometimes used to express an assertion in a softened manner; thus, instead of saying, "I think him insane"—"It seems to be improper," it is milder to say, "I *should* think him insane"—"It *would* seem to be improper."

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

395. The *principal parts* of a verb are the *present tense*, the *past tense*, and the *perfect participle*. They are called the principal or radical parts, because all the other parts are formed from them. Thus:—

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
<i>Regular</i>	Love,	loved,	loved.
<i>Irregular</i>	Write,	wrote,	written

INFLECTION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB "TO BE."

396. The irregular and intransitive verb "*to be*," is used as a principal verb; and also, as an auxiliary in the passive voice, and in the progressive form of the active voice. It is thus inflected through all its moods and tenses:—

PARTICIPIAL PARTS.

<i>Pres., Am.</i>	<i>Past, Was.</i>	<i>Perf. participle, Been.</i>
-------------------	-------------------	--------------------------------

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Pers. I am	1. We are
2d Pers. { You are (com. style.)	2. { You are (com. style.)
Thou art (solm. style.)	Ye are (solm. style.)
3d Pers. He is	3. They are

397. The *solemn* style is given in connection with the common style all through the verb "*to be*." This will be sufficient to show its form in every verb.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was	1. We were
2. { You were (com. style.)	2. { You were (com. style.)
{ Thou wast (solm. style.)	{ Ye were (solm. style.)
3. He was	3. They were

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall be	1. We shall be

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I have been | 1. We have been |
| 2. { You have been | 2. { You have been |
| Thou hast been | Ye have been |
| 3. He has been | 3. They have been |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I had been | 1. We had been |
| 2. { You had been | 2. { You had been |
| Thou hadst been | Ye had been |
| 3. He had been | 3. They had been |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been | 1. We shall have been |
| 2. { You will have been | 2. { You will have been |
| Thou wilt have been | Ye will have been |
| 3. He will have been | 3. They will have been |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.—*Subjunctive Form.**

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------|----------------|
| 1. If I be | 1. If we be |
| 2. { If you be | 2. { If you be |
| If thou be | If ye be |
| 3. If he be | 3. If they be |

HYPOTHETICAL FORM.†

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. If I were ; or, were I | 1. If we were ; or, were we |
| 2. { If you were ; or, were you | 2. { If you were ; or, were you |
| If thou wert ; or, wert thou | If ye were ; or, were ye |
| 3. If he were ; or, were he | 3. If they were ; or, were they |

* This form is used only when both contingency and futurity are implied ; as, "If he study, he will improve."

†398. This form of the verb *to be* is commonly used, in the subjunctive mode, to express a supposition or hypothesis. When employed in a negative sentence, it implies an affirmation ; as, "If it were not so, I would have told you."

399. The past subjunctive of other verbs is often employed in a similar manner; as, "I would walk out, if it *did* not rain;"—"If I *had* the power, I would assist you cheerfully."

The SUBJUNCTIVE MODE in its ORDINARY FORM is the same, except in the use of *shall* and *will*, as the Indicative; as follows:

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1.	If I am	1.	If we are
2.	{ If you are If thou art	2.	{ If you are If ye are
3.		3.	
	If he is		If they are

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1.	If I was	1.	If we were
2.	{ If you were If thou wast	2.	{ If you were If ye were
3.		3.	
	If he was		If they were

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1.	If I shall be	1.	If we shall be
2.	{ If you shall be If thou shalt be	2.	{ If you have been If ye have been
3.		3.	
	If he shall be		If they shall be

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1.	If I have been	1.	If we have been
2.	{ If you have been If thou hast been	2.	{ If you have been If ye have been
3.		3.	
	If he has been		If they have been

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1.	If I had been	1.	If we had been

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I shall have been
2. { If you shall have been
If thou shalt have been
3. If he shall have been

Plural.

1. If we shall have been
2. { If you shall have been
If ye shall have been
3. If they shall have been

● 400. The potential form of the subjunctive mode, is the same in all the tenses except the future, as the potential form of the indicative, *shall* being used in all the persons in the simple subjunction, and *will* in all the persons in the potential subjunctive. See the conjugation of *shall* and *will*.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be

Perfect, To have been

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular, Be, or { Be you
Be thou

Plural, Be, or { Be you
Be ye

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being

Perfect, Been

Perfect tense, Having been

Synopsis of the verb To Be.

INDICATIVE.

Present, I am

Present perfect, I have been

Past, I was

Past perfect, I had been

Future, I shall be

Future perfect, I shall have been

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present tense, Subjunctive Form, If I be

Hypothetical form, If I were,

Ordinary Form,

Present tense,

If I am

Past tense,

If I was



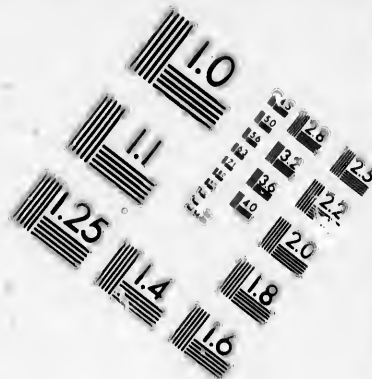
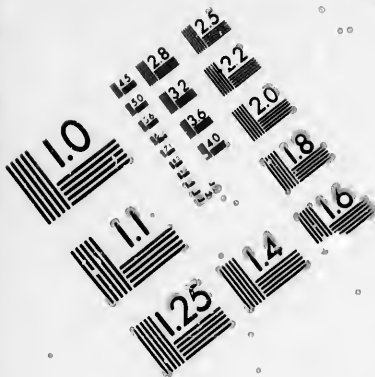
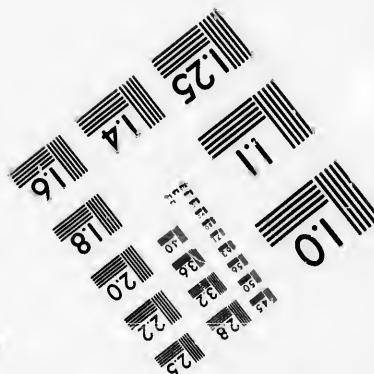
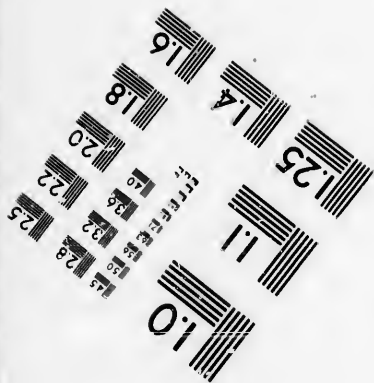
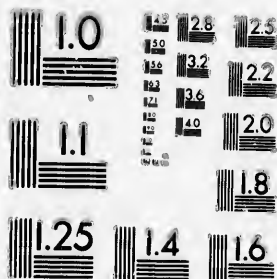


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INFINITIVE.

Present, To be *Present perfect*, To have been

IMPERATIVE.

Present, Be, or Be you or thou

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being *Perfect*, Been
Having been.

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB *TO LOVE*,
IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, Love *Past*, Loved *Perf. part.*, Loved

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I love	1. We love
2. You love	2. You love
3. He loves	3. They love

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I loved	1. We loved
2. You loved	2. You loved
3. He loved	3. They loved

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall love	1. We shall love
2. You will love	2. You will love
3. He will love	3. They will love

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have loved	1. We have loved
2. You have loved	2. You have loved
3. He has loved	3. They have loved

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had loved
2. You had loved
3. He had loved

Plural,

1. We had loved
2. You had loved
3. They had loved

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall have loved
2. You will have loved
3. He will have loved

Plural.

1. We shall have loved
2. You will have loved
3. They will have loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

The subjunctive is the *same* throughout as the *indicative*, but when both contingency and futurity are implied, the present tense is thus declined :

Singular.

1. If I love
2. If you love
3. If he love

Plural.

1. If we love
2. If you love
3. If they love

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To love

Present perfect, To have loved

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular, Love, or Love you

Plural, Love, or Love you

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Loving

Perfect, Loved

Perfect tense, Having loved

Synopsis of To Love.

INDICATIVE.

Present, I love

Present perfect, I have loved

Past, I loved

Past perfect, I had loved

Future, I shall love

Future Perfect, I shall have loved

INFINITIVE.

Present, To love

Perfect, To have loved

IMPERATIVE.

Present, Love, or love you.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Loving

Perfect, Loved

Perfect tense, Having loved

401. In the solemn style, the Verb would take *thou* instead

of you in the second person singular with the termination "*st*" for the verb, and "*eth*" for the third singular termination of the verb; and *ye* instead of you for the second plural; thus:—I love; Thou lovest; He loveth; We love; Ye love; They love, &c.

402. The passive voice is formed by conjugating the verb *to be* through all its moods and tenses, numbers and persons, with the *perfect participle* of a transitive verb; thus:—

PASSIVE VOICE OF THE VERB TO LOVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

I am loved
You are loved
He is loved

We are loved
You are loved
They are loved

Present Perfect, I have been loved, &c.

Past, I was loved, &c.

Past Perfect, I had been loved, &c.

Future, I shall be loved, &c.

Future Perfect, I shall have been loved, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To be loved

Present Perfect, To have been loved

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular, Be loved; or, Be you loved
Plural, Be loved; or, Be you loved

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect, Loved,

Perfect Tense, Having been loved.

PROGRESSIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

403. Conjugating the verb *to be* through all its modes, tenses, numbers and persons,

with the *Imperfect Participle*, constitutes the *Progressive Form* of the verb ; thus :—

Present, I am writing, &c.

Present Perfect, I have been writing, &c.

Past, I was writing, &c.

Past Perfect, I had been writing, &c.

Future, I shall be writing

Future Perfect, I shall have been writing

Imperfect Participle, Being loved.

404. SYNOPSIS OF THE IRREGULAR VERB *TO SEE*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, See. *Past*, Saw. *Perfect Participle*, Seen.

INDICATIVE.

Present, I see

Present Perfect, I have seen

Past, I saw

Past Perfect, I had seen

Future, I shall see

Future Perfect, I shall have seen

INFINITIVE.

Present, To see

Present Perfect, To have seen

IMPERATIVE.

Present, See ; or, See thou or you

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Seeing

Perfect, Seen

EMPHATIC FORM.

405. Synopsis of *To HEAR*.

INDICATIVE.

Present, I do hear

Past, I did hear

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present, If I do hear

Past, If I did hear

IMPERATIVE.

Present, Do hear ; or, Do thou or you hear.

NOTE.—*Do*, as a principal verb, is conjugated like other irregular verbs.

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

406. In interrogative sentences, when the verb has no auxiliary, the nominative is placed after the verb ; when one auxiliary is used, the nominative is placed between the auxiliary and the principal verb ; and when more auxiliaries than one are employed, the nominative is placed after the first.

407. SYNOPSIS OF *TO HAVE*, USED INTERROGATIVELY.

INDICATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> Have I; or, Do I have?	<i>Pres. perf.</i> Have I had?
<i>Past.</i> Had I; or, Did I have?	<i>Past perf.</i> Had I had?
<i>Fut.</i> Shall I have?	<i>Fut. perf.</i> Shall I have had?

NEGATIVE FORM.

408. A verb is conjugated negatively by introducing the adverb *not* in connection with it; as, I know *not*, or, I do not know; I did *not* know; I shall *not* know; I have *not* known; I had *not* known; I shall *not* have known, &c.

409. Care must be taken not to confound the parts of one verb with the parts of another. There is special danger of this with some verbs which are similar in sound and sense. The intransitive verb *lie*, to recline, is sometimes confounded with the transitive verb *lay*; and the intransitive verb *sit* with the transitive verb *set*. The parts are correctly used, thus:—

THE INTRANSITIVE, LIE.

Principal parts, *Lie, lay, lain*.

<i>Present,</i>	I <i>lie</i>
<i>Past,</i>	I <i>lay</i>
<i>Future,</i>	I shall <i>lie</i>
<i>Pres. perf.</i>	I have <i>lain</i>
<i>Past perf.</i>	I had <i>lain</i>
<i>Fut. perf.</i>	I shall have <i>lain</i>

THE TRANSITIVE, LAY.

Principal parts, *Lay, laid, laid*.

	I <i>lay</i>
	I <i>laid</i>
	I shall <i>lay</i>
	I have <i>laid</i>
	I had <i>laid</i>
	I shall have <i>laid</i>

THE INTRANSITIVE, SIT.

Principal parts, *Sit, sat, sat*.

<i>Present,</i>	I <i>sit</i>
<i>Past,</i>	I <i>sat</i>
<i>Future,</i>	I shall <i>sit</i>
<i>Pres. perf.</i>	I have <i>sat</i>
<i>Past perf.</i>	I had <i>sat</i>
<i>Fut. perf.</i>	I shall have <i>sat</i>

THE TRANSITIVE, SET.

Principal parts, *Set, set, set*.

<i>Present,</i>	I <i>set</i>
<i>Past,</i>	I <i>set</i>
<i>Future,</i>	I shall <i>set</i>
<i>Pres. perf.</i>	I have <i>set</i>
<i>Past perf.</i>	I had <i>set</i>
<i>Fut. perf.</i>	I shall have <i>set</i>

410. It is quite unnecessary to occupy more space in conjugating verbs. If the conjugation of one verb is understood, the conjugation of every verb is understood. The only verb really *irregular* in its conjugation is the verb *to be*. The other verbs called *irregular* are only irregular in not forming their *past tense* and *perfect participle* by adding *ed* to the present. The thing to be

specially observed in conjugating and using *irregular verbs* is that the *form* for the *past tense* must be used only in the *past tense* of the *Indicative* and *Subjunctive* of the *Active Voice*; and the *form* for the PERFECT PARTICIPLE must be used with the verb *to be* in forming every part of the *Passive Voice*, and with the proper auxiliaries in forming all PERFECT TENSES in every mode of the *Active Voice*, and nowhere else.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

411. A DEFECTIVE verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting. The following list comprises the most important. They are irregular, and chiefly auxiliary:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
Can	could	Shall	should
May	might	Will	would
Must	—	Wis	wist
Ought	—	Wit, }	
Quoth	quoth	Wot, }	wot

Imperative—Beware

412. *Ought*, originally the past tense of *owe*, is now used to signify present duty; and *must* to denote present obligation or necessity. When they refer to past time, a change is made in the infinitive with which they are joined; thus, *Present*—"These things ye ought to do;" *Past*—"These things ye ought to have done."

413. *Will*, as an auxiliary, has *wilt*, and *shall* has *shalt*, in the second person singular, *solemn style*. They are both without inflection in the third person. *Will*, as a principal verb, is regular.

414. *Wis*, *wist*, which signifies *to know*, *to imagine*, is now obsolete. *Wit*, of the same meaning and origin, is now used only in the infinitive, in the phrase, "*to wit*," that is, "namely."

415. *Beware* (properly *be* and *ware*, or *wary*) is now used only in the imperative, and sometimes after an auxiliary; as, "*Beware of him*"—"We should *beware*."

416. *Quoth*, *to say*, *to speak*, is used only in ludicrous language; its nominative always comes after the verb, and it has no variation for person, number, or tense; as, "*Quoth he*"—"Quoth they," &c.

DIAGRAM intended as a Form to be filled out by the Class, and to be used in conducting Examinations on the VERB.

VERB.

TENSES.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PASSIVE VOICE.

ORDINARY FORM.
Affirm'y or Neg'y or
Interrog'y, or Inter-
rog'y and Neg'y, or
Emphatically.

PROGRESSIVE FORM.
Affirm'y or Nega-
tively or Interrog'y
or Interrogative and
Negatively.

ORDINARY FORM.
Affirm'y or Nega-
tively or Interrog'y
or Interrogative and
Negatively.

PROGRESSIVE FORM.*
Affirm'y or Nega-
tively or Interrog'y
or Interrogative and
Negatively.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Simple Form.

Poten'l Form.

Present

Past

Future

Present Perfect

Past Perfect

Future Perfect

Present

Past

Future

Present Perfect

Past Perfect

Future Perfect

* The Progressive of the Passive can be used only in the case of a few Verbs, and then only in the Present and Past of the Simple Indicative; as,
"The house *is being built*." "The house *was being built*."

[Subjunctive Form]		EXERCISE. Take verbs through all the moods and tenses, persons and numbers of each form in the Active and Passive, affirmatively, negatively, interrogatively, imperatively, and negatively, and emphatically. Take verbs through each of the tenses in the indicative, from left to right in each of the twelve ways, thus: I know, or I do know, I do not know, Do I know? Do I not know?—I am knowing, I am not knowing, Am I knowing? Am I not knowing?—I am known, I am not known, Am I
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known? Am I not known?—I am being known. I am not being known. Am I being known? Am I not being known? Take verbs through all the persons and numbers of all the *Futures* in the same manner, with a view particularly to the proper use of *shall* and *will*. Give a synopsis of a Verb through the Affirmative, ordinary form, active voice.—Passive voice.—Through the Interrogative, and progressive forms, active voice.—Passive voice. Give promptly any person, number, mode or tense of any voice or form that may be called for. Prepare a Diagram similar to this, filling up such parts as may be directed.

This exercise on the Diagram is given merely to indicate how it is intended to be used.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

417. *Impersonal* verbs are those which assert the existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular subject. They are always in the third person singular, and in English are preceded by the pronoun *it*; as, "*It rains*"—" *It hails*"—" *It behooves*," &c.

418. To this class of words belong the expressions, *methinks*, *methought*; *me seems*, *me seemed*; sometimes used for, "*It seems to me*"—" *It appears to me*," &c.

419. The pronoun *it* preceding the impersonal verb as its subject, is the substitute of some unknown and general, or well-known cause, the action of which is expressed by the verb, but which can not, or need not, itself be named.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS, AND EXERCISES ON THE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB.

How is a verb conjugated in the progressive form? In what tenses only is the progressive form of the passive voice used? Conjugate the verb *teach* through the progressive form active and passive voice. Give the first person singular, present and past, ordinary and progressive form of the indicative—affirmatively—negatively—interrogatively—and, interrogative and negatively of the verb *hear*. Take it through all the persons,

numbers and forms of the *future*, simple and potential in the same way. Do the same in the passive with the verb *forget*. Take the verb *arise* through all the persons and numbers of the present, past, and future, indicative, solemn style. Take it through the same tenses, &c., solemn style, interrogatively. Mention the auxiliary verbs. For what purposes is *Do* used as an auxiliary verb? Give examples. For what purpose is *Be* used as an auxiliary? Give examples. In what person is *shall* used as an auxiliary in simple indicative, and what does it express? Give an example. In what person is *shall* used in the potential? Give an example. To express what, is *shall* used interrogatively in the simple and in the potential indicative? What difference of meaning is there between the future of the simple indicative and the potential indicative. Conjugate *shall* and *will* so as to express this difference of meaning in each. What does the future of the simple subjunctive and potential subjunctive each respectively express? Conjugate *shall* and *will* in each so as to express this difference. How is *shall* and *will* used in the simple indicative interrogative and in the potential indicative interrogative? Conjugate *shall* and *will* interrogatively so as to express this difference of meaning. Select or write sentences to illustrate the correct and incorrect use of *shall* and *will*, to be presented at the next lesson. What ideas and what time does *may* express? Give an example. What ideas and what time does *might* express? Give an example. What auxiliaries are used to form the present perfect and the past perfect of the potential? Give examples. Give examples illustrating an anomalous use of *had*, *will*, *would*, and *should*. What are the principal parts of a verb? Give the principal parts of the verbs *bear* to carry, and *bear* to bring forth,—*lie*—*lay*—*break*—*dare* to venture, and *dare* to challenge, *drink*—*get*—*lade*—*shine*—*sow* to scatter—*sing*—*swell*—*swim*—*thrive*—*wet*—*work*—and *wring*. Conjugate the verb *to be*, in the common style, through all its forms in full. Conjugate it through the present, present perfect, and future, *solemn style*. Give the subjunctive and hypothetical forms of the verb *to be*? For what purpose is each of them used? Give sentences illustrating the proper and improper use of these forms. With the Diagram before you, conjugate in any of the different ways indicated, such verbs as may be called for.

GENERAL EXERCISE ON THE VERB, AND APPLICATION OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

1. Parse the verbs in the following sentences by stating—whether they are regular or irregular,—the principal parts if irregular—transitive, or intransitive—person and number—tense—mood

—voice, if passive,—agreement with its antecedent.—Giving a synopsis through any form that may be required at the close. Thus, in the first sentence, *went* is an irregular verb—go, went, gone—intransitive, third singular, past indicative, agreeing with its nominative *Peter*.—*Synopsis, I go, I went, I shall go, &c.*

Peter went out and wept bitterly. They are not here now. She is coming to-morrow. Do you not know that I could have had you punished? Are you taking James with you? The goods were sold this morning. I will buy some if he can guarantee their quality. The matter is being investigated. Year after year it steals till all are fled. That might have occurred when knowledge was falsely called wisdom. If he make the effort he will succeed. I felt so fatigued that I lay down on the grass. I do remember the circumstance. Britannia rules the waves. Were I in your position the matter should be enquired into. The school closes at three o'clock. One came, methought, and whispered in my ear. We were delayed by the storm. I may have been stunned by the fall. This medicine tastes very bitter. Give me a pound of almonds. The last sentence reads rather awkwardly. You should wait till you hear whether he has been offered the situation. My parents never cost me a blush and I hope I shall never cost them a tear. Are not the clouds moving towards the west? If I may be so bold, how came you to know that?

2. When the sense will allow it, turn the verbs, in the active voice into the passive and into the progressive, and turn those in the passive and progressive into the active.

3. Turn the affirmative forms into negative and interrogative.

4. Form sentences using the participles and infinitives of the first twelve verbs as verbal nouns and verbal adjectives.

5. Which of the verbs are used in a sense which is properly neither active nor passive.

6. Form sentences in which the hypothetical form of the verb *to be* shall be used correctly, and the subjunctive form of the verb *go*.

7. Give a synopsis, in any form, according to the diagram, of the verbs *go*, *know* and *see*.

8. Give sentences with verbs having an active form and passive meaning.

9. Give sentences with verbs having a passive form and active meaning.

10. Turn to the Rules of Syntax and examine them for the purpose of determining which rule applies to each word in the above exercise.

11. Parse each word in full, according to the order, applying the proper Rule of Syntax to each.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

420. An **IRREGULAR** verb is one that does not form its past tense in the indicative active, and its past participle, by adding *ed* to the present.

*** The following list comprises nearly all the irregular verbs in the language. Those conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly, are marked with an R. Those in *italics* are obsolete, or obsolescent:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, R.	awaked
Bake	baked	baked, <i>baken</i>
Bear, <i>to bring forth</i>	bore, <i>bare</i>	born
Bear, <i>to carry</i>	bore, <i>baro</i>	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent, R.	bent, R.
Bereave	bereft, R.	bereft, R.
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
Bind, <i>un-</i>	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke, <i>brake</i>	broken, <i>broke</i>
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build, <i>re-</i>	built, R.	built, R.
Burn	burnt, R.	burnt, R.
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught, R.	caught, R.
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, <i>to adhere</i>	cleaved, <i>clave</i>	cleaved
Cleave, <i>to split</i>	cleft, <i>clove</i>	cleft, R. cloven
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clad, R.	ciad, R.
Come, <i>be-</i>	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Crow	crew, R.	crowed
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, <i>to venture</i>	durst	dared
Dare, <i>to challenge</i> , R.	dared	dared
Deal	dealt	dealt, R.
Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do, <i>mis-un-do</i>	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamt	dreamt, R.
Drink	drank	drank, drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Eat	eat, ate	eaten
Fall, <i>be-</i>	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get, <i>be- for-</i>	got, gat	gotten, got
Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Gird, <i>be- en-</i>	girt, R.	girt, R.
Give, <i>for mis-</i>	gave	given
Go, <i>under-</i>	went	gone
Grave, <i>en- R.</i>	graved	graven, graded
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung	hung*
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove, R.	hoven, R.
Hew	hewed	hewn, R.
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold, <i>be- with-</i>	held	held, holden
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt, R.	knelt, R.
Knit	knit, R.	knit, knitted
Know	knew	known

* *Hang*, to take away life by hanging, is regular, as, "The robber was hanged, but the gown was *hung* up."

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Lade, <i>to load</i> *	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead, <i>mis-</i>	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, <i>to recline</i>	lay	lain, <i>lien</i>
Light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, R.
Pay, <i>re-</i>	paid	paid
Pen, <i>to enclose</i>	pent, R. *	pent, R.
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, R.	quit, R.
Read	read†	read†
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode, <i>rid</i>	ridden, <i>rid</i>
Ring	rang, rung	rung
Rise, <i>a-</i>	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven, R.
Run	ran, <i>run</i>	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, R.
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	seethed, sod	seethed, sodden
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set, <i>be-</i>	set	set

* Lade, *to dip*, is regular.† Pronounced *red*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Skake	shook	shaken
Shape, <i>mis-</i>	shaped	shapen, R.
Shave	shaved	shaven, R.
Shear	sheared	shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone, R.	shone, R.
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show	showed	shown, R.
Shrink	shrunk, <i>shrank</i>	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang, sung	sung
Sink	sunk, <i>sank</i>	sunk
Sit	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Sling	slung, slang	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit	slit, slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow, <i>to scatter</i>	sowed	sown, R.
Speaks <i>be-</i>	spoke, <i>spake</i>	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt, R.	spelt, R.
Spend, <i>mis-</i>	spent	spent
Spill	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Spin	spun, <i>span</i>	spun
Spit, <i>be-</i>	spit, <i>spat</i>	spit
Split	split	split
Spread, <i>be-</i>	spread	spread
Spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
Stand, <i>with-, &c.</i>	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk or stank	stunk
Stride, <i>be-</i>	strode, strid	stridden, strid
Strike	struck	struck, <i>stricken</i>
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew, * <i>be-</i>	strew	strewed, strewn
Strow, <i>be-</i>	strowed	strowed, strown
Swear	swore, <i>sware</i>	sworn
Sweat	sweat, R.	sweat, R.
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen, R.
Swim	swam or <i>swum</i>	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take, <i>be- &c.</i>	took	taken
Teach, <i>mis- re-</i>	taught	taught
Tear	tore, <i>tare</i>	torn
Tell	told	told
Think, <i>be-</i>	thought	thought
Thrive	thrived, <i>throve</i>	thriven, R.
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden, trod
Wax	waxed	waxen, R.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet, R.	wet, R.
Whet	whet, R.	whet, R.
Win	won	won
Wind	wound, R.	wound

* *Strew* and *shew* are now giving way to *strow* and *show*, as they are pronounced.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Work	wrought, R.	wrought, R.
Wring	wrung, R.	wrung
Write	wrote	written

ADVERBS.

421. An ADVERB is a word used to modify the sense of a *verb*, an *adjective*, or another *adverb*; as, "Ann speaks *distinctly*; she is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very correctly*."

422. An adverb is generally equivalent to a modifying phrase, or adjunct of the word to which it is joined. Thus, in the preceding example, "*distinctly*" means, *in a distinct manner*; "*remarkably*," *in a remarkable degree*. So, "*now*" means *at this time*; "*then*," *at that time*, &c. These adverbial phrases may be further expanded into *adverbial sentences*; as, "The boy studies *diligently*;"—*in a diligent manner—as a diligent boy should study*.

423. Our notions of *things* are expressed by nouns, and our notions of the *qualities* or *attributes* of things are expressed by *adjectives* and *verbs*, hence, just as we use an *adjective* to qualify a noun, so we use an *adverb* to qualify any word expressing an attribute; and as *adverbs* are, themselves, attributes of adjectives and verbs, they may be qualified by other adverbs.

424. The subject of the verb is the principal noun in every sentence, and the principal attribute is contained in the predicate. The *principal* use of the adverb is to modify the whole sentence through the principal attribute, and its secondary or subordinate use is to qualify other attributes in the sentence.

425. On the same principle that an adverb modifies another adverb, it sometimes also modifies an adjunct, a phrase, or a sentence; as, "I met your brother *far from home*;"—"He will be here soon *after mid-day*;"—"We shall go *immediately after the mail arrives*."

426. A few adverbs are sometimes used as adjuncts of nouns and pronouns; as, *I alone* [that is, *I*, and no one else] am escaped alone to tell thee;"—"The women *also* were present," that is, the women *as well as the others—in addition to the others*.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

427. Adverbs, according to the nature of the modifications which they denote, may be divided into various classes; viz., Adverbs of *Time, Place, Number, Quantity, Manner, Mode, Cause, Interrogation*.

428. *Adverbs of Time* are such as answer to the question *When?*

They may be subdivided into *Time Present*; as, *Now, yet, presently*. *Time Past*; as, *Already, lately, since*. *Time to Come*; as, *Henceforth, soon, hereafter*. *Time Relative*; as, *When, then, after*. *Time Absolute*; as, *Ever, always, never*. *Time Repeated*; as, *Often, seldom, rarely*.

Adverbs of *Place* are those which answer to the questions *Where, whither or whence?*

Where? or, *rest in a place*; as, *there, here, within, &c.* Or, *Relative or Indefinite Place*; as, *above, below, somewhere, anywhere, &c.* *Whither?* or, *motion towards a place*; as, *unto, hence, hither, &c.* *Whence?* or, *motion from a place*; as, *thence, thither, forth, &c.*

Adverbs of Number are those which answer to the questions *How often?* As, *once, twice, &c.*; or, *In what order?* As, *firstly, secondly, finally, &c.*

Adverbs of Quantity are those which answer the question *How much?* As, *much, little, scarcely, &c.*

Adverbs of Manner are those which answer to the question *How?* As, *well, ill, wisely, &c.*

Adverbs of Mode are those which from the nature of the idea they express, can only be used in connection with verbs.

Such as Adverbs of *Affirmation*; as, *yes, aye, indeed*. Of *Negation*; as, *no, nay, not, nowise*. Of *Doubt*; as, *perhaps, possibly, perchance, &c.* Of *Cause*; as, *hereby, consequently, wherefore*.

Adverbs of Interrogation are those used in asking questions; as, *How, why, &c.*

429. *There*, commonly used as an adverb of place, is often used as an *introductory expletive* to the verbs *to be, to come, to appear*, and some others, when the subject, in declaratory sentences, follows the verb; as, "There is no doubt of the fact"—"There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin"—"There appears to be a mistake somewhere." Sometimes, when the subject goes before, it is placed between the subject and the verb; as, "A mistake there is." In all such cases, *there* is a mere expletive. It adds nothing to the sense, but still, it serves to vary the form of expression, and to soften the abruptness which would otherwise exist. This will appear by omitting it in any of the preceding examples.

430. *Then*—does not always refer to time, but it is used to indicate a certain circumstance, or a case supposed; as, "If you will go, *then* [that is, in that case] say so."

Now—is sometimes used without reference to time, merely to indicate the transition from one sentence to another; as, "Not this man, but Barabbas. *Now* Barabbas was a robber."

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

431. A *conjunctive adverb* is one used to connect two clauses while it modifies a word, usually the verb, in each; as, "*When* Crusoe saw the savages, he became greatly alarmed." "Show me the place *where* he lives." The words most commonly used as *conjunctive adverbs*, are—*when, while, where, till, as, whether, before, since, &c.*

432. The only *Inflections* which the Adverb undergoes, and that in comparatively few cases, are similar to those of the adjective; viz., to point out the three degrees of comparison; as, I run *fast*; he runs *faster*; she runs *fastest*.

In most instances, adverbs are compared by *more* and *most*; as, *more* beautifully; *most* beautifully.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON THE ADVERB.

What is an adverb? Give examples of the use of adverbs. To what is an adverb generally equivalent? Give examples. Explain how it is that adverbs come to modify these three parts of speech. In what part of a sentence is the principal attribute found? What is the principal and secondary use of the adverb? Illustrate this by an example. Give examples to show that adverbs sometimes modify phrases and sentences. Give examples of an anomalous use of adverbs. Give examples to show how adverbs may

be expanded into adverbial phrases, and into adverbial sentences. Into what general classes are adverbs divided? Into what classes are those of time subdivided? Repeat those of each class. Into what classes are those of place subdivided? Repeat those of each class. Into what classes are those of number subdivided? Repeat those of each class. Those of quantity? Repeat them. Those of manner? Repeat them. Repeat those of mode. Repeat those of interrogation. Illustrate, by examples, the two uses of the adverb *there*. Give examples of *then* and *now*, not used with reference to time. What are conjunctive adverbs? Give examples to illustrate how they are used. How are adverbs compared?

EXERCISE ON THE ADVERB.

1. Parse the adverbs in the following sentences, by stating to what general and particular class they belong, and what they modify; and parse the conjunctive adverbs by stating to what class they belong, and what they connect and modify.

I have not seen him lately. I have not called upon him yet. They have almost all their wants supplied without labor. He looked quite ill. The weather was exceedingly stormy below. They often call to see me. The news arrived early in the morning. Why, my friend! are you here? We shall probably return tomorrow. Perhaps you will return early. We are far from the city. You will first let me know. I hear much of your success. Twice two is four. You may possibly be mistaken. I will return when you send for me. He discovered the mistake whilst on his way home. He was preparing to leave as I entered. I have been here since morning. I believe I have seen you as often as was necessary. I went wherever you wished. Whither I go, you cannot come. Return from whence you came. He talks as if he meant it. The more you talk the worse you make it.

2. Go over this exercise again, and parse the Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Verbs, in full, according to the order.

PREPOSITIONS.

433. A PREPOSITION is a word which shows the relation of a noun or pronoun

depending upon it, to some other word in the sentence; as, "The love of money."—"Come to me."

434. The preposition most frequently shows the relation of a noun to an action; as, "I travelled on the cars." It is used sometimes to indicate the relation of its noun to some quality; as, "The climate is disagreeable in winter." A few prepositions are occasionally used to indicate the relation of one noun to another; as, "The habits of the people."

435. Instead of a noun, a preposition may be followed by any word or combination of words supplying the place of a noun; as, "Honored for having done his duty."—"The crime of being a young man."

436. The same word not unfrequently has several adjuncts; as, "He went from Boston, by railroad, to New York, in eight hours." Also, the noun or pronoun in the adjunct, may be limited by one or more adjuncts—the whole forming a compound adjunct; as, "It is consistent with the character of a man of honor." Here, "of honor" is the adjunct of man; "of a man of honor" is a compound adjunct of character; and the whole, "with the character of a man of honor," is a compound adjunct of consistent.

437. In the natural order of a sentence, the adjunct follows its principal; as, "He withdrew after supper." It is often convenient, however, to arrange the adjunct first; as, "After supper, he withdrew with his friend who had called for him." Here, the same sense cannot so well be given by placing the adjunct, "after supper," anywhere else in the sentence.

438. Concerning, excepting, regarding, respecting, and touching, were originally present participles active, of transitive verbs, and as such, required an objective case after them. They may frequently be so construed still. During may be regarded as originally the present participle active, of an intransitive verb, having the noun or pronoun in the nominative case absolute; thus, "During life," means life during, or while life remains. Notwithstanding, a compound of not, and the imperfect participle withstanding, may be explained in the same way. When used, however, as prepositions, the word following must be regarded as in the objective case.

439. Except and save were originally imperatives. Out of may be regarded either as two words—an adverb and preposition—or as one word, forming a sort of compound preposition. Of this character are the following: From between, from beyond, from within, from without, over against, and the like. Off is, for the most part, an adverb, and means at a distance; as "Far off." With a noun or pronoun following it, off is a preposition, and means not on, from, &c.; as, "Off the table."

440. The word *a* in the sense of *at*, *in*, *on*, *to*, *of*, &c., has the force of a preposition in such expressions as *a reading*, *a running*, *a going*, *a hunting*, &c., and may be parsed as such. The same word is used as a prefix in such words as *aboard*, *ashore*, *asleep*, *abed*, *afloat*, &c.

441. When a preposition has not an object, it becomes an *adverb*; as, "He rides *about*." But in such phrases as *cast up*, *hold out*, *fall on*, &c.; *up*, *out*, *on*, should be considered as parts of the verbs to which they are joined, rather than as prepositions or adverbs.

CLASSIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

442. Prepositions may be classed according to the various relations expressed by them as follows:—

PLACE—as, *In*, *on*, *by*, *at*. DIRECTION—as, *Into*, *to*, *towards*, &c.
RELATIVE POSITION—as, *Over*, *under*, *before*, *behind*, *beyond*, *near*, &c.
TIME—as, *Between*, *by*, *in*, *after*, *within*, *since*, *during*, &c. AGENT,
or INSTRUMENT—as, *By*, *through*, *with*, *by means-of*, &c. CAUSE, or
MOTIVE—as, *on-account-of*, *from*, &c. OPPOSITION—as, *Against*.
POSSESSION—as, *Of*. EXCLUSION—as, *except*, *but*, &c.

443. Intellectual relations are conceived of as physical, and are expressed by prepositions denoting physical relations. They are exhibited to others as they strike our own minds; as, for instance, to do it *from pity*. "To rule *over* a country."—"To rely *on* a promise." In some such cases, the preposition seems to be used to render more emphatic the meaning of a verb which expresses the same relation as the preposition expresses physically; as, "To consult *with* a person."—"To abstain *from* a thing."—"To have antipathy *against* a person," &c.

444. Prepositions exhibit the wonderful economy of language. The number of relations is almost infinite, yet they are all expressed by a comparatively small number of prepositions, and this without any confusion or danger of mistake. We are guided in the meaning by the nature of the ideas between which the relation exists; but if one local relation were used for another, confusion would immediately arise.

445. As the use of prepositions is designed to serve the same purpose as *inflections*, we find that a language with comparatively little inflection, like the English, has a proportionably greater number of prepositions.

446. The following list of prepositions embraces those in common use:—

About	at	by	on	under
above	athwart	concerning	over	underneath

across	before	down	on	till
after	behind	during	respecting	until
against	below	except	sound	unto
along	beneath	excepting	since	up
amid ar	beside or	for	through	upon
amidst	besides	from	throughout	with
among or	between	in	to	within
amongst	betwixt	into	towards	without
around	beyond	of		

Several words in this list are frequently used as other parts of speech, especially *till*, *until*, *after*, *before*, &c.

447. A preposition may always be distinguished from other parts of speech by observing, that it has always a noun, or something supplying the place of a noun depending on it, and it cannot be removed from one part of the sentence to another, except in connection with this object.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON THE PREPOSITION.

Define the preposition. Between what kind of words does a preposition most frequently show relation? Give examples to show that the same preposition may have more than one object. Give examples to show that one adjunct may depend upon another, and that again upon another, &c. Give examples to show that instead of placing the adjunct after the word on which it depends it is sometimes better to place it first. What is said about *concerning*, *excepting*, *regarding*? What is said about *during* and *notwithstanding*? What is said of *out of*, *from between*, *from beyond*, &c.? Into how many classes do you divide prepositions? Give those of each class. Are there as many different prepositions as their are different relations existing among things and ideas. How is it that confusion does not arise from this cause. Why has the English language a greater number of prepositions than languages more inflected? About what number of prepositions are there in the English language. Repeat as many of them as you can.

EXERCISE ON THE PREPOSITION.

1. Parse the preposition in the following sentences by stating whether they denote *place*, *time*, *motion*, *means*, *agent*, *cause*, *purpose*, *possession*, &c, and between what words they show the relation.

We visited the grave of my mother. I was standing on the deck at the time. We started just as the cathedral clock struck six. Such an effort is beyond all praise. I returned from Montreal last week. The horse

was running through the pasture yesterday. I have resigned on account of my health. He went on instead of returning home. We are liable to such things. He has a heart of iron. Do you still adhere to that opinion. I must laugh at your comical attempts. I heard the story of the child. On Friday last we went from Toronto to Hamilton by the lake in two hours. It is on that account not consistent with the profession of sincerity of purpose. I am uneasy about him. The letter was written by his brother. Let us walk around the enclosure. We were overtaken by a storm. We toiled on from that time until we were out of danger. I suppose you are accustomed to such things. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.

2. Go over this exercise again and parse according to the order the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs and prepositions.

CONJUNCTIONS.

448. A CONJUNCTION is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences; as, "He *and* I must go, *but* you may stay." "Of him, *and* through him, *and* to him, are all things."

449. The distinguishing office of the conjunction is really to connect the different clauses of an extended sentence; but few of the numerous family of conjunctions are ever used to connect *words* or *phrases*, and, in many instances, when they appear to connect only words or phrases, they really connect clauses. A classification of conjunctions must, therefore, be based on the various relations which the different kinds of clauses bear to each other, for it is the meaning of the word used to connect them that determines this relation. The full explanation of the use of conjunctions can therefore be given only in connection with the analysis of complex and compound sentences.

450. The following classification will be found sufficient to distinguish between the various relations that exist between *co-ordinate* clauses, and between *principal* and *subordinate* clauses.

451. They are divided into *Copulative* and *Disjunctive*.

A **COPULATIVE** Conjunction is one which not only joins sentences together, but also unites their meaning.

They are divided into two kinds, *Additive* and *Continuative*. The **ADDITIVE** are those that unite clauses as the sign (+) *plus* unites quantities. They are—*and, also, likewise, moreover, further*. The **CONTINUATIVE** are those which connect subordinate clauses of the adverbial kind to the sentences, the meaning of which they are introduced to continue or complete. They are divided into classes corresponding nearly with the classification of adverbs; they are—*before, where, that, ere, whither, except, after, whence, however, when, because, as if, whilst, if, so that, until, unless, whenever, though, as, although, than, till*.

452. A **DISJUNCTIVE** Conjunction is one which, while it joins two clauses together, disconnects their meaning.

They are also divided into two classes, *Distributive* or *Alternative*, and *Adversative*.

The **DISTRIBUTIVE** are those that connect clauses that are to be taken separately, or one of which is to be taken to the exclusion of the others. They are—*or, nor, either, neither*.

The **ADVERSATIVE** are those that connect clauses that are contrasted with, or opposed to each other. They are—*but, nevertheless, however, still, notwithstanding, yet*.

453. Many of the words included in the above list of the *Continuative*, perform the office of both adverb and conjunction at the same time, and may very properly be called **CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS**.

454. There are also many compound conjunctions; such as, *as well as, as soon as, in as far as, in as much as, as far as, &c.*

455. Many are also correlative with some adverb or conjunction which has preceded them; for instance,

<i>As</i>	is used correlatively with	<i>so, as, such, the same, &c.</i>
<i>Yet</i>	"	" through.
<i>Or</i>	"	" whether, either.
<i>Than</i>	"	" more or less.
<i>That</i>	"	" so.
<i>Nor</i>	"	" neither.
<i>Else</i>	"	" if, than, otherwise.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON THE CONJUNCTION.

Define the Conjunction. What is the distinguishing office of the Conjunction? On what must a classification of the Conjunction be based? In connection with what subject will the Conjunction be best explained? Into what two general classes are Conjunctions divided? Define the Copulative. Into what classes are the Copulative subdivided. Define the Additive. Repeat them and give examples to show their use. Define the Continuative. Repeat the Continuative and give examples to show their use. Define the Disjunctive. Into what classes are the Disjunctive divided? Define the distributive and repeat them. Give examples to show their use. Define the Adversative and repeat them. Give examples to show their use. Which of those in the list of the Continuative are *Conjunctive Adverbs*? Repeat the Compound Conjunctions. Repeat the Correlative Conjunctions. Give examples to show how they are used.

EXERCISE.

1. Parse the Conjunctions and Conjunctive Adverbs in the following sentences, by stating to which class they belong and what they connect.

It was not the teacher but the pupil who was in fault. I will accompany you if you call for me. We had no sooner started than he became ill. The fact is so evident that it cannot be disputed, I know that you are quite in earnest. You cannot tell because you were not present. Either James or William is to blame. Precept is not so forcible as example. Time flies rapidly, yet it appears to move slowly. He believes you because you never deceived him. Love not sleep lest you come to poverty. And when the day was far spent we went into Jerusalem. You have great reason to be thankful and contented with your lot. He was industrious but irritable. Nevertheless you must make all the haste in your power. He lives but eight miles from the city. Think before you speak. Neither labor nor expense shall deter me. She is not as diligent as her sister.

2. Go over this exercise again and parse the *Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, and Prepositions*, according to the order given for each.

3. Write sentences connected by the various classes of Continuative Conjunctions.

INTERJECTIONS.

456. An INTERJECTION is a word used in exclamations, to express an emotion of the mind; as, "Oh! what a fall was there!"

457. The *Interjection* is so called, because it is, as it were, *thrown in among* the words of a sentence, without any grammatical connection with them. Sometimes it stands at the beginning of a sentence, sometimes in the middle, and sometimes it stands alone, as if the emotion were too strong to admit of other words being spoken.

A LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

458. The following is a list of the interjections most commonly used. They express various kinds of emotions, but in so vague and indefinite a way, as not to admit of accurate classification:—

Ah! alas! O! ch! ha! fudge! tush! pshaw! poh! pugh! fie! avaunt! ho! holla! aha! hurrah! huzza! bravo! hist! hush! heigho! heyday! hail! lo! welcome! halloo! adieu! &c.

459. Words belonging to other parts of speech, when uttered in an unconnected and forcible manner, to express emotion, are also called interjections; as, *nonsense! strange! wonderful! shocking! what! behold! off! away! hark! come! well done! welcome! &c.*

460. *O* is used to express a wish by an exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or pronoun, in a direct address; as, "*O* Virtue! how amiable thou art!" *Oh* is used detached from the word, with a point of exclamation after it, or after the next word. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise; as, "*Oh!* what a sight is here!"

GENERAL EXERCISE IN PARSING,

WITH A VIEW ESPECIALLY TO THE APPLICATION OF THE GENERAL RULES OF SYNTAX.

Turn to the General Rules of Syntax and study and examine them till you can answer the following questions; and then apply the proper rule to the construction of each word in the following Exercise

Repeat the rule that applies to the words used under the various circumstances described below, and give examples of your own to show the proper application of each rule.

1st. A noun or pronoun used as the *SUBJECT of a Verb*.—2nd. As the *OBJECT of a verb or preposition*.—3rd. In *APPOSITION* with another noun or pronoun.—4th. After the verb *To Be, &c.*—5th. In the *POSSESSIVE* case.—6th. *INDEPENDENT* case.—7th. The *INFINITIVE*.—8th. The *PARTICIPLE*.—9th. *AGREEMENT of Pronouns* with their *Antecedents*.—10th. *AGREEMENT of a Verb or Pronoun*, when *two or more singular nominatives or antecedents denoting different objects* are taken *CONJOINTLY*.—11th. When *two or more Singular Nominatives* or antecedents are so connected that the verb or pronoun agrees with *EACH, SEPARATELY* or *ONE EXCLUSIVELY*.—12th. *ADJECTIVES*.—13th. *ADVERBS*.—14th. *PREPOSITIONS*.—15th. *CONJUNCTIONS*.

EXERCISE

IN PARSING AND APPLYING THE RULES OF SYNTAX TO THE CONSTRUCTION OF WORDS.

Give the construction of each word in the following sentences, and apply the proper Rule of Syntax; or, parse the words *in full*, and apply the Rules of Syntax, as the teacher may direct.

On yourself depend for aid. It was I who wrote the letter. He had the honor of being a director for life. Your being from home occasioned the delay. He did his utmost to please his friends. Calm was the day, and the scene delightful. They are much greater gainers than I by this unexpected event. He was in Paris last month. Will you lend me your knife. The house is thirty-six feet deep, and twenty-five wide. I like to see you behave so well. Whose gray top shall tremble, he descending. The prophets! Where are they? William, call at the doctor's as you return. I am come, in compliance, with your desire. The old house is fallen down. Proceeding on his journey he was seized with a dangerous malady. By what means shall we obtain wisdom. Whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well. Foolish persons are more apt to consider what they have lost than what they possess. What cannot be prevented must be endured. He who is a stranger to industry may possess, but he cannot enjoy. He is a friend whom I greatly respect. I saw who understood my remarks. They taught him and me to write. It was not I, but I know who it was.

They whom luxury has corrupted cannot relish the pleasures of life. The inquisitive are much to be pitied. I dispatched the letter myself. He injures himself by his anxiety. They gathered the flowers themselves. Hope, the balm of life, is our greatest friend. Temperance the preserver of health, should be the study of all men. His meat was locusts and wild honey. He was the life of the company. We have been attentive to our business to-day. These streams are deep and wide. They waited for a fit time and place. A steady, sweet and cheerful temper affords great delight to its possessor.

Before entering on the next subject, there should be a general revision from the beginning. This can be very thoroughly done by the aid of the examination questions and exercises at the close of each part. In going over the exercises, it may be only necessary to require the *construction* of the words and the *application* of the Rules of Syntax.

The following forms should be carefully examined and followed in parsing the exercises :—

ORDER OF PARSING WORDS ORALLY IN FULL.

NOUN.

Prop.	} Noun.	Sing.	} Number.	Nom.	} Case.
Com.				Poss.	
Abstr.		Plur.		Obj. c.	
				Indep.	} Rule.

PRONOUN.

Pers. Rel. Inter. Posses.	Mas. Fem. Nent.	1st. 2nd. 3rd.	Gen.	Pers.	Sing. Plur.	Nunl. Objec.	Nom. Poses. Objec. Indep.	CASE. RULE.

To agree with antecedent according to RULE.

ADJECTIVE.

Descriptive Limiting.	Adjective.	Positive. Comparative. Superlative.	DEGREE.	Belongs to the Noun, &c. RULE.

ADVERB.

Adverb of	Time, Place, Number, Quantity, Manner, Mode, Interrog.	Modifying the	Verb, Adjective. Adverb. RULE

VERB.

1st 2nd 3rd	Person. Singular. Plural.	Number. Present. Past. Future. Pres.-perf. Past-Perf. Fut.-Perf.	Tense. Indic., Com., or Poten. form. Subj., Com., or Poten. form. Imperative.	Mode. Active, ordin'ry or progr'sive form. Passive, ordin'ry or progr'sive form.	Voice.

Reg. or Irreg. from (name the parts, if Irreg.) Trans. or Intrans. RULE

CONJUNCTION.

Copulative.	{ Additive. Continuative.	Con- necting	{ The words, &c. The phrases, &c. The principal props., &c. The subord. props., &c.
Disjunctive	{ Distributive. Alternative. Adversative.		

PREPOSITION.

Preposition of	{ Place, Direction, Rel. position, Time,	{ Expressing the relation between, &c.
	{ Agent or Instrument Cause or Motive, Opposition, Possession, Exclusion,	

FORM FOR WRITTEN EXERCISES IN PARSING.

*“The minutest plant or animal, if it is examined attentively, affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore that Omnipotent Hand by which it was created.”

*The.....	A limiting adjective, belonging to <i>plant</i> or <i>animal</i> .
minutest ...	Descriptive adjective, superlative degree, belongs to <i>plant</i> or <i>animal</i> , according to Rule.
plant.....	Common noun, singular, nominative to <i>affords</i> and <i>obliges</i> .
or	Disjunctive conjunction, distributive, connects <i>plant</i> and <i>animal</i> .
animal.....	Common noun, singular, nominative to <i>affords</i> and <i>obliges</i> .
if.....	Copulative conjunction, continuative, connects adverbial clause, &c., to principal.
it.....	Personal pronoun, neuter, third, singular, (to agree with its antecedent, <i>plant</i> or <i>animal</i> , according to Rule, “Pronoun must agree, &c.”) and nominative to <i>is examined</i> , according to Rule.
is examined.	Verb, regular, transitive, third, singular, present, indicative, passive; agreeing with its nominative <i>it</i> . According to Rule, “A verb, &c.”
attentively .	Adverb of manner, modifying the verb <i>is examined</i> .

- affords* Verb, regular, transitive, third, singular, present, indicative, agreeing with its noun *plant* or *animal*, according to RULE, "A verb, &c."
- a* A definitive adjective, belonging to *thousand wonders*, as one whole.
- thousand*... Limiting adjective, cardinal, numeral, belonging to *wonders*, according to RULE, "Adjectives belong, &c."
- wonders*.... A noun, common, plural, objective to *affords*. RULE, "Transitive verbs, &c."
- and* Copulative conjunction, additive, connecting the coordinate propositions "The minutest, &c, and obliges us, &c."
- obliges* A verb, regular, transitive, third, singular, present, indicative, agreeing with its nominative *plant* or *animal*.
- us* Personal pronoun, first, plural, to agree with its antecedent, the speakers, and objective to *obliges*. RULE, "Transitive verbs, &c."
- to admire* .. Verbal noun, indirect objective of *obliges*. RULE, "The infinitive, &c."
- and* A copulative conjunction, additive, connects "to admire," and "to adore."
- adore*..... Verbal noun, indirect objective of *obliges*.
- that* Limiting adjective, demonstrative, belongs to noun *hand*.
- Omnipotent*. Descriptive adjective, positive degree, compared by more and most, belongs to the noun "hand."
- hand* Common noun, singular, objective to "adore." RULE, "Transitive verbs, &c."
- by* A preposition expressing the agent, shows the relation between "was created," and "which."
- which* A relative pronoun, neuter, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent *hand*, according to RULE, "Pronouns must agree, &c.;" and objective of preposition "by." RULE, "Prepositions govern, &c."
- it* A personal pronoun, neuter, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent, "plant" or "animal." RULE, "Pronoun must agree, &c." and nominative to *was created*.
- was created*. A verb, regular, transitive, third, singular, past, indicative, passive, agreeing with its nominative *it*, according to RULE, "A verb must agree, &c."

FORM FOR WRITTEN EXERCISES WHEN THE CONSTRUCTION ONLY IS REQUIRED.

* "He was very poor, and begged earnestly for food."

*He.....	Personal pronoun, standing for, &c., and nominative to "was and begged."
was	A verb, third, singular, to agree with its nominative "He."
very.....	Adverb, modifying adjective "poor."
poor	Adjective, qualifying "He."
and	Conjunction connecting the compound predicates "was poor and begged."
begged	A verb, third, singular, to agree with its nominative "He."
earnestly...	Adverb, modifying "begged."
for.....	A preposition showing the relation between "begged" and "food."
food.....	A noun objective to "begged."

THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS.

The following section on the structure of words is taken from Morell's Grammar.

1. ROOTS AND DERIVATIVES.

463. We have already given an account of the different kinds of words in the English language, and of the various inflexions they undergo; the next thing is to show the *sources* from which the words are derived, and to follow the *processes* by which they are formed.

1. A simple word, of whose origin we can give no further account is termed a *root*. English roots consists of such words as *father* *son*, *love*, *strong*, *come*, *go*, *tree*, and most other monosyllables which convey a simple notion or idea.

2. A simple word or root sometimes undergoes an alteration of form, either by changing the vowel sound, or by modifying the consonants. Thus, *strong* becomes *strength*; *shake* becomes *shock*;

glass becomes *glaze*, &c. These we term *primary derivatives* or *stems*.

3. From the primary derivatives, or stems of the language, other words are formed by adding prefixes and affixes. Thus, *strength* becomes *strengthen*; *shock* becomes *shocking*; *glaze* becomes *glazier*. These we term *secondary derivatives*.

4. Two or more words are sometimes joined together to express one complete idea; as, *windmill*, *coppersmith*, *handicraftsman*, &c. These we term *compound words*.

2. SOURCE OF ENGLISH WORDS.

464. The principal basis of the English language is the Anglo-Saxon element. Of 38,000 words it is reckoned that about 28,000 spring from this source. Nearly all the simple roots and primary derivatives are of Saxon origin, and a large proportion of the secondary derivatives and compound words also.

As the Saxons combined more or less with the original Celtic population of this country, they naturally adopted a certain number of Celtic roots into their language. These roots have become, however, so assimilated to the Saxon form and pronunciation, that it is now difficult to recognise them as coming from a foreign source. In addition to the names of mountains, rivers, and localities, which are to a larger extent Celtic, we may adduce the following as instances of Celtic words which have been assimilated to the Anglo-Saxon dialect, and thus come down into the modern English:—

Bran.	Bump.	Smooth.
Brat.	Tarry.	Dun.
Bill.	Dainty.	Glen.
Cabin.	Darn.	Crag.
Cobble.	Pail.	Lad.
Quay.	Pitcher.	Lass.

2. The conquest of England by the Normans introduced the Norman-French into this country. As the Norman-French was one of the languages which had sprung out of the prevalence of the Latin idiom (Romance languages), its introduction prepared the way for grafting a large number of originally Latin words upon our primitive English stock. Many came indirectly through the French, and retain to this day the marks of the French origin; but as Latin was the learned language of Europe all through, and even

beyond the Middle Ages, a still greater number of words were gradually introduced directly from the Latin by English writers who flourished from the revival of letters down to the time of Milton. From this time the language may be considered as having become virtually formed.

Latin roots have, in scarcely any instance, been brought over in their simple form into the English language, but only in the form of secondary derivatives. Thus, we never say to *port*, or to *mit*; but we say *export*, *import*, *porter*, *deportment*; and *remit*, *omit*, *commit*, *commission*, &c.

3. As science and philosophy were first cultivated in Europe among the Greeks, and all other people have studied them more or less under Greek masters, the terms and phrases of the Greek language became naturally introduced into the scientific language of Europe. Hence most technical terms in mathematics, physics, medicine, botany, as well as art and philosophy, have been borrowed from Greek sources. These technical terms, with a few other words which have gradually come into more common use, form the present Greek element in the English language.

4. A few words in addition have found their way into our language from the Italian, the Spanish, and even the Hebrew and Arabic, but these have rarely succeeded in becoming thoroughly naturalized as a part of our modern English.

3. PREFIXES.

465. Most of the secondary derivatives in our language are formed by putting a syllable either before or after the root. A syllable put *before* the root is termed a prefix, a syllable put *after* the root is called an affix.

As the prefixes play a very important part in the structure of words, it will be useful here to give a list of them, classified according to the language from which they are derived.

SAXON PREFIXES.

<i>A</i> ,	signifying	in or <i>on</i> ; as, abed, ashore.
<i>Be</i> ,	forming transitive verbs out of intransitive,	} as, bespeak, besmear
	or adding intensity to the meaning,	
<i>For</i> ,	signifying	the contrary; as, forbid, forbear.
<i>Fore</i> ,	before; as, foretell, forebode.
<i>Mid</i> ,	middle; as, midway, midshipman.
<i>Mis</i> ,	failure; as, mishap, mistake.
<i>N</i> ,	not; as, never, nor.
<i>Over</i> ,	above; as, overlay, overdone.
<i>Out</i> ,	excelling; as, outdo, outrun.

<i>Un</i> ,	not; <i>as</i> , undo, unskilled.
<i>To</i> ,	this; <i>as</i> , to-day, to-night
<i>With</i> ,	against or away; <i>as</i> , withstand, with- hold.
<i>Under</i> ,	beneath; <i>as</i> , underlay.
<i>Up</i> ,	upwards; <i>as</i> , upheave, upstart.

LATIN PREFIXES.

<i>A</i> , <i>ab</i> , <i>abs</i> , signifying	from . <i>as</i> , avert, abstract.
<i>Ad</i> , (or, <i>of</i> , <i>ag</i> , <i>al</i> , <i>an</i> , <i>ap</i> , <i>ar</i> , <i>as</i> , <i>at</i>),	to; <i>as</i> , adhere, attract.
<i>Ante</i> (<i>anti</i>), signifying	before; <i>as</i> , antedate, anticipate.
<i>Bene</i> ,	well; <i>as</i> , benefit.
<i>Bi</i> , <i>bis</i> ,	two, twice; <i>as</i> , biped.
<i>Circum</i> ,	round; <i>as</i> , circumvent.
<i>Co</i> , <i>con</i> , <i>com</i> , <i>col</i> ,	with; <i>as</i> , co-operate, connect
<i>Contra</i> ,	against; <i>as</i> , contradict
<i>De</i> ,	down; <i>as</i> descend.
<i>Dis</i> , <i>di</i> ,	apart; <i>as</i> , dislodge, diverge.
<i>E</i> , <i>ex</i> , <i>ef</i> ,	out; <i>as</i> , elert, export.
<i>Equi</i> ,	equally; <i>as</i> , equidistant.
<i>Extra</i> ,	beyond; <i>as</i> , extraordinary.
<i>In</i> (with verb),	in or into; <i>as</i> , induct.
<i>In</i> (do, adjective)	not; <i>as</i> , inelegant.
<i>Inter</i> ,	between; <i>as</i> , interlude.
<i>Intro</i> , signifying	within; <i>as</i> , introduce.
<i>Non</i> ,	not; <i>as</i> , nondescript.
<i>Ob</i> (<i>of</i> , <i>op</i> , <i>oc</i>),	against, or, in the way of; <i>as</i> , obstruct, occur.
<i>Per</i> ,	through; <i>as</i> , perspire.
<i>Post</i> ,	after; <i>as</i> , postpone.
<i>Præ</i> , <i>pre</i> ,	before; <i>as</i> , pre-ordain.
<i>Præter</i> ,	beside, past; <i>as</i> , pretermitt.
<i>Pro</i> ,	forth; <i>as</i> , project.
<i>Re</i> ,	back; <i>as</i> , remit.
<i>Retro</i> ,	backwards; <i>as</i> , retrospection.
<i>Se</i> ,	apart; <i>as</i> , separate.
<i>Sub</i> , (<i>sub</i> , <i>suc</i> , <i>sur</i>),	under; <i>as</i> , subject.
<i>Subter</i> ,	underneath; <i>as</i> , subterfuge.
<i>Super</i> ,	over; <i>as</i> , superfluous.
<i>Trans</i> ,	across; <i>as</i> , transport.
<i>Ultra</i> ,	beyond; <i>as</i> , ultramontane.

GREEK PREFIXES.

<i>A</i> or <i>an</i> (<i>a</i> , <i>ar</i>),	not; <i>as</i> , anarchy.
<i>Amphi</i> (<i>αμφι</i>),	both; <i>as</i> , amphibious.
<i>Ana</i> (<i>ανα</i>),	up; <i>as</i> , anatomy.
<i>Anti</i> (<i>αντι</i>),	against; <i>as</i> , antichristian.

<i>Apo</i> (απο),	from ; as, apostle.
<i>Arch</i> (αρχος),	first or chief ; as, archangel.
<i>Auto</i> (αυτος),	self ; as, autocrat.
<i>Cata</i> (κατα),	down ; as, catastrophe.
<i>Dia</i> (δια),	through ; as, diameter.
<i>En</i> (εν),	in ; as, enharmonic.
<i>Epi</i> (επι),	upon ; as, epitaph.
<i>Ex</i> (εξ),	out of ; as, exodus.
<i>Eu</i> (ευ),	well ; as, euphony.
<i>Hemi</i> (ημι),	half ; as, hemisphere.
<i>Hetero</i> (ετερος),	different ; as, heterogeneous.
<i>Hyper</i> (υπερ),	over ; as, hypercritical.
<i>Hypo</i> (υπο),	under ; as, hypothesis.
<i>Meta</i> (μετα),	change ; as, metamorphosis.
<i>Para</i> (παρα),	beside ; as, paradox.
<i>Peri</i> (περι),	around ; as, perimeter.
<i>Syn, syl, sym</i> (συν),	with ; as, sympathy, syllogism.

The affixes will be explained in treating of the structure of each individual part of speech.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS.

What words are termed roots ? Give examples of roots. What words are termed primary derivatives ? Give examples of primary derivatives. What words are termed secondary derivatives ? Give examples of secondary derivatives. What words are called compound words ? Give examples of compound words. What is the principal basis of the English language ? Of the thirty-eight thousand words in common use in the English language, how many are derived from this source ? What classes of words are principally of Saxon origin ? Give examples. Give examples of words having Celtic roots assimilated to the Anglo-Saxon. From what other sources are the words derived ? Explain the introduction of Norman-French words. Give examples of Norman-French words. Account for the presence of Latin words in the language. Give examples of words of Latin origin. In what form, generally, have Latin words been brought into the language ? Give examples to illustrate this. How are the words introduced from the Greek generally employed ? Give the reason for this. Give examples to illustrate it. From what other sources have a few words been introduced ? How are the secondary derivatives generally formed ? Give examples. How many Saxon prefixes are there ? Repeat them. Give the signification of each of the Saxon prefixes, accompanied with an example to illustrate it. How many Latin prefixes are there ? Repeat them. Give the signification of each of the Latin prefixes, accompanied with an

example to illustrate it. How many Greek prefixes are there? Repeat them. Give the signification of each, accompanied with an example to illustrate it.

EXERCISE ON THE PREFIXES.

1. Point out the prefixes in the following words, and give their exact meaning; and state from what language they are derived.

Forewarn, incursion, paradox, oblation, reprove, extract, introduce, automaton, eclipse, disintegrate, illicit, misuse, abstract, accede, amphibious, withstand, circumlocution, episcopacy, retrieve, protrude, retrograde, epitaph, midway, election, oppose, anarchy, archetype, euphony, hemisphere, outdo, retain, supersede, subsequent, anabaptist, heterogeneous, biped, subterfuge, coincidence, ascend, insatiable.

4. STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN.

466. English nouns are either,—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives or Stems; 3. Secondary Derivatives or Branches; or, 4. Compound Words.

1. The original *noun roots* of the English language consist of the names of all the common objects of nature and human life around us; such as, *Sun, moon, star, sea, stone, rock, hill, father, mother, sister, brother, hope, fear, love, shame, eye, ear, hand, arm, foot, lip, cow, sheep, dog, cat, &c.*

These words, and others of the same kind, have descended to us through our Saxon forefathers from a period lying beyond all reach of historical research, having undergone only partial changes in spelling and pronunciation, without at all losing their fundamental character.

2. English nouns, which come under the title of *primary derivatives*, are also, with few exceptions, of Saxon origin. They are formed as follows:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel of the root; as, *Bless, bliss; feed, food; bind, bond; knit, knot, net; sit, seat; sing, song; strike, stroke, &c.*

(2.) By modifying the final consonant of the root, or adding another consonant; as, *Stick, stitch; dig, ditch; heal, health; drive, drift; smite, smith; believe, belief; prove, proof.*

(3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, *live, life; loss, lose; choose, choice; weave, west; thieve, theft, &c.*

3. English nouns, which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes.

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following affixes:—

(1.) *Signifying agent or doer.*

<i>er,</i>	as, sing, singer.	} Derived from verbs.
<i>ar,</i>	as, lie, liar.	
<i>ard or art,</i>	as, drink, drunkard; hug, huggart.	
<i>ster,</i>	as, pun, punster.	
<i>ess (fam)</i>	as, seam, seamstress	

(2.) *Forming Diminutives.*

<i>ling,</i>	as, dear, darling.	} Derived from nouns.
<i>kin,</i>	as, lamb, lambkin.	
<i>ock,</i>	as, hill, hillack.	
<i>let or et,</i>	as, stream, streamlet; flower, floweret.	

(3.) *Denoting abstract ideas, such as State, Condition, Action, &c.*

<i>ship,</i>	as, friend, friendship.	} Derived from nouns.
<i>hood or head,</i>	as, man, manhood	
<i>dom,</i>	as, king, kingdom	
<i>ery,</i>	as, slave, slavery	
<i>age,</i>	as, till, tillage.	} Derived from verbs.
<i>ter,</i>	as, laugh, laughter.	
<i>lock,</i>	as, wed, wedlock.	} Derived from adjectives.
<i>ness,</i>	as, white, whiteness.	

(4.) *Denoting Instrument.*

<i>le,</i>	as, girl, grille.	} Derived from verbs.
<i>el,</i>	as, shove, shovel.	
<i>et,</i>	as, hack, hatchet.	

B. Latin and French derivatives are formed by the following affixes:—

(1.) *Signifying an agent or a person generally.*

<i>tor, sor,</i>	as, auditor, sponsor.	From Latin nouns in <i>tor</i> and <i>sor</i> .
<i>trix,</i>	as, eccentric.	From Latin nouns in <i>trix</i> .
<i>cer,</i>	as, auctioneer.	} From French nouns ending in <i>aire</i> , and <i>ter, eur</i> .
<i>ee,</i>	as, legatee.	

(2.) *Forming Diminutives.*

<i>aster,</i>	as, poetaster.	From Italian nouns in <i>astro</i> .
<i>cule, le,</i>	as, animalcule.	} From Latin nouns in <i>culus</i> , -a, -um; as, <i>animalculum, particula</i>
<i>icle,</i>	as, particle.	

(3.) *Signifying abstract ideas.*

<i>ary.</i>	as, commentary.	{ From Latin words in <i>arius</i> ; as, <i>commentarius</i> .
<i>cy.</i>	as, clemency.	{ From Latin words in <i>tia</i> ; as, <i>clementia</i> .
<i>ence, unce,</i>	as, penitence.	{ From Latin words in <i>antia</i> or <i>entia</i> ; as, <i>pœnitentia</i> .
<i>ice,</i>	as, justice.	{ From Latin words in <i>itia</i> ; as, <i>justitia</i> .
<i>ion, tion, sion</i>	as, action, passion.	{ From Latin words in <i>io</i> ; as, <i>ortio</i> .
<i>ment,</i>	as, ornament.	{ From Latin words in <i>men-</i> <i>tum</i> ; as, <i>ornamentum</i> .
<i>our,</i>	as, ardour.	{ From Latin words in <i>or</i> , through the French ; as, <i>ardor, ardeur</i> .
<i>ty, ity,</i>	as, dignity.	{ From Latin words in <i>tas</i> ; as, <i>dignitas</i> .
<i>tude,</i>	as, multitude.	{ From Latin words in <i>tudo</i> ; as, <i>multitudo</i> .
<i>ture, sure</i>	as, tincture.	{ From Latin words in <i>ura</i> ; as, <i>tinctura</i> .

Many nouns of the above description are formed directly from *verbs*, by simply changing the accent, *e.g.*, *To affix*, an *áffix* ; *To export*, an *éxport*, &c.

C. Greek derivatives are formed by the following affixes :—

(1.) *Signifying agent or person.*

<i>an,</i>	as, musician.	From Greek words in <i>kos</i> (<i>kos</i>).
<i>ist,</i>	as, sophist. <i>ιστης</i> (<i>istēs</i>).
<i>ite,</i>	as, Israelite (patronymic). <i>ιτης</i> (<i>itēs</i>).

(2.) *Forming Diminutives.*

<i>isk,</i>	as, asterisk.	From Greek <i>αστερισκος</i> .
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(3.) *SIGNIFYING ABSTRACT IDEAS.*

<i>e, y,</i>	as, epitome, anarchy.	From Greek nouns in <i>η</i> (<i>ē</i>).
<i>ism, em,</i>	as, deism.	{ From Greek nouns in <i>ισμος</i> or <i>ισμα</i> (<i>ismos</i> or <i>isma</i> .)
<i>ic, ics,</i>	as, arithmetic.	{ From Greek adjectives in <i>ικος</i> , <i>α. -ov</i> (<i>kos, -a. -on.</i>)
<i>ma,</i>	as, panorama.	From Greek nouns in <i>μα</i> (<i>ma</i> .)
<i>sis,</i>	as, hypothesis.	From Greek nouns in <i>σις</i> (<i>sis</i> .)

4. *Compound nouns* of Saxon origin exist largely in the present English language and are not unfrequently coined as necessity requires ; *e.g.*, *housemaid, railroad, helmsman, steamboat, cast-iron*, &c.

Compound words, derived from Latin and Greek, are borrowed in their compound form from those languages. New ones are coined only for scientific purposes.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN.

Into what classes do you divide the words used as nouns, according to their structure? Of the names of what do the original noun roots consist? Give examples. Of what origin are the nouns in the class of primary derivatives, and how are they formed? Give examples of words formed in each of the three ways. How are the nouns in the class of secondary derivatives formed? Give the affixes employed in forming Saxon derivatives that signify an agent or doer. Give an example to illustrate each. From what class of words are these derived?

Give those employed in forming diminutives. Illustrate each by an example. From what are these derived? Give the affixes employed in forming Saxon derivatives that denote abstract ideas, such as state, condition, action, &c. Illustrate the signification of each by an example. Which of those are applied to words derived from nouns? Which to those derived from verbs? Which to those derived from adjectives? Give the affixes employed in forming Saxon derivatives denoting *Instrument*. Illustrate each by an example. Give the affixes employed in forming Latin and French derivatives that signify an *agent* or person generally. Illustrate the signification of each by an example, stating whether it is derived from the Latin or French. Give the affixes employed in forming diminutives derived from the Latin or French, &c. Illustrate the signification of each by an example, stating from which it is derived. Give the affixes employed in forming Latin and French derivatives signifying *abstract ideas*. Illustrate the signification of each by an example, stating from which it is derived. Give examples of nouns of this kind formed directly from verbs by changing the accent. Give the affixes employed in forming Greek derivatives signifying an agent or person. Illustrate the signification of each by an example. Give those forming diminutives. Illustrate the signification of each by an example. Give those forming abstract ideas. Illustrate the signification of each by an example. What is said of *compound* nouns of Saxon origin? Give examples. What is said of compound words derived from the Latin and Greek?

EXERCISE ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN.

1. Write out a list of ten noun *roots*, ten *primary* derivatives, ten *secondary* derivatives, and ten compound words.

2. Write primary derivatives from the following roots, and explain what change has taken place.—*Bless, bite, deal, sing, prove, breathe, love, choose, live, bathe, weave, strive, speak, use, &c.*

3. Point out the affixes in the following Saxon derivatives, and state the meaning of each.—*Liar, darling, hillock, kingdom, horsemanship, slavery, laughter, hatchet, shovel, girdle, &c.*

4. Point out the affixes in the following Latin and Greek derivatives, and state the meaning of each.—*Particle, animalcula, ex-ecutrix, aversion, penitence, Jebusite, dignity, condiment, fissure, export, academician, royalist, globule, region, independence.*

5. State from what language the following affixes are derived, and what they each imply: -ard, -ess, -kin, -sor, -tor, -trix, -eer, -ist, -leng, -let, -lock, -tude, -ence, -ary, -sure, -el, -ness, -hood, &c.

6. Write out ten nouns signifying an agent; ten diminutives; ten denoting abstract ideas; ten signifying instrument; and state from what language each is derived.

7. Classify the following words according to their structure, and put each class in a separate list.—*End, stream, snuff, goodness, character, ideal, sun, strife, year, foremost, fear, child, proud, cloth, night, heaven, people, tyrant.*

5. STRUCTURE OF THE ADJECTIVE.

467. English Adjectives, like English Nouns, are either,—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives; 3. Secondary Derivatives; or 4. Compound Words.

1. Many adjectives derived from the Saxon are *roots*, inasmuch as no simpler form of the word can now be assigned from which they have originally sprung. Such are, *good, bad, long, short, high, thin, thick, white, black, &c.*

2. English adjectives, which come under the title of *primary derivatives*, are also of Saxon origin.

They are formed, like the noun-stems, from verbs and nouns, or other adjectives, in the following ways:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel; as, *fill, full; wring, wrong; pride, proud; string, strong.*

(2.) By modifying or adding a consonant; as, *loathe, loth; four, fourth.*

(3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, *wit, wise; five, fifth.*

3. English adjectives which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes:—

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following :—

<i>ed</i> ,	as, left-handed.	Participle form of adjective.
<i>en</i> ,	as, wooden.	Meaning <i>material</i> .
<i>ern</i> ,	as, southern.	{ ... <i>direction</i> (used with the points of the compass.)
<i>erly</i> ,	as, southerly.	
<i>fold</i> ,	as, fourfold.	... <i>repetition</i> .
<i>ful</i> ,	as, truthful.	... <i>full of</i> .
<i>ish</i> ,	as, whitish, boyish.	{ ... <i>rather</i> (diminutive) and sometimes <i>likeness</i> .
<i>less</i> ,	as, houseless.	
<i>like</i> ,	as, lifelike.	... <i>without</i> .
<i>ly</i> ,	as, lovely.	... <i>resemblance or fitness</i> .
<i>some</i> ,	as, winsome.	... <i>possession of some quality</i> .
<i>ward</i> ,	as, windward.	... <i>direction to a place</i> .
<i>y</i> ,	as, mighty.	The adjectival form of a noun.
<i>un</i> (prefix),	as, ungodly.	Meaning <i>not</i> .

B. Latin derivatives are formed by the following :—

<i>al</i> ,	as, equal.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>alias</i> ; as, <i>equalis</i> .
<i>an</i> ,	as, human.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>anus</i> ; as, <i>humanus</i> .
<i>ant, ent</i> ,	as, elegant, eminent.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>ans, ens</i> ; as, <i>elegans</i> .
<i>e</i> , (preced- ed by a conson- ant),	as, marine.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>nus</i> (preceded by a consonant) ; as, <i>marinus</i> .
<i>fic</i> ,	as, horrific.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>ficus</i> ; as, <i>horrificus</i> .
<i>ferous</i> ,	as, carboniferous.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>fer</i> and <i>ferus</i> ; as, <i>pestifer</i> or <i>pestiferus</i> .
<i>ible, able</i> ,	as, visible.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>bilis</i> ; as, <i>visibilis</i> .
<i>id</i> ,	as, timid.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>idus</i> ; as, <i>timidus</i> .
<i>il, ile</i> .	as, fertile.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>ilis</i> ; as, <i>fertilis</i> .
<i>olent</i> ,	as, violent.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>olens</i> ; as, <i>violens</i> .
<i>ose, ous</i> ,	as, verbose, copious.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>osus</i> ; as, <i>verbosus, copiosus</i> .
<i>ple, ble</i> ,	as, triple, double.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>plex</i> ; as, <i>triplex</i> .
<i>tory, sory</i> ,	as, migratory.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>torius, sorius</i> ; as, <i>migratorius</i> .

<i>tive</i>	as, captive.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>tivus</i> ; as, <i>captivus</i> .
<i>vous</i> ,	as, arduous.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>vus</i> ; as, <i>arduus</i> .
<i>que</i> (French) as,	oblique.	{ From Latin adjectives in <i>quus</i> ; as, <i>obliquus</i> .

C. Greek derivatives are formed simply by—

<i>ic</i> ,	as, hieroglyphic.	{ From Greek adjectives in <i>ικος</i> ;
<i>ical</i> ,	as, arithmetical.	as <i>αριθμητικος</i> .

4. Compound adjectives exist to a large extent in the English language, particularly in the participial form ; as, *left-handed*, *right minded*, *blue-eyed*, &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE ADJECTIVE.

Into how many classes are English adjectives divided according to their structure ? Give examples of Saxon adjectives which are original roots. From what source do the adjectives that are primary derivatives come ? From what are they formed ? How are they formed ? Give examples of adjectives formed in each way. How are adjectives of the class of secondary derivatives formed ? Give the affixes employed in forming the Saxon secondary derivatives. Illustrate the signification of each by an example. Give the affixes employed in forming the Latin secondary derivatives. Illustrate each by an example, stating from what Latin adjective it is derived. How are the Greek adjectives of the class of secondary derivatives formed ? Illustrate each by an example. What is said of compound adjectives ?

EXERCISE ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE ADJECTIVE.

1. Write or give a list of ten original roots.
2. Write primary derivatives from the following words :—
String, die, heal, heat, trow, wring, pride, save.
3. Point out the affixes and give their meaning in the following secondary derivatives :—
Dusty, mountainous, verbose, fruitful, homeward, carboniferous, intelligent, imaginative, friendly, hopeless, handsome, witty, southern, sevenfold, edible, catable, earthen, blackish, &c.
4. Write out a list of twenty Saxon derivatives, and twenty Latin derivatives, and state what the affix of each implies.

6. STRUCTURE OF THE PRONOUN.

468. Pronouns are either.—1. Original Roots; 2. Derivatives; or, 3, Compound Words.

All of them are of Saxon origin, except "*one*."

1. The pronouns which may be regarded as *original roots* in the English language, are, *I, me, we, us, thou, ye, you, he, she, it, they, who, self*.

OBSERVATION.—Of the above, *he, she, it*, and *they*, were not originally personal pronouns, but demonstrative adjectives (like the Latin *hic* and *ille*); but they are, nevertheless, original roots, which have come to be used pronominally.

2. The following pronominal forms are *derivatives* :—

<i>Thee,</i>	Objective form from <i>thou</i> .
<i>Him,</i>	Originally a dative form from the masc. <i>he</i> and neut. <i>hit</i> of the Saxon <i>he, heo, hit</i> , (he, she, it); now an objective masc.
<i>Her,</i>	Originally a feminine dative and possessive form from the Saxon <i>heo</i> .
<i>Them,</i>	Originally a dative form from the Saxon <i>that</i> .
<i>My,</i>	Possessive form from <i>me</i> .
<i>Thy,</i> <i>thou</i> .
<i>Our,</i> <i>we</i> .
<i>Your,</i> <i>you</i> .
<i>Their,</i> <i>they</i> .
<i>Mine,</i> <i>my</i> .
<i>Thine,</i> <i>thy</i> .
<i>Hers,</i> <i>her</i> .
<i>His,</i> <i>his</i> .
<i>Ours,</i> <i>our</i> .
<i>Yours,</i> <i>your</i> .
<i>Theirs,</i> <i>their</i> .
<i>Its,</i> <i>it</i> (modern).
<i>Whom,</i>	Objective form from <i>who</i> ; originally dative.
<i>What,</i>	Neuter form from <i>who</i> .
<i>One,</i>	Derived from the French <i>on</i> , which is an abbreviation of <i>homme</i> .
<i>One's,</i>	Possessive form of <i>one</i> .
<i>Which,</i>	A compound form originally from <i>who</i> and <i>like</i> (in the Scottish dialect <i>whilk</i>).

3. The *compound* pronouns are those formed by the union of the words *self* and *own*, with various of the personal and possessive pronouns; as, *myself, my own, themselves, one's self*, &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE PRONOUN.

Into how many classes are pronouns divided according to their derivation and structure ? Of what origin are they ? Which are the pronouns which belong to the class of original roots ? Which of the pronominal forms are derivatives, and from what is each form derived ? What is said of the compound pronouns ?

7. STRUCTURE OF THE VERB.

469. English verbs are either,—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives; or, 3. Secondary Derivatives.

Compound Verbs can hardly be said to exist in the English language.

1. All the English verbs of the old form of conjugation are of Saxon origin, and all of them form *original roots* of the English language.

A considerable number of other verbs, which are now conjugated according to the modern form, were once conjugated according to the ancient; as, *climb, laugh, quake*, &c. These have also to be regarded as original roots of the language.

2. English verbs which come under the title of *primary derivatives*, are, with very few exceptions, also of Saxon origin. They are formed from original nouns and verbs in the following ways:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel; as, *lie, lay; sit, set; fly, flee; fall, fell*, &c.

This class is all of Saxon origin.

(2.) By modifying the last consonant, either as to form or pronunciation; as, *advice, advise; bath, bathe; grease, grease; use, use*, &c.

Observations.—(a) This class of verbs is formed from nouns, and they are, in some few cases, of Latin origin.

(b) The *e* at the end of *bathe, breathe*, &c., is added only to modify the sound of the preceding consonant.

(3) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, *drink, drench; glass, glaze; hound, hunt; wring, wrench*, &c.

(4) By prefixing, *s* or *t*; as, *dun, stun; melt, smelt; whirl, twirl*, &c.

B. English verbs which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes.

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following :—

<i>en</i> ,	as, heighten, weaken; signifying to <i>make</i> .	
<i>er</i> ,	as, climb, clamber;	<i>frequentative force</i> .
<i>ish</i> ,	as, burn, tarnish;	(various).
<i>le</i> ,	as, nip, nibble;	<i>frequentative force</i> .
<i>y</i> ,	as, soil, sully;	to make.

Remark.—Many nouns and adjectives have been turned into verbs without any change whatever; as,

Dry,	To dry.
Cool,	To cool.
Rain,	To rain.
Salt,	To salt.

An increasing tendency (which ought to be resisted) to use the same word for different parts of speech, is perceptible in the present day. Many such verbs have now become accepted; as, to *crop* a farm; to *advocate* a cause; to *ship* goods, &c. But such licences should be very sparingly admitted.

B. Latin derivatives are formed—

(1.) From the root of the verb; as,

Discern,	from	Discernere.
Concur,	"	Concurrere.
Condemn,	"	Condemnare.
Defend,	"	Defendere.
Inflect,	"	Inflectere.
&c.		&c.

The root is got by throwing off the terminations of the infinitive; *discere, docere, defendere, &c.*

(2.) From the supine of the verb; as,

Act,	from	Actum.
Audit,	"	Auditum.
Accept,	"	Acceptum.
Credit,	"	Creditum.
Debit,	"	Debitum.
Affect,	"	Affectum.
Investigate,	"	Investigatum.
Expedite,	"	Expeditum.
&c.		&c.

C. Greek derivatives are formed by the termination *ise* or *ize*; as, *baptize* (from βαπτίζω).

This termination, *ise* or *ize*, has been adopted to form many modern English verbs; as, to *Germanize*; to *Italianize*, &c.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE VERB.

Into what classes are English verbs divided according to their origin and structure?—Which verbs are original roots?—What is their origin?—What is the origin of the primary derivatives?—How are they formed?—Give examples of primary derivatives formed in each way?—How are the secondary derivatives formed?—Give the affixes used in forming the Saxon secondary derivatives?—Illustrate the signification of each by an example?—Give examples of Saxon nouns and adjectives turned into verbs, without any change whatever?—How are the Latin secondary derivatives formed?—Give examples?—How are Greek derivatives formed?

EXERCISE ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE VERB.

1. Give a list of English root verbs and their principal part.
2. Give primary derivatives from the following roots:—*Fall, rise, will, strew, hound, rush, fly, drop, draw, breathe, sit, lie, blood, melt, wash, shake, dry.*
3. Point out the affixes, if any, of the following words, and determine their meaning:—*Scatter, whiten, harden, imitate, clamber, prattle, exist, assist, linger, shuffle, bully, baptize, suspect, terminate, expedite, inhabit.*
4. Give a list of twenty Saxon, twenty Latin, and five Greek derivatives; explain the force of the affix in each, or show where an affix is wanting.

8. STRUCTURE OF THE ADVERB.

470. English Adverbs are either—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives; 3. Secondary Derivatives; or, 4. Compound Words.

1. The *original* adverbs of the English language consist of a few monosyllables derived from the Saxon; such as, *now, then, there, here, oft, well, ill, not, so, thus.*

Obs.—*Then, there, thus, and here,* have now been traced pretty clearly to genitive, accusative, and dative forms of the Saxon demonstrative pronouns.

2. *Primary derivatives* are formed—

(1.) From numerals; as,

Once, twice, thrice; from *one, two, three*. These were originally the ordinary *genitive* forms of the numerals.

(2.) From nouns; as,

Need, Genitive of *need*.
Whilom, Dative of *while*.

So also we say—

Mornings, for Of a morning (Ger. *morgens*).
Evenings, " Of an evening (Ger. *abends*).
Mondays, " Of a Monday.

(3.) From other adverbs; as,

Thence, thither, from *There*.
Hence, hither, " *Here*.

Observations.—(a) A few cases also occur in which adverbs are formed out of adjectives and prepositions by adding the *genitive* termination *s*; as,

Unawares, from *Unaware*.
Besides, " *Beside*.

(b) A large number of the prepositions are joined to verbs, and used adverbially, without any change in their form. Thus we say, To go *down, up, in, about, through, across, &c.*

(c) The participle form of the verb is sometimes used adverbially; as, The man came *walking*; The church stood *gleaming* among the trees.

All the primary derivatives amongst the English adverbs are of Saxon origin, and nearly all have been primarily inflexions of nouns, pronouns, or adjectives.

3. English adverbs which come under the title of *secondary derivatives*, are formed in the following ways:—

(1.) By the affixes—

ly; as, wisely, cunningly.

This may be termed the *general* form of the adverb, when derived regularly from the corresponding adjective.

ward or *wards*; as, backward, from back. } Signifying
sidewards, " side. } direction.
ways or *wise*; as, always, " all.
likewise, " like.

The terminations *wise* and *ward* are only used with Saxon derivatives; *ly* is a *universal adverbial form* for all derivatives.

(2.) By the prefixes:—

a; as, ashore, abroad, adrift, aground.

be; as, behind, betimes.

These two prefixes are the remains of the prepositions *on* and *by*.

4. There are a great number of *compound* adverbs in the English language, formed by combining together various other parts of speech; as, *forthwith*, *peradventure*, *pell-mell*, *see-saw*, *sometimes*, *somewhere*, *thereabout*, *straightway*, *yesterday*, *to-morrow*, *henceforward*, *headlong*, &c.

We may add also those derived from compound adjectives; as, *left-handedly*, *good-naturedly*, *ill-manneredly*, &c.

9. STRUCTURE OF THE PREPOSITION.

471. Prepositions may be divided, in relation to their structure, into three kinds—1. Simple Original Prepositions; 2. Derivatives; 3. Verbal Prepositions.

1. The *simple original* prepositions of the English language are the following:—*At*, *by*, *for*, *from*, *in*, *on*, *of*, *till*, *to*, *through*, *up*, *with*.

Remark.—As prepositions are relational words, and always appear later in the development of a language than words conveying notions, it is probable that none of them are, strictly speaking, original roots, but that they have been formed out of nouns and verbs. This formation, however, is so remote, that they may be considered practically as simple and original forms.

2. Of *derived* prepositions, many are formed from verbs, adjectives, and other parts of speech, by the use of the prefixes—

a; as, *amid*, *about*, *above*, *along*, *among*, *athwart*, *around*, *against*, *be*; as, *beside*, *before*, *below*, *beneath*, *between*, *beyond*.

Others are formed by combining two simple prepositions together; as, *into*, *unto*, *upon*, *within*, *without*, *throughout*.

3. *Verbal* prepositions are simply the imperative and participial forms of verbs used prepositionally; e.g., *Concerning*, *during*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *saving*, and *except*.

All the prepositions of the first and second class are of Saxon origin; those of the third, of Latin.

10. STRUCTURE OF THE CONJUNCTION.

472. English Conjunctions may be class-

ed under the three heads—1. Simple; 2. Derivative; 3. Compound.

1. The *simple* conjunctions of the English language are,—*And, or, but, if, as.*

2. The *derived* conjunctions are such as—*Nor, neither, either, than, though, whether, even, for, that, since, seeing, except.*

3. *Compound* conjunctions are such as are made up of two or more other words; as, *Howbeit, in as far as, nevertheless, moreover, wherefore, whereas, although, &c.*

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE ADVERB, PREPOSITION AND CONJUNCTION.

How are English adverbs divided according to their origin and structure?—Of what do the original adverbs consist?—Repeat eight or ten examples of them?—What is said of *then, there, these*? How are the primary derivatives formed?—Give examples of primary derivatives formed in each way?—What is the origin and use of this class of adverbs?—How are adverbs belonging to the class of secondary derivatives formed?—Give examples of adverbs of this class formed in each way?—Give examples of compound adjectives?

PREPOSITION.

How may prepositions be divided according to their origin and structure?—Which are the simple original prepositions?—What is their probable remote origin?—How are derived prepositions formed?—Give examples.—What are verbal prepositions?—Give examples.

CONJUNCTION.

How may conjunctions be divided according to their structure?—Name the simple conjunctions.—Name the derived conjunctions.—Name the compound conjunctions.

EXERCISE ON THE STRUCTURE OF THE ADVERB PREPOSITION AND CONJUNCTION.

1. Give a list of original adverbs, and of primary derivatives showing from what the latter are derived.

2. In the following, point out the affixes and prefixes, and determine the meaning of each:—*Always, shortly, daily, likewise, abroad, betimes, heavenward, forward, adrift, before.*

3. Give a list of twenty compound adverbs.

4. State which of the following prepositions are original, which derived, and which verbal :— *At, by, around, about, on, of, concerning, till, through, against, below, beyond, touching, during, up, with, except.*

5. State which of the following conjunctions are original, which derived, and which compound :— *And, either, or, neither, but, than, through, nevertheless, if, whether, even, since, although, moreover, seeing.*

These exercises should be followed by lessons on the Latin and Greek roots in the language, till exercises, such as the following can be readily done :— Give the Saxon noun and adjective roots, and illustrate each by giving words derived from them.— Give the Latin noun roots, and words derived from each.— Give the Latin verb roots, and words derived from each.— Give the Latin adjective roots, and words derived from each.— Give the Greek noun roots, and words derived from each.— Give the Greek verb roots, and words derived from each.— Give the Greek adjective roots, and words derived from each, &c.

which
concern-
p, with,

which
t, than,
reover,

in and
follow-
roots,
ve the
Latin
adjeo-
noun
roots,
roots,

PART III.

SYNTAX.

DEFINITIONS.

473. SYNTAX treats of the arrangement and combination of words in sentences.

PROPOSITION.

474. A Proposition is a predicate connected with its subject to express a thought; as, "*man is mortal.*"

475. Propositions may be Declaratory; as, *God is love*; or Interrogatory; as, *Will you go?* or Exclamatory; as, *What trouble you have!* or Imperative; as, *Prepare to march.*

476. Propositions may be divided, according to the relation they bear to each other, when united in an extended sentence, into Principal and Subordinate.

477. A Principal Proposition is one which does not depend on or form a subordinate part of any other sentence.

478. A Subordinate Proposition is one which *does* depend on some other sentence, and perform the part of a noun, adjective, or adverb to the word or sentence with which it is subordinately connected; as, I see *that you are in a hurry* (a noun sentence). This is the book *which I lent* (an adjective sentence). I will visit you *when I return* (an adverbial sentence). The term *co-ordinate* is opposed to *subordinate*.

SENTENCE.

479. A Sentence is a proposition ; or, a number of propositions connected together in the expression of an extended thought.

480. A Sentence is either *Simple*, *Complex*, or *Compound*.

481. A Simple Sentence consists of but one proposition ; as, "Columbus discovered America."

482. A Compound Sentence consists of two or more principal propositions co-ordinate with each other ; as, "*It was night and the moon shone brightly.*"

483. A Complex Sentence consists of one principal proposition with one or more subordinate clauses connected with it ; as, "He will be rewarded *when he returns.*"

CLAUSE.

484. The propositions of Compound and Complex Sentences are called, "Clauses."

PHRASE.

485. A Phrase is any combination of words sanctioned by usage which is not a proposition ; as, "*In fact.*" "*Having done so.*" "*To be compelled to wait,*" &c.

486. Phrases are divided, like subordinate clauses, according to the office they perform into *noun*, *adjective*, and *adverbial phrases*.

487. Phrases, like sentences, are also *Simple*, *Complex*, or *Compound*.

488. A phrase is Simple when it has no other phrase either subordinately or co-ordinately connected with it ; as, "*On the ground.*"

489. A phrase is Compound when it consists of two or more phrases co-ordinately connected; as, "At night and in the morning."

490. A phrase is Complex when it consists of two or more phrases subordinately connected; as, "At the close of the day."

491. Phrases may be classed, according to the principal word in them, into Infinitive, Participial, and Prepositional; as, "To have risen no higher." "Having already done so." "Through the woods."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE DEFINITIONS.

What is a proposition? Give an example. In what different ways may a proposition be expressed? Give an example of each. How may propositions be divided, according to the relation they bear to each other? Give examples of each. What is a sentence? Into what three classes are sentences divided? What is a simple sentence? What is a compound sentence? Give an example. What is a complex sentence? Give an example. What is meant by a clause? Give an example. What is meant by a phrase? Give examples of phrases. Phrases supply the place of what three parts of speech? What is the distinction between a simple, compound, and complex phrase? Give examples of each. Give examples of Infinitive, participial, and prepositional phrases.

EXERCISE ON THE DEFINITIONS.

Like the leaves of the forest, they all passed away. The poor fellow, baffled so often, became, at last, disheartened. The money being secured, he completed the purchase. When Æneas landed in Italy is not known. It is obvious why he did not go. Life is short and art is long. What in me is dark, illumine; what is low, raise and support. Talent is power, tact is skill; talent is wealth, tact is ready money. Shall I study the lesson which you gave out yesterday, or shall I write my composition? He is a sensible man though he is not a genius. Land was very low, so I concluded not to sell mine. Enter when I ring the bell. Send your harness to be repaired.

"Triumphal arch! that fillest the sky when storms prepare to part!
I ask not proud philosophy to teach me what thou art."

1. In the above exercise, point out the simple, compound, and complex sentences.

2. Classify each subordinate clause as noun, adjective, or adverbial.

3. Point out the phrases and classify them: 1st., as prepositional, infinitive, and participial. 2nd., as noun, adjective, and adverbial. 3rd., as simple, compound, and complex.

THE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE.

492. Every thought supposes 1st., Something that we think about; and, 2nd., The notion we form about it. The bringing these two notions together so as to express the connection, forms a Proposition. The thing we think about is called the SUBJECT; the word that expresses *what* we think about it is called the PREDICATE. These two constitute the *Primary* and *Essential* elements of a proposition; as,

“*Trees are growing.*”

493. The word that connects the two notions is called the *copula*, and the notion that is connected by the copula to the subject, is called the *attribute*. The copula and attribute taken together, constitute the *predicate*. Thus, in the above example

Predicate.

<i>Subject.</i>	{	<i>Copula.</i>	<i>Attribute.</i>
TREES		ARE	GROWING.

494. In the parts of the verb formed by auxiliaries, the copula is contained in the auxiliary; as, He *will* have written.

495. The Copula and Attribute are not always separated as in the above example, but are more frequently expressed by one word, which must be a verb, called in that case an *attributive verb*.

496. A Proposition which consists only of a simple subject and predicate, and nothing more, is in its barest and most elementary form.

497. The subject in this bare, unmodified form, is called the *Grammatical Subject*, and the predicate the *Grammatical Predicate*.

498. These *two primary elements* may have subordinate elements attached to each of them; for example, "The *millers* left." The transitive verb "*left*," must first be completed by its object, "*city*." "The millers left *the city*."

499. Then other attributes may be added, thus:—

My father's	MILLER	left the city.
My father's	unfortunate MILLER	left the city.
My father's	unfortunate MILLER, Wilson,	left the city.
My father's	unfortunate MILLER, Wilson, from Perth,	left the city.
My father's	unfortunate MILLER, Wilson, from Perth,	
who was convicted of stealing,		left the city.

Here we see how the subject may be modified and enlarged by attaching to it attributes of various kinds.

500. So also, the predicate may be extended by attaching to it modifications of various kinds. Take, for instance, the predicate of the same sentences, "*Left the city*:"—

Left the city *unexpectedly*.
 Left the city *unexpectedly this morning*.
 Left the city *unexpectedly this morning, by the cars*.
 Left the city *unexpectedly this morning, by the cars, for the penitentiary*.
 Left the city *unexpectedly this morning, by the cars, for the penitentiary, when his wife was away*.

501. These modifying words may themselves be modified; as, "father's," *my* father's; "unfortunate," *very* unfortunate, &c. "Left the city," *city of Montreal*; "morning," *stormy* morning; "by the cars," *by the western* cars; "when his wife was away," *just* when his *poor* wife was away, &c.

502. Words introduced in this way to modify the primary elements, and to modify other modifying words, may be called **SUBORDINATE** or **MODIFYING elements**.

503. The words used simply to connect the different words and parts of the sentence together, may be called **CONNECTING elements**.

504. Then, there are other words used *occasionally*, in a way which distinguishes them from any of the three preceding. For instance: **NOUNS** in the **INDEPENDENT CASE**; as, *George*, come here; *The prophets!* where are they? **INTERJECTIONS**; as, *Alas!* is he dead? **EXPLETIVE ADVERBS**; as, *There* was a time. Words used in this way, having no grammatical connection with any other words, may be called **INDEPENDENT elements**.

505. Every word used in any sentence must belong to one or other of these elements. Hence, the elements employed in forming sentences, are:

1. **PRIMARY ELEMENTS** —Subject and Predicate.
2. **SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS**—Complements attached to one or other of the primary or to other subordinate elements.
3. **CONNECTING ELEMENTS** —Conjunctions, Conjunctive Adverbs, and Relative Pronouns.
4. **INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS**—Address, Pleonasm, Before a Participle, Expressing Cause, Reason, &c., Exclamation, &c.

PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE.

SUBJECT.

506. The Subject being the person or thing about which the assertion is made, must be a noun or some word or combination of words supplying the place of a noun, and as a noun may be expanded into a phrase, and into a sentence; hence, The *Subject* of a verb may be a *word*, or a *phrase*, or a *sentence*; for instance,

Word { A Noun—*James* reads the book.
 { A Pronoun—*You* read the book.
 { An Adjective—*The good alone* are great.

Phrase { An Infinitive—*To speak plainly*, is my intention.
 { A Participial—*Walking into the country* is pleasant.

Clause {	Fact,	<i>That you were mistaken</i> is now manifest.
	Time,	— <i>When he will return</i> is quite uncertain.
	Place,	— <i>Where I saw you before</i> has escaped my memory.
	Quotation—	" <i>I cannot do it</i> " never accomplished anything.

SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX SUBJECT.

507. The Subject may be either simple, compound, or complex.

A Simple Subject consists of only one subject of thought; as, *Lights were shining.*

508. A Compound Subject consists of two or more Simple Subjects of the same kind (either words, or phrases, or propositions) to which belongs but one predicate; as, "William and Thomas will be here to-morrow." "My having succeeded in my mission, and relieved myself of all responsibility, affords me great relief." "That he should make such a statement, and that they should credit it, surprise me much."

509. A Complex Subject consists of two or more Simple Subjects of different kinds (words, phrases and clauses) to which belongs but one predicate; as, "The occurrence itself, and its having been concealed from you, look very suspicious." "The difficulty of the undertaking, but especially that it should have been so cleverly executed, does him great credit."

THE PREDICATE.

510. The PREDICATE is that which is affirmed of the subject.

511. The Predicate affirms either what the subject *is*, or what it *does*, or what *is done to it*; as, "*James reads the book.*" "*James is a student.*" "*James is praised by his friends.*"

512. The simple or grammatical predicate, like the subject, may be expanded into a *phrase*, and even into a *sentence*, by separating the copula and attribute; thus:—

Word { Attributive Intransitive Verb—The snow *melts*.
 { Attributive Transitive Verb—They *built* a ship.

					ATTRIBUTES.
	{	Copula and Noun,	—James is a	<i>scholar</i> .	
		" Pronoun,	— " "	<i>he</i> .	
		" Adjective,	— " "	<i>kind</i> .	
Phrase	{	" Adjunct,	— " "	<i>in Toronto</i> .	
		" Adverb,	— " "	<i>here</i> .	
		" Participle,	— " "	<i>learned</i> .	
		" Infinitive,	— " "	<i>to be married</i> .	

Clause [Noun sentence,—The order is, *that we must return*.

SIMPLE, COMPOUND AND COMPLEX PREDICATE.

513. The Predicate, like the Subject, is either Simple, Compound, or Complex.

A Simple Predicate ascribes to its subject but one attribute; as, "Life is *short*." "Time *flies*."

514. A Compound Predicate consists of two or more simple predicates of the same kind affirmed of one subject; as,

"He tried each art, reprov'd each dull delay,
 Allured to brighter worlds and led the way."

515. A Predicate may be called complex that consists of two or more simple predicates of different kinds, differently connected or so different in themselves, as to require special words to be attached to each to make them harmonize with what follows; as "I consented and was about to start, but had not yet taken my ticket." "That sentence is too long and reads badly, but is not without merit." "A name can only describe, stand for, and be a name of things of which it can be predicated.

COMPLETION OF THE PREDICATE.

516. When the Predicate is a transitive verb, it must be completed by some word or words representing the thing to which the action is done, called its object. The

object, therefore, like the subject, may take the form of a word, phrase, or clause; as,

Word { Noun, —The man digs the garden.
Pronoun —We see *him*.
Adjective,—We instruct *the ignorant*.

Phrase { Infinitive, —James loves *to travel*.
Participial,—If he escapes *being banished from the school*.

Clause { Quotation, —He replied, "*Knowledge is power.*"
Result, —I fear *that you will loose it*.
Fact, —I doubt not *but that you were justified*.
Indirect question,—I understand *who is to blame*.
" " —I have heard *what you want*.
" " —I know *where you were*.
" " —I enquired *how* he did it.

517. The objective, like the subject, may be either *Simple, Compound or Complex*.

The objective is **SIMPLE** when it is a single word, phrase, or proposition.

518. The Objective is **COMPOUND** when two or more words, phrases, or propositions co-ordinately connected stand as the objective of the verb; as, "I met James, William and John." "He invited my brother and me to examine his library."

519. The Objective is **COMPLEX** when *two* words are required to express it completely; for instance,

DIRECT AND REMOTE OBJECT.

He taught them logic.
The ring cost me five dollars.
He offered us his carriage.
Ask him his opinion.
I told him what I wanted.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECT.

We call him a doctor.
This reduced it to an absurdity.
They accused him of treachery.
He commanded the army to
I heard him call. [march.

BOTH DIRECT AND REMOTE.

"Did I request *thee, Maker, from my clay*
To mould me man?"—MILTON.

ENLARGED OR LOGICAL SUBJECT.

520. We have seen that the *primary ele-*

ments of a sentence are the *Subject*, and *Predicate*, and that, the Predicate, when a transitive verb, must be completed by its object. We propose now to show more fully how these primary elements may be enlarged and extended by attaching subordinate elements to each.

521. As we found that the *primary elements* can be expressed either by a *word*, *phrase*, or *clause*, so the subordinate elements attached to each, may take the form either of *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*.

522. As we found that the primary elements may be either *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*, so the modifying elements attached to each may be either *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*.

523. As the Subject and Object may be a noun, we must enquire what complements, or enlargements, and what kind of enlargements a *noun* can take.

524. As the Subject and Object may be a *participial* or *infinitive phrase*, we must enquire *what* modifications *participial* and *infinitive phrases* can take.

525. When the Subject, Predicate, or Object is a subordinate clause, the sentence according to the definition would be *complex*. These will, therefore, be examined best under the head of *Complex Sentences*.

521. ENLARGEMENTS OF THE NOUN.

- | | | | |
|--------|---|-------------------------------------|---|
| Word | { | 1. An Adjective or Adjective word : | |
| | | A Limiting, | —The ¹ house. |
| | | A qualifying, | —The new ² house. |
| | { | A Verbal, | —The new house ³ built. |
| | | 2. A Possessive, | —The governor's ⁴ new house built. |
| | | 3. An Apposition Noun, | —The governor's new house, Oak Lodge, built. |
| Phrase | { | 1. Prepositional, | —The piece of ¹ plate. |
| | | 2. Infinitive, | —The piece of plate ² to be presented, |
| | | 3. Participial, | —This piece of plate to be presented, |
| | | | having been injured ³ , is sent to you to be repaired. |

526. The above are the various qualifications or enlargements

by means of words and phrases, which a noun in any position may take. The simple grammatical subject, together with its various enlargements is called the *enlarged* or *logical* subject.

COMPOUND ENLARGEMENT.

527. When two or more extensions of any word are co-ordinately connected, it may be called *Compound*; as,

POSSESSIVE,—“*Allen, Mason and Dixon's* store.”

APPOSITION,—“*Thou more than hero, and just less than sage.*”

ADJECTIVE,—“*A most useful and interesting* book.”

PREPOSITION Phrase,—“*The hour of desperate struggle, and of decisive victory.*”

INFINITIVE “ —“*A day never to be forgotten, and always to be revered.*”

PARTICIPIAL “ —“*The furniture having been taken away and destroyed.*”

COMPLEX ENLARGEMENT.

528. When a qualifying term is itself further qualified and especially when this enlargement is again qualified, and so on to a number of degrees from the principal word, it is called *Complex*; as,

Wolsey, the ¹son of ²a butcher residing ³at Ipswich, a ⁴town in ⁵the south of ⁶England.

A man ¹skilled ²in the learned subtleties ³of the school-men ⁴who generally managed to bewilder, not only their disciples, but themselves.

He chose a question with ¹many points ²of practical interest in it.

“Some angel guide my pencil while I draw
What nothing else than angel can exceed,
A man on earth, devoted to the skies,
Like ships at sea, while in, above the world.”

529. These Complex extensions will require, and should receive, special attention. The modifying clauses, like any other propositions may, of course, be either Simple, Compound, or Complex; but examples need not be given, pupils however should be required to construct examples for themselves.

EXTENDED OR LOGICAL PREDICATE.

530. The predicate in addition to being completed by the objective may be extended by *words, phrases, or clauses*, to express *time, place, manner, &c.*, and these extensions, as in the case of the subject, may be either *simple, complex, or compound*; thus:

531. WORDS, ADVERBS OF

PHRASES.

Time,—I shall see <i>presently</i> .	I will go on Wednesday.
Place,—You will find it <i>there</i> .	He lives <i>in London</i> .
Manner,—You act <i>wisely</i> .	He spoke <i>with caution</i> .
Result,—The milk turned <i>sour</i> .	The wind rose <i>to a hurricane</i> .
Negation,—I did <i>not</i> see it.	I do <i>in no wise</i> agree with you.
Number,—I spoke <i>twice</i> .	I see him <i>now and again</i> .
Interrogative,— <i>How</i> are you?	<i>For what reason</i> do you say so?

532. THE COMPOUND EXTENSION.

COMPLEX EXTENSIONS.

TIME,—I will go <i>on Wednesday or Thursday</i>	I will go on the first Wednesday of May
PLACE—You will find it <i>there or in the drawer</i> .	You will find it <i>in the drawer of the table in the back room upstairs</i> .
MANNER,—You speak <i>tru'y and to the point</i> .	They act <i>in a manner fitted to alarm the people in the neighbourhood of Yorkville</i> .
RESULT.—He painted the house <i>white and brown and oak color</i> .	The wind blew a <i>hurricane most destructive in its effects on the crops of the peasantry of the valley</i> .

MODIFICATION OF MODIFYING WORDS.

533. We have seen in the examples given of complex extensions of the subject and predicate how the subordinate elements may themselves be modified.

534. A *noun* or pronoun as a subordinate element may be qualified in any way in which a noun or pronoun in any other relation or position can be qualified.

An *infinitive*, or *participial phrase* however employed, being verbal in its character, may be completed and modified in all respects, as the verb from which it is derived.

AN ADJECTIVE may be modified:

By an adverb; as, "He is *remarkably* diligent."

By an infinitive; as, "Be *swift to hear*," "Slow to *speak*."

By a prepositional phrase; as, "Be not weary *in well doing*."

AN ADVERB may be modified:

By an adverb; as, "Yours *very* sincerely."

By an adjunct; as, "Agreeably *to nature*."

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON THE PRIMARY ELEMENTS, AND ON THE MODIFICATIONS OF THE PRIMARY ELEMENTS BY WORDS AND PHRASES.

What does every thought suppose? When these two things are brought together, what is the *result*? What then is essential to the expression of a thought? Of what three parts does a proposition consist? Give an example. How is the copula and attribute usually expressed? What is meant by the grammatical subject and grammatical predicate? What then are the primary elements of a sentence? What are the subordinate elements? Illustrate, by an example, the use of the subordinate elements. Point out and classify the subordinate elements in the sentence introduced to illustrate this. Give examples to show that these modifying words may themselves be modified. What other elements may a sentence contain. Illustrate the use of connectives. Give examples of sentences containing independent elements. What must the subject of a proposition be? What *words* may be used as the subject instead of a noun? Give examples. What phrases may be used as the subject? Give examples of each. Give an example of a proposition expressing time used as the subject. Give one expressing action—one expressing place. What is the

distinction between simple, compound, and complex subjects. Give an example of each. What is the predicate? How may the predicate be expanded into a phrase and into a clause? When the copula and attribute are expressed by separate words, by what different words may it be expressed? Give an example of each. By what phrases may the attribute be expressed? Give an example of each. Give an example of a clause used as the attribute. Give examples to show the distinction between a compound and complex predicate. What completion does a transitive verb require? Give an example. When the objective is expressed by a single word, what words may be substituted for a noun? Give an example of each. When the object is expressed by a phrase, what phrases may be used? Give an example of each. When the object is expressed by a clause, what clauses may be used as examples? When may the object be called compound and when complex? Give examples to illustrate the difference between the direct and remote object of a verb, and the direct and indirect object. How may the primary elements of a sentence be modified? In what respects do the subordinate elements resemble the primary? Under what head does the enlargement of the noun by subordinate propositions properly fall? Why? When a noun is modified by single words, what words may be used. Give an example of each. When a noun is modified by phrases, what phrases may be used? Give an example of each. What is meant by the logical subject? Give sentences containing examples of complex enlargement. What modifications does the predicate take? Give examples of the predicate modified by words and phrases to express *time*, *place*, *manner*, *result*, &c. Give a sentence containing a compound modification. Give an example containing a complex modification. What modifications may an infinitive or participial phrase take? Give an example. What modifications does an adjective admit of? Give an example. What modifications does an adverb admit of? Give an example.

EXERCISE.

1. Write six simple sentences, each having a subject of a different kind, (words, phrases, clauses) and each subject enlarged by various complements to the fullest extent, consistent with the requirements of a good sentence, without using complex enlargements.
2. Write six simple sentences, each having a predicate of a different kind, (transitive, intransitive, copula and attribute, &c.) and each predicate extended by various modifications to the fullest extent consistent with the requirements of a good sentence, without using complex modifications.

3. Write six simple sentences, enlarging the subject and extending the predicate (by using complex complements) to the fullest extent, consistent with the requirements of a good sentence.

4. Analyze each of the above eighteen sentences orally; thus,

1. Name the logical subject and logical predicate.
2. Name the grammatical subject.
3. Show the modifications of the grammatical subject.
4. Show by what modifying words, if any, each modifying word is modified.
5. Name the grammatical predicate.
6. Show by what words or phrases the grammatical predicate is modified.
7. Show by what words or phrases each modifying word is modified.

Select and analyze, in the same manner, six such simple sentences from standard prose writers, and six from the standard poets.

FORM FOR WRITTEN EXERCISES IN ANALYZING SIMPLE SENTENCES.

"On the very day of our arrival, my kind-hearted cousin Henry, anxious to hasten us forward to our distressed friends with the least possible delay, dispatched a telegraph, to the next village, directing the stage proprietor to be in readiness to start immediately on our reaching that place."

GENERAL ANALYSIS.

LOGICAL SUBJECT.	GRAMMAT'L PREDICATE.	LOGICAL OBJ.	EXTENSIONS OF THE PREDICATE.
(1) My	COUSIN DESPATCHED	a telegraph	(1) On the very day of our arrival
(2) kind-hearted		directing the stage proprietor to be in readiness to start immediately on our reaching that place.	(2) to the next village
(3) Henry			
(4) anxious to hasten us forward to our distressed friends with the least possible delay			

* The figures (1), (2), (3), &c., are here intended to separate from the others, and keep distinct each attribute of the subject and object, and each extension of the predicate.

FORM FOR MORE DETAILED ANALYSIS.

- a. *On the very day* extension of the PRED. (time) (1).*
- b. *of our arrival* adjunct of *day* in a, (2).
- c. *my* attrib. to Sub. (1).
- d. *kind-hearted* attrib. to Sub. (1).
- e. COUSIN SUBJECT of SENTENCE.
- f. *Henry* attrib. (apposition) to Sub. (1).
- g. *anxious* attrib. to Sub. (1).
- h. *to hasten* objective completion to *g*, (2).
- i. *us* objective completion to *h*, (3).
- j. *forward* modification of *h* with *i* (3) (direction).
- k. *to our distressed friends* adjunct of *h*, (3).
- l. *with the least possible delay* adjunct of *h*, (3).
- m. DISPATCHED PREDICATE of SENTENCE.
- n. *a telegraph* object. to *m*.
- o. *to the next village* exten. of Pred. (1) (place to which).
- p. *directing* attrib. to *n*, (2).
- q. *the stage proprietor* object. to *p*, (3).
- r. *to be in readiness* indirect Obj. to *p*, (3). [stood).
- s. *to start* indirect Obj. to *r*, (4), (*for* under-)
- t. *immediately* modification of *s*, (5), (time).
- v. *on our reaching that place* adjunct of *s*, (5).

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

FOR PRACTICE IN ANALYSIS.

Analyze the following sentences according to the above forms:—

1.

"Of pure barbarisms, I do not mean to give examples, not having met with any in a reputable writer."—*Connon's Grammar*.

2.

"Such terms have a pleasant facility of throwing away the matter in question to scorn without any trouble of making a definite, intelligible charge of extravagance or delusion, and attempting to prove it."—*Foster's Essays*.

3.

"This irrationality of the romancers, and the age, provoked the powerful mind of Cervantes to expose it by means of a parallel, and still more extravagant representation of the prevalence of

* The figures (1), (2), (3), &c., mean one, two, three, &c., removes from the principal parts of the sentence.

imagination over reason, drawn in a ludicrous form, to render the folly palpable even to the sense of that age."—*Foster's Essays*.

4.

"The limitation of the duration of parliament the independence of the judges, the suppression of illegal taxes and courts, of arbitrary arrests and imprisonment, the accountability of the treasury, and the responsibility of ministers, were all acts conducive to the public welfare."—*White's History*.

5.

"A huge and slovenly figure, clad in a greasy brown coat and coarse black worsted stockings, wearing a grey wig with scorched foretop, rolls in his arm chair long past midnight, holding in a dirty hand his nineteenth cup of tea."—*Collier*.

6.

"At that hour, just standing on the threshold of eternity, O how vain was every sublunary happiness! wealth, honor, empire, wisdom, all mere useless sounds as empty as the bubbles of the deep."—*Father Kercher*.

7.

"Wisdom, in sable garb array'd,
Immersed in rapt'rous thought profound,
And melancholy, silent maid,
Still on thy silent steps attend,
With justice to herself severe,
And pity, dropping soft the sadly pleasing tear."—*Gray*.

8.

"Oh, gently, on thy suppliant's head,
Dread power, lay thy chast'ning hand!
Not in thy gorgon terrors clad,
Nor circled with thy vengeful band,
With thundering voice, and threat'ning mien,
With screaming horror's funeral cry,
Despair, and fell disease, and ghastly poverty."—*Gray*.

9.

"He wanders on
From hill to dale still more and more astray,
Impatient flouncing through the drifted heaps;
Stung with the thoughts of home."—*Thompson*.

10.

"These are not wanting: nor the milky drove,
Luxuriant, spread o'er all the lowing vale;
Nor bleating mountains, nor the chide of streams,

And hum of bees, inviting sleep sincere
 Into the guiltless breast, beneath the shade,
 Or thrown at large amid the fragrant hay."—*Thompson.*

11.

"How often, from the steep
 Of echoing hill or thicket, have we heard
 Celestial voices to the midnight air,
 Sole, or responsive each to others' note,
 Singing their great Creator!"—*Milton.*

Each member of the class select extended simple sentences in prose, in poetry, to be read and examined in the class.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

NOUN SENTENCE.

535. We have already seen that a noun, in any position which it can occupy in a sentence, may be expanded into a proposition, thereby changing the sentence from simple to *complex*. Such subordinate clauses are called **NOUN SENTENCES** and should be construed in the analysis of the sentence in which they occur, as a noun in a similar position.

The following examples will illustrate the use of the noun sentence.

Subject—"That the soul is immortal is believed by all nations,"
 or "It is universally believed that the soul is immortal."

Direct Objective—"All nations believe that the soul is immortal."
 "Pursue whatever course you think best."

Indirect Objective—"They told me that you wish to see me."

Predicate Nominative—"The universal belief is, that the soul is immortal." The fact is, what you have stated.

Apposition—"We cherish the belief that the soul is immortal."
 "The hope that we shall yet succeed encourages us."

Object of Adjective—"I was anxious that you should be present."

EXERCISE.

In the following exercise, point out the construction of the noun sentences:

Why we did not go is obvious. It is doubtful whether he can finish the work. You know, sir, why he did not go. The cause of anxiety was why he did not write. I believe that he is innocent. I am told that he has left the country. I am very desirous that you should be present. I understand how the error occurred. Can he hold his position is the question. How can I forget your kindness he said. What cannot be prevented must be endured. Take what you want. What you have said gives me uneasiness. Whatever he orders must be done.

CONNECTIVES OF NOUN SENTENCES.

536. The conjunction "*that*" is the special connective of the Noun Sentence;—" *but that*" is sometimes used; as, "I doubt not *but that* you are sincere."

When the noun sentence is an indirect question, *who*, *when* and *how* are the connectives; as, "I know *who* you are." He announced *when* we should meet." I explained *how* it is done."

The clauses connected by *what*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*, *whichever* and *whoever* should be treated as noun sentences. There would then be no necessity for making them equivalent to "thing which;" as, "You may take *whatever* you want." *Whoever* thinks so misunderstands me, &c." The first clause is the *objective* to take. The second is the *nominative* to misunderstand.

ADJECTIVE SENTENCE.

537. When the attribute to a noun takes the form of a proposition, such a clause of course performs the office of an adjective, and may be called an *Adjective Sentence*.

A noun in any position in which it can be modified by an *adjective*, may be modified by an *adjective clause* ; as,

SUBJECT.—"The ladies *who were present*, approved of the proposal."

OBJECT.—"The Architect condemned the work *which had been done*."

ATTACHED to a modifying noun in the subject; as "The books in the parcel *which came in yesterday*, are to be presented to the children."

ATTACHED to a modifying noun in the predicate; as "I purchased it at the store *which is directly opposite*."

CONNECTIVES OF THE ADJECTIVE SENTENCE.

538. It will be observed that the words used to connect these adjective clauses to the nouns which they describe or qualify are the RELATIVE PRONOUNS *who*, *which* and *that*.

When such words as *where*, *wherein*, *whither*, *why*, *wherefore*, *how*, *when*, &c., are used instead of relatives, they may also be used as connectives of the *adjective sentence* ; as,

"The village *wherein* he was born, &c.

"The reason, *why* he said so, is obvious."

"The time, *when* that will take place, is far distant.

"The place, *where* I met him, is farther east."

ADVERBIAL SENTENCE.

539. Any of the extensions of the predicate, by means of adverbs and adverbial phrases, may be expanded into ADVERBIAL SENTENCES, thereby changing the sentence from simple to complex.

The following examples will illustrate the use of the

ADVERBIAL SENTENCE.

Time,—When the sun rises we shall get out.

Place,—I will call wherever you say he is.

Resemblance,—As blossoms in Spring, so are hopes in youth.

Comparison,—Mary is older than Jane, [is].

Proportion,—The longer you delay the worse it becomes.

Equality,—He is as urgent as he can be.

Effect,—You read so that I cannot understand you.

Cause,—He is not liked because he is meddlesome.

Condition,—I shall complete the work if I can.

Concession,—Although he is acquitted, he is nevertheless guilty.

Purpose,—Labour that you may inherit true riches.

540. These adverbial sentences are very numerous, corresponding in *number* and *kind*, with the *continuative* and *adverbial* conjunctions. It is as connectives of these various adverbial sentences that these conjunctions are distinguished and classified.

CONNECTIVES OF THE ADVERBIAL SENTENCE.

They may be arranged under the four general heads of *Time*, *Place*, *Manner*, and *Cause*.

Those relating to *time* are:—

When, whenever, as often as; whilst, till, until, as, as long as; after, before, ere, as soon as; now, that.

Those relating to *place* are:—

Where; whither; whence.

Those relating to *manner* are:—

As, as if, how, as though; as...as, than, so...as, accordingly as; that, so that.

Those relating to *Cause* or *Reason* are:—

Because, for, as whereas, inasmuch as, forasmuch as, since, seeing that; if, unless, except, in case, as; though although, yet notwithstanding, however; that, so that, in order that, lest.

541. The different classes under each of these four general heads are separated by semicolons. The attention of the pupils should be directed to the different ideas denoted by each; as, for instance.

Time Relative.—"I will go *when* he returns." *Duration of time*.—"I will remain *until* the business is settled."—*Place absolute*. "I found it *where* you put it."—*Place to which*, "*Whither* I go, you cannot come," &c.

EXERCISE.

1. In the following exercise, state which of the above ideas each adverbial clause expresses, and what is its construction:

As we approached the top of the hill we saw the Indians. He will be respected wherever he may be. We were so fatigued that we could not sleep. He has more muscle than brains. The deeper the well the cooler the water. I am sorry that you did not come. If Virgil was the better artist, Homer was the greater genius. He hesitated whether he should do so. They live where you used to live. I have not been there since I saw you last. I remained there until the meeting adjourned. Whither I go you cannot come.

"These lofty trees wave not less proudly,
That our ancestors moulder beneath them."

2. Write sentences containing adverbial clauses, joined to the principal propositions by connectives taken from each class of those expressing—*Time, Place, Manner* and *Cause*.

542. These adverbial sentences, though usually employed as extensions of the predicate, are not, of course, confined exclusively to this position, but may take the place of an adverb, or adverbial phrase of any kind, whether in the subject or predicate.

ABRIDGMENT OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

543. COMPLEX SENTENCES may often be abridged into Simple Sentences.

544. The NOUN, ADJECTIVE, and ADVERBIAL Sentence, when abridged, takes the form either of a *noun*, *adjective*, *adverb*, *adjunct*; or of an *infinitive* or *participial* phrase; for example,

COMPLEX SENTENCE.	ABRIDGED TO SIMPLE SENTENCE.
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NOUN.

"I knew that he thought so."	"I knew his opinion."
"I know that he is a good mechanic."	"I know him to be a good mechanic."
"That he is poor is no crime."	"His being poor is no crime."

ADJECTIVE.

- "Our house *which is in the country*—"Our *country* house."
try."
 "The book *which contains the story*—"The book *containing the story*."
 "A book *that may suit you*." "A book *to suit you*."

ADVERBIAL.

- "You will not succeed *where you are*—"You will not succeed *there*."
 "You will suffer cold if you *remain here*—"You will suffer cold *by remaining here*."
 "When I had succeeded I *turned*—"Having succeeded I *returned*."
 "I have come *that I may assist you*—"I have come *to assist you*."
 "When you finish the work you *may return*—"Having finished the work you *may return*."

The various parts of the verb to be are often omitted; for example, When I was young,—when young. If it is so,—if so. More easily imagined than it is described,—than described. "Where are now her glittering towers!" "Where now her," &c. "This being done we departed."—"This done we departed."

COMPOUND SENTENCE.

545. A compound sentence consists of two or more principal propositions co-ordinate with each other.

When two sentences are so related to each other as to form one thought, each however, being in a measure independent of the other, they are said to be co-ordinately connected.

546. The relations in which co-ordinate sentences stand to each other are almost as various as the words used to connect them; they may all, however, be embraced under the four general heads of *copulative*, *disjunctive*, *adversative*, and *causal* or *illative* co-ordination.

COPULATIVE CO-ORDINATION.

547. When the words used to connect prepositions unite their meaning, as the

sign (+) plus unites quantities the co-ordination is COPULATIVE.

Co-ordinate sentences are connected COPULATIVELY by the *additive* conjunctions, or words used as additive conjunctions.

The following are the usual copulative connectives;—*and, also, likewise as well as, moreover, further, furthermore, both...and, also, not, only...but*, and sometimes *nor* and *neither*; as, "The way was lone *and* the wind was cold." "Not *only* will I not go myself, *but* I will not consent to your going." "You cannot fully understand it without seeing it, *nor* can you see it and not understand it."

Sometimes the connective is omitted between sentences thus related to each other; as, "The woods are hushed, the waters rest, the lake is dark and still."

DISJUNCTIVE CO-ORDINATION.

548. When the words used to connect the propositions indicate that each is to be taken separately, or that one is to be taken to the exclusion of the others, the co-ordination is DISJUNCTIVE.

Co-ordinate sentences are connected DISJUNCTIVELY by the distributive or alternative conjunctions *either, or, neither, nor; otherwise, else*; as, "We must press forward *or* we will be late." "*Either* the Principal *or* his assistant will be there." "Hasten to reform *else* you will be ruined." "Be industrious, *otherwise* you will come to want." "*Neither* the Principal *nor* his assistant was there."

ADVERSATIVE CO-ORDINATION.

549. When the words used to connect two propositions indicate that the one is contrasted with or opposed to the other, the co-ordination is ADVERSATIVE.

Co-ordinate sentences are connected ADVERSATIVELY by the adversative conjunctions, *but, nevertheless, though, although, however, still, notwithstanding, yet, only*, and by the conjunctive phrases, *on the one hand*, and *on the other hand*; as, "Straws swim on the surface, *but* pearls lie at the bottom." "There is much wealth in the city, *yet* there are many poor people." "He has acted

unwisely, *nevertheless* I will assist him." "The unfortunate man died, *notwithstanding* the promises of recovery." "This may not please you, *still* it is the best I can get." "The material is not good, *however*, I will go on with the work." "He is a sensible man *though* he is not a genius."

ILLATIVE CO-ORDINATION.

550. When the words used to connect two propositions indicate that the second stands in some logical relation to the first, the co-ordination is **ILLATIVE**.

Co ordinate sentences are connected **ILLATIVELY** by such words as *therefore, for, hence, then, and so, accordingly, consequently, wherefore, therefore*; as, "The three angles are equal; *therefore* the three sides are equal." "He is not at home; *hence*, I have deferred my visit." "I heard that the road was very bad; *and so* I concluded not to go." "You see I am busy; *then* why do you trouble me?" The connective in such sentences is often omitted; as, "He is disposed to be uncivil; let him alone." "He is poor; deal liberally with him." "Live not in suspense; it is the life of a spider."

ABRIDGMENT OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

551. It often happens that the different clauses of a Compound Sentence have either the same subject, or the same predicate, or the same object, or the same extensions. In such cases the element which is common to each co-ordinate part is not necessarily repeated. In this way Compound Sentences may be abridged; thus,

COMPOUND SENTENCE.

ABRIDGED FORM.

"Wheat grows well in this land, and barley grows well in this land." "Wheat and barley grow well in this land."

"The hurricane tore down trees, and the hurricane overturned houses." "The hurricane tore down trees and overturned houses."

"He is a wise man, he is a good man, he is a patriotic man." "He is a wise, good, and patriotic man."

"God sends rain on the evil, and God sends rain on the good." "God sends rain on the evil and on the good."

A variety of contractions may be combined in one sentence.

GRAMMATICAL EQUIVALENTS.

552. The student of the English language, should give special attention to grammatical equivalents, no aspect of the subject is of more practical importance. What is called a command of language is little else than a practical acquaintance with *grammatical equivalents*. We can scarcely write a single paragraph without being required to choose between different forms of expression that are nearly equivalent in meaning. The tasteful English scholar is he who habitually uses the better expression of two equivalents upon perceived grounds of preference. This power can be acquired only by a careful study of equivalent words and expressions, by a familiar acquaintance with the various styles of the best speakers and writers, and by the frequent practice of the art itself.

METHOD OF ANALYSING COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES, ORALLY.

1. State whether the sentence is complex or compound, and of how many clauses it consists.
2. If complex, name the principal sentence.
3. Name each subordinate clause and classify it as noun, adjective or adverbial, state what idea the connective expresses, and show the connection with the principal sentence.
4. Analyze each clause as a simple sentence.

IF COMPOUND.

1. Name each principal and subordinate clause.
2. Point out the connection of each co-ordinate sentence, and the kind of co-ordination.
3. Classify each subordinate clause, and show its connection.
4. Analyze each clause as a simple sentence.

COMPLEX SENTENCE ANALYZED.

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

This is a complex sentence, consisting of one independent phrase, the principal proposition, and two subordinate clauses. The independent phrase is, "*The Romans and Albans being on the eve of a battle.*" The principal proposition is, "*An agreement was made between them.*" The first subordinate clause is,—"That three champions should be chosen on each side,"—a noun sentence connected by *that*, in apposition with the subject of the principal sentence, "*agreement.*" The second subordinate sentence is,—"*By*

whom the victory should be determined,—an adjective sentence connected with its noun "*champions*," by the relative "*whom*."

COMPOUND SENTENCE ANALYZED.

"Baliol was now dead, and his son was a prisoner in the tower; but the family was represented by his sister's son who had actively exerted himself in the cause of his country's independence, and was an object of peculiar jealousy to Edward."

This is a compound sentence consisting of three principal propositions, and two subordinate. The first principal is, "*Baliol was now dead*;" co-ordinate with the second and third. The second is, "*And his son was a prisoner in the tower*;" copulative to the first and co-ordinate with the third. The third principal is, "*But the family was represented by his sister's son*;" adversative to the first and second. The first subordinate is, "*Who had actively exerted himself in the cause of his country's independence*;" an adjective sentence co-ordinate with the second subordinate, and connected with its noun *son* by the relative "*who*." The second subordinate is, "*And was an object of peculiar jealousy to Edward*." An adjective sentence, copulative to first subordinate and connected with its noun *son*, by the relative "*who*" understood.

FORMS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISES IN ANALYZING
COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

COMPLEX.

"O could I worship aught beneath the skies,
That earth hath seen, or fancy could devise,
Thine altar, sacred Liberty, should stand,
Built by no mercenary vulgar hand,
With fragrant turf, and flowers as wild and fair,
As ever dressed a bank, or scented summer air."

SENTENCE.	KIND OF SENTENCE.	SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	OBJECT.	EXTENSION
^a O (if) could I worship aught beneath the skies,	Adv. sentence to <i>e</i> .	I	could worship	ought beneath the skies	
^b (that) earth hath seen,	Adj. sentence, to object in <i>a</i> , co-ord. with <i>c</i> .	earth	hath seen	that	
^c (or) fancy could devise,	Adj. sentence to object. in <i>a</i> .	(or) fancy	could devise		
^d sacred Liberty,	Independent element.				
^e thine altar, built by no mer- cenary vulgar hand, with fragrant turf, and flowers as wild and fair, should stand,	Principal sentence.	thine altar built by no mercenary vulgar hand with fragrant turf, and flowers as wild and fair	should stand		
^f as (those are)	Adv. sentence to wild and fair in <i>e</i> , with subj. and pred. understood, co-ord. with <i>h</i> .	(as) those	are		ever.
^g (that) ever dressed a bank,	Adj. sentence to subj. of <i>f</i> , with subj. underst'd	that	dressed	a bank	
^h or (as those are)	Adv. sentence to wild and fair, with subj. pred. and connect. un- derst'd, disj. to <i>f</i> .	as those	are		
ⁱ (that) ever scented summer air.	Adj. sentence to subj. of <i>h</i> , with subj. underst'd	that	scented	summer air.	ever.

(that) ever scented summer air. that scented summer air. ever.

COMPOUND.

"They ravaged the country and were successful in many an enterprise; but their success diminished sent out on purpose, they were surrounded by the enemy and cut to pieces."

SENTENCE.	KIND OF SENTENCE.	SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	OBJECT.	EXTENSIONS.
^a They ravaged the country	Principal sentence, co-ord. with <i>b</i> .	they	ravaged	the country	
^b and were successful in many an enterprise,	Principal sentence, cop. to <i>a</i> , and co-ord. with <i>c</i> , sub. understood.	they	were successful		in many an enterprise.
^c but their success diminished their caution,	Principal sentence, adverbs to <i>a</i> and <i>b</i> , co-ord with <i>d</i> and <i>e</i> .	their success	diminished	their caution.	
^d And being drawn into an ambushade by their desire to capture a herd of cattle, they were surrounded by the enemy	Principal sentence, cop. to <i>c</i> , co-ord. with <i>e</i> .	they being drawn into an ambushade by their desire to capture a herd of cattle	were surrounded.		by the enemy.
^e and cut to pieces	Principal sentence, with sub. and auxil. understood, cop. to <i>d</i> .	they	were cut to pieces.		
^f which had been sent out on purpose.	Adj. sentence to (cattle in) <i>d</i> .	which	had been sent out.		on purpose.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

What is a Complex Sentence?—Give an example. What is a noun sentence?—Give an example of a noun sentence used as the subject—as the direct objective—as the indirect objective—as the predicate nominative—in apposition—as the indirect object of an adjective. What is the usual connective of the noun sentence? When the noun sentence is an indirect question, what are the connectives?—Illustrate by an example of each. Show by examples how the clauses connected by *what*, *whatever*, &c., may be treated as noun sentences.

What is an adjective sentence? Give an example of an adjective sentence qualifying the subject,—the object; qualifying a noun attached to the subject,—attached to the predicate. What are the usual connectives of the adjective sentence? What other words may be used? Give an example of an adjective sentence connected by *who*—by *what*—by *that*—by *wherein*—*why*—*where*—*whose*.

What is an adverbial sentence? What are the connectives of adverbial sentences? Into what four classes are they divided? Repeat those relating to time *when*—those relating to *duration* of time—those relating to *repetition* of time.—Give examples of each. Repeat those relating to place. Repeat those relating to manner. Separate them into those expressing likeness—relation—effect.—Give an example of each. Repeat those relating to cause. Separate them into those expressing *ground*—*condition*—*concession*—*purpose*. Give examples of each. With what connectives do these different adverbial sentences correspond in number and kind? Give an example to show how a noun, adjective or adverbial sentence may be abridged into a word or into a phrase. Give examples to show how a noun, adjective or adverb may be expanded into a phrase or sentence.

What is a compound sentence? Give an example of a compound sentence. When are sentences co-ordinately connected? Co-ordinate connection is of how many kinds? Repeat them. When is the co-ordination copulative? By what words are co-ordinate sentences connected copulatively? Repeat them, and give an example illustrating the use of each. When is the co-ordination disjunctive? By what words are co-ordinate sentences connected disjunctively? Repeat them and give an example illustrating the use of each. When is the co-ordination adversative? By what words are co-ordinate sentences connected adversatively? Repeat them and give an example illustrating the use of each. When is the co-ordination illative? Repeat the words used to connect co-ordinate sentences illatively. Give an example illustrating the use of each.

How are compound sentences abridged? Illustrate by example

What is said of the importance of an acquaintance with grammatical equivalents. Give the order of analyzing complex sentences orally. Give the order of analyzing compound sentences orally. Sketch on the blackboard and explain the form for written exercises in analyzing complex and compound sentences. Illustrate the manner of using it, by writing out the detailed analysis of a compound and complex sentence.

COMPOUND SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE IN ANALYSIS.

553. Analyze the following sentences according to the Form (pages 172 and 173.)

1.

"And yet, if I had no plea, but my undeserved misery—a once powerful prince, the descendant of a race of illustrious monarchs, now, without any fault of my own, destitute of every support, and reduced to the necessity of begging foreign assistance, against an enemy who has seized my throne and my kingdom; if my unequalled distresses were all I had to plead, it would become the greatness of the Roman commonwealth, to protect the injured, and to check the triumph of daring wickedness over helpless innocence."—*Sallust*.

2.

"But rise, and stand upon thy feet: for I have appeared to thee for this purpose, to make thee a minister, and a witness both of these things which thou has seen, and of those things in which I will appear to thee; delivering thee from the people, and from the Gentiles, to whom I now send thee, to open their eyes, and to turn them from darkness to light, and from the power of Satan to God; that they may receive forgiveness of sins, and inheritance amongst them who are sanctified by faith that is in me."—*Acts xxvi. 16*.

3.

"Time will render him more open to the dictates of reason: for as a fresh wound shrinks back from the hand of the surgeon, but by degrees submits to, and even requires the means of its cure; so a mind, under the first impressions of a misfortune, shuns and rejects all arguments of consolation, but at length, if applied with tenderness, calmly and willingly acquiesces in them."—*Melmoth's Pliny*.

4.

"Though a man has all other perfections, yet if he wants discretion, he will be of no great consequence in the world; on the contrary, if he has this single talent in perfection, and but a com-

non share of others, he may do what he pleases in his particular station of life."—*Addison*.

5.

"Let us be animated to cultivate those amiable virtues, which are here recommended to us; this humility and meekness; this penitent sense of sin; this ardent desire after righteousness; this compassion and purity; this peacefulness and fortitude of soul; and, in a word, this universal goodness which becomes us, as we sustain the character of 'the salt of the earth,' and 'the light of the world.'"—*Doddridge*.

6.

"Happy would the poor man think himself, if he could enter on all the treasures of the rich; and happy for a short time he might be; but before he had long contemplated and admired his state, his possessions would seem to lessen, and his cares would grow."—*Blair*.

7.

"From all this it follows, that in order to discern where man's true honour lies, we must look, not to any adventitious circumstances of fortune; not to any single sparkling quality; but to the whole of what forms a man; what entitles him, as such, to rank high among that class of beings to which he belongs; in a word, we must look to the mind and the soul."—*Blair*.

8.

"O sacred solitude; divine retreat!
Choice of the prudent! envy of the great!
By thy pure stream, or in thy waving shade,
We court fair wisdom, that celestial maid:
The genuine offspring of her lov'd embrace,
(Strangers on earth,) are innocence and peace.

9.

"I have found out a gift for my fair;
I have found where the wood-pigeons breed;
But let me that plunder forbear!
She will say, 'tis a barbarous deed:
For he ne'er can be true, she averr'd,
Who can rob a poor bird of its young:
And I lov'd her the more, when I heard
Such tenderness fall from her tongue."

10.

"Thou also mad'st the night
Maker Omnipotent, and thou the day,
Which we, in our appointed work employ'd,
Have finished, happy in our mutual help,
And mutual love, the crown of all our bliss

Ordained by thee; and this delicious place,
For us too large, where thy abundance wants
Partakers, and uncropt falls to the ground."—*Milton*.

11.

"Know then—who bow the early knee,
Who wisely, when Temptation waits,
Elude her frauds, and spurn her baits;
Who dare to own my injur'd cause,
Though fools deride my sacred laws;
Or scorn to deviate to the wrong,
Though persecution lifts her thong;
Though all the sons of hell conspire
To raise the stake and light the fire;
Know, that for *such* superior souls,
There lies a bliss beyond the poles:
Where spirits shine with purer ray,
And brighten to meridian day;
Where love, where boundless friendship rules;
(No friends that change, no love that cools;)
Where rising floods of knowledge roll,
And pour, and pour upon the soul!"—*Cotton*.

12.

"Nor these alone, whose notes
Nice finger'd art must emulate in vain,
But cawing rooks, and kites that swim sublime,
In still repeated circles, screaming loud;
The jay, the pye, and ev'n the boding owl,
That hails the rising moon, have charms for me."—*Cowper*.

13.

"Tis night, and the landscape is lovely no more:
I mourn; but, ye woodlands, I mourn not for you;
For morn is approaching, your charms to restore,
Perfum'd with fresh fragrance, and glitt'ring with dew.
Nor yet for the ravage of winter I mourn;
Kind nature the embryo blossom will save:
But when shall spring visit the mouldering urn!
O when shall day dawn on the night of the grave!"—*Beattie*.

14.

"Lo, the poor Indian! whose untutor'd mind
Sees God in clouds, or hears him in the wind
His soul proud science never taught to stray
Far as the Solar Walk or Milky Way
Yet, simple nature to his hope has giv'n,
Behind the cloud-topt hill, a humbler heav'n;

Some safer world in depth of woods embrac'd,
Some happier island in the watr'y waste;
Where slaves once more their native land behold,
No fiends torment, no Christians thirst for gold."—*Pope.*

Each member of the class select four of the most extended complex and compound sentences, from the standard poets and prose writers, to be read and examined in the class.

CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

554. Words are arranged in sentences, according to certain rules founded on the practice of the best writers of the language, called RULES OF SYNTAX.

555. The Rules of Syntax may all be referred to three heads, viz., *Concord* or *agreement*, *Government*, and *Position*.

CONCORD is the agreement which one word has with another in gender, number, case, or person.

GOVERNMENT is the power which one word has in determining the mood, tense, case, or form, of another word. The word governed by another word is called its *regimen*.

POSITION means the place which a word occupies in relation to other words in a sentence.

556. In the English language, which has but few inflections, the *position* of the words is often of the utmost importance, in determining.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE I.—A verb must agree with its subject in number and person; as,

"I write."—"Thou writest."—"I am he."—"We sell."—"They buy."—"John and James are brothers."—"Jane or Mary is at home."—"The army is on its march."—"The people are kind."—"The man who met us."—"Who art thou?"

RULE II.—The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative; as,

"I am."—"Thou speakest."—"He reads."—"We talk."—"Time flies."—"Who did that?"—"I know who did it."—"Do you know who is to blame?"—"He is taller than I (am)—than she (is)."

RULE III.—A noun or pronoun introduced merely to identify or explain another noun or pronoun is put by **APPOSITION** in the same case; as,

The river Thames. Cicero the orator. Paul the apostle. I myself. I Paul have written it. I Wisdom dwell with prudence. Napoleon the third (emperor of that name). Ye men of Athens. Queen Mary.

RULE IV.—A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun or pronoun, by denoting possession, is put in the possessive case; as,

"Pompey's pillar."—"Virtue's reward."—"Locke's essays."—"For righteousness' sake."—"For conscience' sake."—"The duke of Wellington's funeral."—"The secretary of state's office."—"Whose pen is this?"—"It is John's—it is not his."—"It came from the stationer's."—"Brown, Smith & Co.'s warehouse."

RULE V.—Every adjective and adjective word qualifies or limits some noun expressed or understood; as,

A good boy; a new book; an old hat; a rough road; a steep hill; a lofty mountain; God is good; an amusing story; a man loved by all; one man; this book; that house; two men; these books; those houses.

RULE VI.—Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, person, and number; as,

"All that a man hath will he give for his life."—"A tree is known by its fruit."—"Jane is fond of her books; though she has long lessons, she learns them well."—"The court has finished its business."—"The people elect their rulers."

RULE VII.—A noun or pronoun, whose case depends on no other word, is put in the independent case; as,

"The ship having arrived, all is safe."—"He being alone, there was no one to disturb him."—"Your fathers, where are they?"—"Or I only and Barnabas, have not we power to forbear working?"—"O, Absalom! my son, my son!"—"Plato, thou reasonest well."

RULE VIII.—A transitive verb in the active voice, governs the objective case; as,

"We love him."—"He loves us."—"Whom shall I send?"—"Send me."—"Honor thy father and mother."—"Them that honor me I will honor."—"Boys love to play."—"Boys love playing."—"I know that thou fearest God."—"Jesus I know, and Paul I know; but who art thou?"

RULE IX.—Intransitive verbs, and verbs in the passive voice, take the same case after them as before them, when both words refer to the same person or thing; as,

"I am he."—"Ye are they who justify yourselves."—"God is love."—"Who do men say that I, the Son of man, am?"—"He is a good man."—"He is said to be a good man."—"They represented him to be a good man."—"Saying is not doing."

RULE X.—The form peculiar to the Subjunctive mode is used only when both contingency and futurity are implied; as,

"Though he slay me yet will I trust in him."—"If he study he will improve."—"If he do but touch the hills they shall smoke."—"See thou do it not."

RULE XI.—The infinitive mode is a verbal noun; and, when not the subject of a verb, or governed, as any other noun, by a verb, noun, or preposition, is governed by the sign to; as,

"I desire to learn."—"A desire to learn."—"Anxious to learn."
—"To do good and to communicate, forget not."—"To perform
is better than to promise."—"Fools who came to scoff, remained
to pray."—"Let us go."—"You need not go."—"I am in haste to
depart."

RULE XII.—Participles, when not joined with the auxiliaries *have* or *to be*, and taken as verbs, have the construction of verbal nouns, or verbal adjectives; as,

"Saying is not doing."—"In the keeping of his command-
ments."—"A forsaking of the truth."—"Avoid doing evil."
—"The sword hangs rusting on the wall."—"A bound book."
—"The lost sheep."—"Having loved his own, he loved them to the
end."—"The men stood speechless, hearing a voice, but seeing no
man."

RULE XIII.—In expressing the different relations of time, care must be taken to employ those tenses which express correctly the sense intended; as,

"I have known him many years."—"I expected he would
come" (not "would have come.")—"I expect he will come."
—"It would have been easy to do it" (not "to have done it.")—"I
expected to go" (not "to have gone.")

RULE XIV.—Adverbs modify *verbs*, *adjectives*, and other *adverbs*; as,

"John speaks distinctly; he is remarkably diligent; and reads
very correctly."—"Julia sings well."—"The day is far spent."
—"Time passes swiftly and imperceptibly."—"Where have you
been?"—"Whom did you see there?"—"When will you return?"
—"Soon."

RULE XV.—A preposition governs the objective case; as,

"Of him, and through him, and to him, are all things: to whom be glory for ever."—"To whom much is given, of him much shall be required."—"Come with us and we will do thee good."—"Science they do not pretend to."—"Whom did he speak to?"

RULE XVI.—Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions; as,

"Confide *in*"—"dispose *of*"—"adapted *to*"—"swerve *from*," &c.

RULE XVII.—Conjunctions connect *words, phrases, or propositions*; as,

"You and he must go; but I stay at home."—"Honor thy father and thy mother."—"He or his brother is to blame."—"They can neither read nor write."—"He is slow, but sure."—"While the earth remaineth, seed-time and harvest, and cold and heat, and summer and winter, and day and night, shall not cease."

RULE XVIII.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with the words of a sentence; as,

"O ye of little faith!"—"Ah me!"—"O cruel thou!"—"Envious of David Garrick? Poh! poh! Pshaw! pshaw!"

ELLIPSIS.

RULE 1.—An ellipsis, or omission of words, is admissible, when they can be supplied by the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense; as,

"We walked by faith, not by sight."

RULE 2.—An ellipsis is not allowable when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with any impropriety.

GENERAL RULE,

COMPREHENDING ALL THE PRECEDING RULES.

In every sentence, the words employed, and the order in which they are arranged, should be such as clearly and properly to express the idea intended; and, at the same time, all the parts of a sentence should correspond, and a regular and dependent construction be preserved throughout.

THE VERB AND ITS NOMINATIVE.

557. RULE I.—A verb agrees with its subject in number and person; as "*I read*," "*Thou readest*," "*He reads*," "*We read*," &c.

SPECIAL RULES.

558. RULE 1.—A singular noun used in a plural sense, has a verb in the plural; as, "*Ten sail are in sight*."

559. RULE 2.—Two or more substantives, singular, taken together, have a verb in the plural; as, "*James and John are here*."

560. A singular nominative and an objective connected by *with* sometimes have a plural verb; as, "*The ship with the crew were lost*." This construction is incorrect, and should not be imitated. A mere adjunct of a substantive does not change its number or construction. Either, then, the verb should be singular, "*The ship with the crew was lost*," or, if the second substantive is considered as belonging to the subject, it should be connected by *and*; as, "*The ship and the crew were lost*." But,

561. When substantives connected by *and*, denote one person or thing, the verb is singular; as, "*Why is dust and ashes proud?*" — "*The saint, the father, and the husband, prays*."—*Burns*.

562. Singular nouns, preceded by *each*, *every*, *no*, though connected by *and*, have the verb in the singular; as, "*Each book and each paper was arranged*."—"No *book* and no *paper* was arranged."

563. When a verb, having several nominatives connected by *and*, is placed *after* the first, it agrees with that, and is understood to the rest; as,

"Forth in the pleasing spring;

Thy beauty walks, thy tenderness, and love."—Thompson.

564. When the substantives connected are of different *persons*, the verb in the plural prefers the *first* to the *second*, and the *second* to the *third*. This can be perceived only in the pronoun.

565. RULE 3.—Two or more substantives singular, taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest, have a verb in the singular; as,

"James or John *attends*"—"Neither James nor John *attends*,"—

"John and not [but not] James *attends*"—"John as well as James *attends*"—"Not John, but James *attends*."

NOTE.—Singular nouns connected by *nor*, sometimes have a plural verb. In that case, the verb denies equally of all, and *nor* is equivalent to *and*, connecting the verbs, and a negative which is transferred to, and modifies the verb; as, "Neither Moses, nor Minos, nor Solon, and Lycurgus, were eloquent men."—*Acton*.—"Moses, and Minos, and Solon, and Lycurgus, were not eloquent men," or, "were none of them eloquent." This construction has not been generally noticed, but it often occurs in the best writers.

566. But when two or more substantives, taken separately, are of different numbers, the verb agrees with the one next it, and the plural subject is usually placed next the verb; as "Neither the captain nor the sailors *were* saved;" rarely, "Neither the sailors nor the captain *was* saved."

567. RULE 4.—When substantives, taken separately, are of different persons, the verb agrees with the one next it; as, James or I *am* in the wrong"—"Either you or he *is* mistaken"—"I or thou *art* to blame."

568. Though sentences are often formed according to this rule, yet they are generally harsh and inelegant. It is generally better to put the verb with the first substantive, and repeat it with the second; or to express the same idea by arranging the sentence differently; as, "James *is* in the wrong or I *am*," or, "One of us *is* in the wrong"—"Either you *are* mistaken or he *is*"—"I *am* to blame or thou *art*." This remark is sometimes applicable also, when the substantives are of the same person, but different in number, and requiring each a different form of the verb, as, "Either the captain or the sailors *were* to blame;" otherwise, "Either the captain *was* to blame, or the sailors *were*."

569. RULE 5.—A collective noun, expressing many, as **ONE WHOLE**, has a verb in the singular; as, "The company *was* large."

570.—2. But when a collective noun expresses many, as individuals, the verb must be plural; as, "My *people* do not consider."

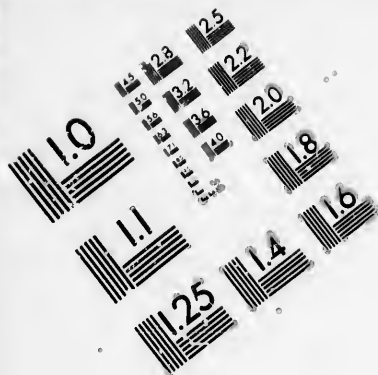
571. It is sometimes difficult to determine whether a collective noun expresses *unity* or *plurality*. It is now considered generally best to use the plural, where the singular is not *manifestly* required.

572. A nominative after "many a" has a verb in the singular; as; "Full many a flower *is* born," &c.

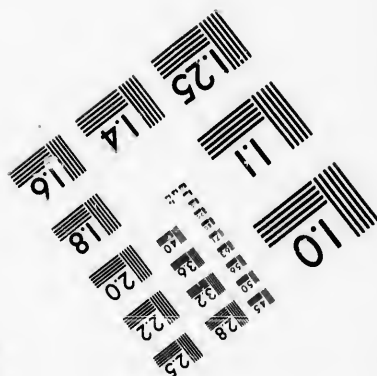
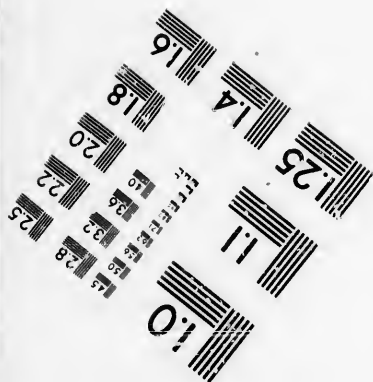
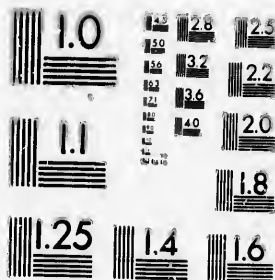
573. When verbs are not connected in the same construction, each verb should have its own nominative. The following sentence is wrong in this respect; "The whole is produced as an illusion of the first class, and hopes it will be found worthy of patronage;" it should be, either "He *produces* the whole as an illusion," &c., "and *hopes*," &c; or, "The whole is produced," &c., "and he *hopes* &c., or, "and it is hoped," &c.

In the Exercise under each of the rules, some of the sentences are correct and some incorrect. They are purposely mixed that the judgment of the pupil may be exercised and his knowledge tested. If, after going over the rules and principles to which the exercise has reference, the pupil can so far apply his knowledge as to distinguish between what is correct and what is incorrect and produce the proper rule as authority for his conclusion, the result is satisfactory. If he cannot do this, it is obvious that he has not yet acquired sufficient knowledge of the subject to be of any practical use to him; the only wise and proper course, in such a case, will be to go over the ground again.





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EXERCISE.

ON THE AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH ITS SUBJECT.

In the following, say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle or Rule violated in the false Syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the words to which the general rule or any special rule applies, repeating the rule applicable to each word.

Our friend brought two loads to market, and it was sold at a good price.—Never was any nation so infatuated.—A man's being rich, or his being poor, do not affect his character for integrity.—The horse was sent forward to engage the enemy.—The letter from which the extract was taken, and came by mail, is lost. The people often rejoice in that which will prove their ruin.—Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example.—Much does human pride and folly require correction.—Many a broken ship has come to land.—Thou, or he, or John, is the author of that letter.—Each day, and hour, and moment, is to be diligently improved. There are sometimes two or three of us.—Many a one have tried to be rich but in vain.—Neither James nor I has had a letter this week.—Every leaf, and every twig, and every drop of water, teem with life.—Was you there?

While still the busy world is treading o'er
The paths they trod five thousand years before.

Either he or I are willing to go.—That able scholar and critic have died.—A judicious arrangement of studies facilitates improvement.—The council was not unanimous.—Whether the subjects or the king is responsible, makes no difference.—To profess regard and to act differently marks a base mind.—So much of ability and merit are seldom found.—The audience were much pleased.—Neither the scholars nor the teacher were present.—Time and tide waits for no man.—A variety of pleasing objects charms the eye.—The public is respectfully informed.—He, and not they, is mistaken.—Out of the same mouth proceed blessing and cursing.—Fifty pounds of wheat produces forty pounds of flower.

A great number of women was present.—Books, not pleasure, occupies his mind.—Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains.—He dare not act otherwise.—The noble army of martyrs praiseth thee, O God! His time, as well as his money and health, were lost in the undertaking.—One pair was spoiled; five pair were in good condition.—The days of man is as grass.—To do good or to get good is equally neglected by the foolish.—I love reading.—She need not trouble herself. Two dozen is as many as you can take.—The foot, in the mean time, were preparing for an attack.—Our welfare and security consists in unity.

574. RULE II.—*The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative; as, "I am,"—"Thou art,"—"He is,"—"They are."*

575. It is improper to use both a noun and its pronoun as the nominative to the same verb; thus, "The king he is just," should be "The king is just." Except when the compound pronouns are added to the subject for the sake of emphasis; as, "The king himself has come."

576. The nominative to a verb in the imperative, and in the answer to a question, and after *than* or *as*, generally has the verb understood; as "Shut the door"—"Who said so?"—"He [said so]"—"James is taller than I [am]; but not so tall as you [are]."

POSITION OF THE SUBJECT.

577. The subject is commonly placed before the verb. But in imperative or interrogative sentences, and in sentences inserted for the sake of emphasis or euphony, the subject is often placed after the verb; as, "Go thou"—"Did he go?"—"May you be happy?"—"Were I he"—"Neither did they"—"Said I"—"There was a man," &c.

Under this rule there is liability to error only in the use of pronouns.

EXERCISE

OF THE NOMINATIVE.

In the following, say which are correct, and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule applicable to each word.

Him and me are of the same age.—John is older than me.—Suppose you and I go.—You are as tall as she.—Them are excellent.—Who has a knife? Me.—Whom do you think has arrived?—Who came in? She and I.—Them that seek wisdom shall find it.—You can write as well as me.—You and we enjoy many privileges.—That is the boy whom we think deserves the prize.

578. RULE III.—A noun or pronoun, introduced merely to identify or explain another noun or pronoun, is put, by APPOSITION, in the same case; as,

"*Cicero the orator.*"—"I *Paul* have written it."—"We, the people of the United States."—"Ye woods and wilds."—"This was said to us men."—"The river *Thames.*"—"Jane and *Eliza*, Mary's cousins."—"The chief of the princes, *he* who defied the enemy," &c.—"That was related of *Dr. West*, him who translated Pindar."

579. A plural term is sometimes used in apposition after two or more substantives singular, to combine and give them emphasis; as, "*Time, labor, money, all* were lost." Sometimes the same substantive is repeated for the sake of emphasis; as, "*Cisterns, broken cisterns.*"

580. Distributive words are sometimes put in apposition with a plural substantive; as, "*They* went each of them on his way."—"They all went, *some* one way, and *some* another." In the construction of a sentence, the distributive word is sometimes omitted; as, "*They* [interrogative pronouns] do not relate [*each*] to a preceding noun."

581. Of this character are such expressions as the following: "*They* stood in each other's way"—that is, *they* stood each in the other's way.—"*They* love one another"—that is, *they* love, one (loves) an other.

582. A substantive is sometimes connected with another in a sort of apposition by the word *as*, meaning in the condition of, in the capacity of, thus, "*Cicero*, as an orator, was bold—as a soldier, he was timid." But here—the reverse of the former case—the substantive in apposition with another in the possessive case, or with a possessive pronoun, is without the sign, while the other has it; as, "*John's* reputation as an author was great—his fame as an artist still greater."

583. In designating time and place, instead of a noun in apposition, a preposition with its case is often used; as, "*The month of August.*"—"The state of *Ohio.*"—"The city of *New York.*"

EXERCISE

ON NOUNS AND PRONOUNS IN APPPOSITION.

In the following sentences, say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false Syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the words to which the rule is applicable, and repeat the rule.

Please give that book to my brother William, he who stands by the window.—I speak of Virgil, he who wrote the *Æneid*.—Religion, the support of adversity, adorns prosperity.—Do you speak so to me, I who have so often befriended you?—Byron, the poet, the only son of Captain John Byron, was born in 1788.—The gentleman has arrived, him whom I mentioned before.—Coleridge, a remarkable man, and rich imaginative poet, was the friend of Wordsworth.—My brother William's estate has been sold.

"And on the palace floor, a lifeless corse she lay."

As the nominative and the objective case in nouns are alike in English, there is no liability to error under this rule, except in the case of pronouns.

THE POSSESSIVE.

584. RULE IV.—*A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun or pronoun, by denoting possession, is put in the possessive case; as, "Virtue's reward."—"John's books."*

585. The possessive case, and the preposition *of* with the objective, are often equivalent; as, "My father's house"—"The house of my father. But—

586. Sometimes the idea expressed by *of* with the objective can not be expressed at all by the possessive; as, "A ring of gold"—"A cup of water"—"A piece of land"—"The house of refuge," &c. Sometimes, again, the ideas expressed are different; thus, "The Lord's day" means the Sabbath. "The day of the Lord" means the day of judgment. "My father's picture," means a picture belonging to my father. "A picture of my father" means a portrait of him." "God's love" means only the love which God feels. "The love of God," means either the love which God feels to us, or that which we feel to him.

587. *Of*, before a possessive case, followed by the substantive which it limits, usually governs that substantive; as, "The heat of the sun's rays." But *of* before a possessive, *not* followed by the substantive which it limits, governs that substantive understood, and the expression refers to a *part* of the things possessed; as, "A discovery of [that is, from] Sir Isaac Newton's [discoveries];" meaning, "One of Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries."

588. Even when the possessive case, and *of* with the objective, are equivalent in meaning, the arrangement and euphony, as well as the perspicuity of the sentence, will often render the one expression preferable to the other. When this is the case, care should be taken to use that form which, in the circumstances, is best. Thus, "In the name of the army," is better than "In the army's name;" "My mother's gold ring," is better than "The gold ring of my mother." A succession of words in either form is harsh, and may be avoided by a proper mixture of the two; thus, "My brother's wife's sister"—better—"The sister of my brother's wife."—"The sickness of the son of the king"—better—"The sickness of the king's son."

589. When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, "Jane and Lucy's books," that is, books the common property of Jane and Lucy. But if common possession is not implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each, as, "Jane's and Lucy's books," that is, books, some of which are Jane's and others Lucy's. "This gained the king's, as well as the people's, approbation."

590. When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as, "Julius Cæsar's Commentaries"—"John the Baptist's head"—"His brother Philip's wife"—"The Bishop of London's charge."—Here *Julius Cæsar's* is a complex name, in the possessive; *John* and *brother* are in the possessive, without the sign, that being annexed to the words *Baptist* and *Philip*, in apposition. In the last example, "London" is in the objective case, governed by *of*, and the's annexed properly belongs to *Bishop*, which limits the word *charge*. In parsing the words *separately*, the transfer must, of course be so made. But the true reason for annexing's to *London* is, that the whole phrase, "Bishop of London," is regarded as *one term*, in the possessive limiting the word *charge*, and may be so parsed. Thus, "a complex noun in the possessive case, limiting the word *charge*."

591. When a short explanatory term is joined to a name, the sign of the possessive may be annexed to either; as, "I called at Smith's the bookseller," or, "at Smith the bookseller's." But if, to such a phrase, the substantive which it limits is added, the sign

of the possessive must be annexed to the last; as, "I called at Smith the bookseller's shop."

592. If the explanatory circumstance be complex, or consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the name or first substantive; as, "This Psalm is David's, the king, priest, and prophet of the people."—"That book is Smith's, the bookseller in Maiden Lane."

593. This mode of expression, however, is never elegant, and though sometimes used when the governing substantive is understood, yet it would be better to avoid it, and say, "This is a psalm of David, the king," &c., or, "This is one of the psalms of David," &c. But an expression like this can not, with any propriety, be used when the substantive limited by the possessive is added. Thus, "David, the king, priest and prophet of the people's psalm," would be intolerable.

594. When two nouns in the possessive are used to limit different words, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to each; as, "He took refuge at the governor's, the king's representative," that is, "at the governor's house."

595. The *s* after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted, when the first word ends, and the following word begins, with an *s*, or when the use of it would occasion a disagreeable repetition of *s* sounds; as, "For righteousness' sake"—"For conscience' sake"—"For Jesus' sake"—"At Jesus' feet." In other cases, such omissions would generally be improper; as, "James' book"—"Miss' shoes," instead of "James's book"—"Miss's shoes."

596. A clause of a sentence should never come between the possessive case and the word which it limits; thus, "She began to extol the farmer's as she called him, excellent understanding," should be, "the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

597. A noun limited by the possessive plural, or by two or more nouns severally in the possessive singular, should not be plural unless the sense require it. Thus, "The men's health [not healths] suffered from the climate"—"John's and William's wife [not wives] are of the same age."

EXERCISE

ON THE POSSESSIVE.

In the following sentences, say which are correct, and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule applicable to each word.

Virtue's reward.—He was averse to the nation's in-

veering itself in war.—That knife is yours, but I
 thought it was mine.—That landscape is a picture of
 my father's.—The tree is known by the fruit of it.—
 William and Mary's reign.—Messrs. Pratt's, Wood-
 ford's, & Co.'s bookstore is in New York.—Call at
 Smith the bookseller and stationer's.—That house is
 Smith the poor man's friend.—James father arrived
 yesterday.—The prisoner's, if I may say so, conduct
 was shameful.—It is the duty of Christians to submit
 to their lot.—Mans chief end is to glorify God.—
 Much depends on your pupil composing frequently.—
 My book is old, but your book and Roberts book are
 new.—The work you speak of is one of Irving.—The
 commons' vote was against the measure, but the lords'
 vote was in its favor.—David and Solomon's reign were
 prosperous.—Jack the Giant-killer's wonderful ex-
 ploits.—The parcel was left at Johnson's a merchant in
 Broadway.—We spent an agreeable hour at 'Wilson,
 the governor's deputy.—King Jame's translators merely
 revised former translations.—Peter the Hermit's as he
 was called, opinion.—We protest against this course,
 in our own names and in the names of our constitu-
 ents.—My ancestor's virtue is not mine.—He being
 rich did not make him happy.—Gravitation was a dis-
 covery of Sir Isaac Newton.—The weekly return of
 Lord's day is a blessing to man.—John and William's
 wife are cousins.—The bishop's of London's charge to
 his clergy.—For conscience's sake.—The gentleman's
 and lady's health are improving.—A mothers tender-
 ness and a fathers care are natures gifts for mans ad-
 vantage.—I am opposed to his going on such an expo-
 dition.—That is a ring of my mother's.—The extent of
 the prerogative of the king of England is well under-
 stood.—Men's women's and children's shoes for sale.—
 The Grand Sultan Mahomet's palace.—For righteous-
 ness's sake.—On eagles wings.—John's brother's wife's
 mother is sick.—The Betsy and Speedwells cargoes
 were both saved.—For Christ's sake.—For ten sake.—
 Which dictionary do you prefer.—Webster, Walker,

or Johnson?—Asa's heart was perfect.—John Thompson's book.—Lucy Jones' book.—Your brothers servant's situation is critical.

ADJECTIVE.

598. RULE V.—*Every adjective and adjective word qualifies or limits some noun expressed or understood; as, "A good book"—"An amusing story"—"These pens"—"Every day."*

599. *Adjectives denoting ONE limit nouns in the singular; adjectives denoting MORE THAN ONE, limit nouns in the plural; as, "This man"—"These men"—"Six feet."*

600. When an adjective denoting one is joined to a plural noun, the whole is regarded as one aggregate; as, "The first *two weeks*"—"Every *ten miles*"—"The last *four lines*"—"The last *days of summer*," &c. But the verb after such subjects is usually plural.

601. In such expressions, the cardinal number, if small, may precede the words *first* and *last*, but not the other cardinals; as, "The *two first weeks*"—"The *four last lines*," meaning the two weeks at the beginning, or preceding all the rest—the four lines at the end, or succeeding all the rest.

602. Two or more adjectives, expressing qualities that belong to different objects of the same name, and that name expressed only with the last, should have an article before each; as, "The *red* and the *white* rose"—that is *two* roses, the one red, and the other white. So, "The first and the second page"—"The first and the second verse"—"The Old and the New World." It has become common, however, even with good writers, to drop the second article, and change the singular into the plural, to express the same idea; thus, "The first and second pages"—"The first and second verses," &c. This mode of expression, though incorrect in itself, is less stiff and formal than the other. When adjectives denoting one are connected by *or*, *nor*, &c., the noun must be singular.

603. Adjectives denoting *more than one* are the following, viz.—all cardinal numbers above *one*; as, *two*, *three*, &c.—*few*, *many*, with its comparative *more*—*all*, denoting number, *both*, and *several*.

604. Adjectives should not be used as adverbs; thus, "*miserable* poor," should be, "*miserably* poor"—"*sings elegantly*," should

be, "sings *elegantly*." So also, adverbs should not be used as adjectives; thus, "He arrived *safely*," should be, "He arrived *safe*."

605. *This here, that there, them* books, are vulgarisms, for *this, that, those* books.

606. An adjective sometimes qualifies an adjective and noun together as one compound term; as, "A *venerable* old man"—"The *best* black tea."

607. Sometimes an adjective modifies the meaning of another adjective; as, "*red-hot* iron"—"a *bright-red* color."

This, that—these, those.

608. When two or more objects are contrasted, *this* refers to the last mentioned, *that* to the first; as, *Virtue* and *vice* are opposite qualities; *that* ennobles the mind, *this* debases it."

609. *Former* and *latter* are used in the same way. So also, *the one, the other*, referring to words in the singular or plural.

610. When no contrast is expressed, *this* refers to a thing near, or just mentioned, and *that* to a thing more remote or formerly mentioned.

CONSTRUCTION OF COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

611. When one object is compared with one other of the *same class*, or with more than one of a different class, individually, or in the aggregate, the comparative is used; as, "James is the *weaker* of the two"—"He is *taller* than his father.—"He is *taller* than any of his brothers."

612. Sometimes, however, when two objects of the same class are compared, the superlative is used, being thought to be less stiff and formal; as, "James is the *weakest* of the two."

613. When one object is compared with more than one of the *same class*, the superlative is used, and commonly has *the* prefixed; as, "John is the *tallest* amongst us"—"He is the *best* scholar in a class of ten"—"He is the *most diligent* of them all."

614. In the use of the comparative and superlative, when more than two objects are compared, the following distinction should be carefully observed, viz.:—

615. When the comparative is used, the latter term of comparison must always *exclude* the former; thus, "Eve was fairer than any of her daughters,"—"Russia is larger than any *other* country in Europe,"—"China has a greater population than any nation of Europe," or, "than any *other* nation on the globe." Thus used, the comparative requires *than* after it.

616. When the superlative is used, the latter term of comparison must always *include* the former; as, "Russia is the largest country in Europe."—"China has the greatest population of any nation on the globe."

617. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper; thus, "James is *more taller* than John"—omit *more*—"He is the *most wisest* of the three"—omit *most*.

618. The double comparative *lesser*, however, is sanctioned by good authority; as, "Lesser Asia"—"Every lesser thing."—*N. Y. Review*.—"Like Lesser streams."—*Coleridge*.

619. Adjectives not admitting comparison, should not be compared, nor connected with comparative words, such as, *so*, *as*, and the like. Thus, *more universal*, *so universal*, *as universal*, should be *more general*, *so general*, *as general*; and so of similar words.

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

620. An adjective is commonly placed before its substantive; as, "A good man"—"A virtuous woman."

1. Adjectives should be placed as near as possible to their substantives, and so that it may be certain to what noun they belong; thus, "A new pair of shoes"—"A fine field of corn"—"A good glass of wine," should be, "A pair of new shoes"—"A field of fine corn"—"A glass of good wine"—because the adjectives qualify *shoes*, *corn*, *wine*, and not *pair*, *field*, *glass*. When ambiguity can not otherwise be avoided, the use of the hyphen may be resorted to with advantage; thus, "A good-man's coat"—"A good man's coat."

2. When an adjective qualifies two or more substantives, connected by *and*, it is usually expressed before the first, and understood to the rest; as, "A man of great wisdom and moderation."

3. It has been disputed whether the numerals, *two*, *three*, *four*, &c., should be placed *before* the words *first* and *last*, or *after* them, when used to indicate the beginning and the end of a series. On this point, with small numbers, usage is nearly equally divided; and, as the matter now stands, in some cases the one form seems to be preferable, and in some, the other. In this construction, as in some others which involve no impropriety, euphony and taste seem to govern. This much is certain—neither form can be justly condemned, on the ground of either authority or propriety.

EXERCISE.

ON THE ADJECTIVE.

In the following say which are correct and which incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the incorrect syntax, and

correct it. Give the construction of all the words to which the rule or any remark applies, and repeat the rule applicable to each word.

These kind of books can hardly be got.—He is the best accountant who can cast up correctly the sum of his own errors.—I have not been from home this ten days.—I ordered six ton of coal, and these makes the third that has been delivered.—In matters of conscience, first thoughts are best; in matters of prudence, the best thoughts are last.—I measured it with a ten-foot pole.—To calumniate is detestable, to be generous is commendable.—Hard fighting continued four hours.—A man who is prudent and industrious, will, by that means, increase his fortune.—No such original convention of the people was ever held antecedent to the existence of civil government.—I never met with a closer grained wood.—The first and second verse are better than the third and fourth.—He described a beautiful young lady leading a blind old man.—Time passes swift, though it appears to move slow.—We got home safely before dark, and found our friends sitting comfortably around the fire.—The boat glides smooth over the lake.—That he should have refused the appointment is extraordinary.—Draw that line more perpendicular.—Homer is the greater genius, Virgil the better artist.—Hand me that there pen, for this here one is the worst of all.—The last of the Roman tribunes.—The rumor has not spread so universally.—William is the taller of the two.—Them books were sold for a lesser price than they cost.—A more worthier man you can not find.—Socrates was wiser than any other Athenina.—That very subject which we are now discussing is still involved in mystery.—Philadelphia is the most regular of any city in Europe.—Of all the vices, covetousness enters deepest into the soul.—China has a greater population than any nation on earth.—Transcribing was, of all occupations, that which Cowper disliked the most.—That ship is larger than any of its class.—Soft sighed the flute.—The birds of

Brazil are more beautiful than any in South America.—
Heaven opened wide her ever during gates.—To be
wise and good is to be great and noble.

“For beast and bird,
These to their grassy couch, those to their nests, repair.”
“Night’s shadows hence, from thence the morning’s shine,
That bright, this dark, this earthly, that divine.”

ARTICLES OR LIMITING ADJECTIVES “A,” “AN,” “THE.”

621.—1. *The article A or AN is put before common nouns in the singular number when used INDEFINITELY*; as, “*A man*”—“*An apple*,” that is, “*any man*”—“*any apple*.”

2. *The article THE is put before common nouns, either singular or plural, when used DEFINITELY*; as, “*The sun rises*”—“*The city of New York*.”

622. A common noun, in the singular number, without an article or limiting word, is usually taken in its widest sense; as, “*Man is mortal*”—“*Anger is a short madness*.”

623. *The* is sometimes used before a singular noun, to particularize a species of class, without specifying any individual under it; as, *the oak, the rose, the horse, the raven*, meaning not any particular *oak, rose, horse, or raven*, but the class so called in a general sense. In such cases, whether the noun is used to denote a class or an individual, can be determined only by the sense, as in the following examples: “*The oak produces acorns*”—“*The oak was struck by lightning*.”—“*The horse is a noble animal*”—“*The horse ran away*.”—“*The lion shall eat straw like the ox*”—“*The lion tore the ox in pieces*.”—“*The night is the time for repose*”—“*The night was dark*.”

624. When several nouns are connected in the same construction the article is commonly expressed with the first, and understood to the rest; as, “*The men, women and children are expected*.” But when emphasis, or a different form of the article is required, the article is prefixed; as, “*The men, the women, and the children, are expected*.”—“*A horse and an ass*.”

625. But when several nouns in the same construction are dis-

jectively connected, the article must be repeated; as, "The men, or the women, or the children, are expected."

626. *The* is commonly put before an adjective used as a noun; as, "*The righteous* is more excellent than his neighbour." Also before adjectives in the superlative degree, when comparison is implied; as, "Gold is *the* most precious of the metals." But when comparison is not implied, the superlative is either without an article, or has *a* or *an* preceding it; as, "*A* most excellent man."

627. *The* is sometimes put *intensively* before adjectives and adverbs in the comparative degree; as, "*The higher* the mountain, *the colder* its top"—"*The faster* he goes, *the sooner* he stops." Thus used it performs the office of an *adverb*."

628. An adjective placed after its noun as an epithet, commonly has the article *the* before it; as, "Alexander *the Great*"—"Charles *the Fifth*."

This may be considered as inverted for "The great Alexander," "The fifth Charles;" or, by ellipsis, for "Alexander, the great [conqueror]," "Charles, the fifth [emperor of that name]."

629. *A* or *an* is sometimes put before the adjectives *few*, *hundred*, *thousand*, followed by a plural noun; as, "*A few* men"—"*A hundred* acres"—"*A thousand* miles." In such cases, the adjective and noun may be considered as a compound term, expressing *one* aggregate, and having the construction of a collective noun. Or the adjective may be regarded as a collective noun, and the noun following governed by *of*, understood; as, "*A few* [of] men"—"*A hundred* [of] acres," &c. This is evidently the construction of larger numbers; thus, we never say, "A million dollars," but "A million of dollars."

630. When two or more adjectives belong to the *same* noun, the article of the noun is put with the first adjective, but not with the rest; as, "*A red* and *white* rose," that is, *one* rose, partly *red* and partly *white*. But—

631. When two or more adjectives belong each to a *different* object of the same name, the article of the noun is put with each adjective; as, "*A red* and *white* rose"—"*A red* rose and *a white* rose," that is, *two* roses, *one* red and the *other* white.

632. So also when two or more epithets follow a noun, if both designate the *same* person, the article precedes the first only. If they designate different persons, the article must precede each; thus, "Johnson, the bookseller and stationer," means *one* man who is both a bookseller and a stationer; but, "Johnson *the* bookseller and *the* stationer," means *two* men, *one* a bookseller, named Johnson, and the other a stationer, not named.

633. When two nouns after a word implying comparison, refer to the same person or thing, the last *must want* the article; as, "He

is a better soldier than statesman." But when they refer to two different persons, the last *must* have the article; as, "He is a better soldier than a statesman [would be]."

634. The article *a* before the adjective *few* and *little*, renders the meaning *positive*; as, "A few men can do that"—"He deserves a little credit." But without the article the meaning is *negative*; as, "*Few* men can do that"—"He deserves a *little* credit."

635. The article is generally omitted before *proper names*, *abstract nouns*, and names of *virtues*, *vices*, *arts*, *sciences*, &c., when not restricted, and such other nouns as are of themselves so manifestly definite as not to require it; as, "*Christmas* is in *December*"—" *Logic* and *mathematics* are important studies"—"*Truth* is *mighty*." Still certain proper names, and names used in a certain way, have the article prefixed; as, "*The Alps*"—" *The Rhine*"—" *The Azores*"—" *The immortal Washington*"—"He was a *Johnson*, of the family of the *Johnsons* in England."

POSITION OF THE ARTICLE.

636. The article is commonly placed before its noun; as, "*A man*"—" *The man*."

637. If the noun is qualified by an adjective before it, the article precedes the adjective; as, "*A good man*."

638. But the article follows the adjectives, *all*, *such*, *many*, *what*, *both*; and all adjectives preceded by *too*, *so*, *as*, or *how*; as, "*All the men*"—" *Such a man*"—" *Many a man*"—" *What a man*"—" *Both the men*"—" *Too great a man*"—" *So great a man*"—" *As great a man*"—" *How great a man*."

639. When the adjective follows the noun, not as the epithet, the article remains before the noun, and the adjective is without it; as, "*A man destitute of principle could not be trusted*."

NOTE.—The use of the article is so varied, that the best general rule is to study what the sense requires, both as to its proper use and position.

EXERCISE.

ON THE ARTICLE.

In the following sentences, with special reference to the Article, say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false Syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of every word to which any of the remarks applies.

The life of a modern soldier is ill represented by heroic fiction.—A few men of his age enjoy so good health.—We should ever pay attention to the graceful

and becoming.—The age of chivalry is gone.—Are not my days few?—The memory of the just is blessed; but the name of the wicked shall rot.—A crowd at the door was so great that we could not enter.—A little respect should be paid to those who deserve none.—Best men are often those who say least.—Reason was given to man to control his passions.—It is always necessary to pay a little attention to business.—James is a man of the most brilliant talents.—A man was made to mourn.—He is not so good a poet as historian.—Herod the Great was distinguished for his cruelty.—The horse is a noble animal.—A man may be a better soldier than a logician.—Pliny the younger for gentleness and benignity.—A lion is generous, a cat is treacherous, a dog is faithful.—Thomson the watchmaker and the jeweller made one of the party.—The father of William Cowper, poet, was chaplain to George II.—War has means of destruction more dreadful than cannon or sword.—The first and the second book are difficult.—Neither the man nor boy was to blame.—A hot and cold spring were found in the same neighbourhood.—A man may be a mechanic, or a farmer, or a lawyer, and be useful and respected; but an idler or a spendthrift can never be either.—A red and white flag was the only one displayed from the tower.—A beautiful stream flows between the old and new mansion.

A PRONOUN AND ITS ANTECEDENT.

640. RULE VI.—Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, person, and number; as, “All that a *man* hath will *he* give for *his* life”—“A *tree* is known by *its* fruit.”

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

SPECIAL RULES.

641. RULE 1.—When a pronoun refers to two or more words taken together, it becomes plural, and, if

they are of different persons, prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third; as, "*He* and *she* did *their* duty," "*John* and *you* and *I* will do *our* duty."

542. RULE 2.—When a pronoun refers to two or more words in the singular taken separately, or to one of them exclusively, it must be singular; as, "A clock or a watch moves merely as *it* is moved."

643. RULE 3.—But if either of the words referred to is plural, the pronoun must be plural also; as, "Neither *he* nor *they* trouble *themselves*." Distributives are always of the third person singular.

644. When singular nouns of different genders are taken separately, they can not be represented by a pronoun, for want of a singular pronoun, common gender, except by a clumsy repetition of pronouns of the corresponding genders; thus, "If any *man* or *woman* shall violate *his* or *her* pledge, *he* or *she* shall pay a fine." The use of the *plural* pronoun in such cases, though sometimes used, is improper; as "If any man or woman shall violate *their* pledge, &c.

645. Pronouns referring to singular nouns or other words, of the common gender, taken in a general sense, are commonly masculine; as, "A parent should love *his* child,"—"Every person has *his* faults,"—"No one should commend *himself*." The want of a singular personal pronoun, common gender, is felt also in this construction.

646. A pronoun referring to a collective noun in the singular, expressing many as one whole, should be in the neuter singular; but when the noun expresses many as individuals, the pronoun should be plural; as, "The *army* proceeded on *its* march,"—"The *court* were divided in *their* opinion."

647. A singular noun after the phrase, "*many a*," may take a pronoun in the plural, but never in the same clause; as—

"In Hawick twinkled *many a* light
Behind him soon *they* set in night."—*W. Scott*.

648. Pronouns representing nouns personified, take the gender of the noun as a *person*; as, "*Night* sable goddess, from *her* ebony throne." But pronouns representing nouns taken metaphorically, agree with them in their *literal* sense; as, "Pitt was the *pillar* which in *its* strength upheld the state."

649. It is improper in the progress of a sentence to denote the same person by pronouns of different numbers; as, "I labored long

to make *thee* happy, and now *you* reward me by ingratitude." It should be "to make *you* happy," or, "*thou* rewardest."

POSITION OF PRONOUNS.

650. When words of different persons come together, the usual order of arrangement, in English, is to place the second person before the third, and the first person last; as, "*You and he and I* are sent for."—This matter concerns *you* or *him* or *me*."

EXERCISE.

ON PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

In the following, say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false Syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the words to which the rule or any remark applies, and repeat the rule.

A person's success in life depends on his exertions; If he shall aim at nothing, he shall certainly achieve nothing.—I and my father were invited.—The court, in its wisdom, decided otherwise.—A man's recollections of the past regulate their anticipations of the future.—An invitation was sent to me and George.—Society is not always answerable for the conduct of their members. Each of us had more than we wanted.—Care for yourself, if you would have others to care for you.—If any boy or girl should neglect her duty, they shall forfeit their place.—Every one of you should attend to his own business.—If thou forget thy friend, can you expect that your friend will remember thee?—No lady or gentleman would do a thing so unworthy of them.—Both cold and heat have its extremes.—One man may do a kindness to another, though he is his enemy.—One should not think too highly of himself.—You and I must be diligent in our studies.—John gave his friend a present which his friend highly valued.—A parent's care for her children is not always highly valued.—One or other must relinquish his claim.—The committee were divided in their opinions.—Let each esteem others better than herself.—Neither wealth nor honor confers happiness on their votaries.—The earth is my mother; I will recline on her bosom.—Poverty and wealth have each its own temptations.—That freedom, in its fearless

flight, may here announce its glorious reign.—As time advances, it leaves behind him the traces of its flight.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

SPECIAL RULES.

651. *Who* is applied to persons or to things personified; as, "The man *who*"—"The fox *who* had never seen a lion."

652. *Which* is applied to things and inferior animals—sometimes to children—to collective nouns in the singular, implying unity—and also to persons in asking questions.

653. *Which* applies to a noun denoting a person, when the character, or the name merely as a word, is referred to; as, "He is a good writer, *which* is all he professes to be."—"That was the work of *Herod*, *which* is but another name for cruelty."

654. *That*, as a relative, is used instead of *who* or *which*—

1. After adjectives in the superlative degree—after the words *very*, *same*, and *all*—often after *no*, *some*, and *any*—and generally in restrictive clauses (268).

2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, "The man and the horse *that* we saw."

3. After the interrogative *who*, and often after the personal pronouns; as, "*Who that* knew him could think so?" "*I that* speak in righteousness."

4. Generally when the propriety of *who* or *which* is doubtful; as "The little child *that* was placed in the midst."

655. The relatives *who* or *which* and *that* should not be mixed in a series of relative clauses having the same antecedent. Thus it is improper to say, "The man *that* met us and *whom* we saw." It should be, "*who* met us," or "*that* we saw."

656. The relative refers sometimes to the idea expressed by an adjective, sometimes to the infinitive. But this construction is rare.

657. The relative in the objective case is often omitted; as, "Here is the book I promised you." The relative in the nominative case is hardly ever omitted except in poetry; as—

"In this, 'tis God—directs, in that, 'tis man."

658. *What* should not be used for the conjunction *that*. Thus, "I cannot believe but *what* it is so," should be, "but *that* it is so." Also the demonstrative *that* should not be used for the relative *what*; as, "We speak *that* we do know," better, "*what* we do know."

POSITION OF THE RELATIVE.

The relative is placed immediately after its antecedent.

659. To prevent ambiguity, the relative should be placed as near its antecedent as possible, and so that there can be no uncertainty as to what word it refers.

660. In most instances, the sense will be a sufficient guide in this matter; thus, "They removed their wives and children in wagons covered with the skins of animals, *which* formed their simple habitations." Here the sense only can determine to which of the three words *wagons*, *skins*, or *animals*, the relative *which* refers. But—

661. When the antecedent cannot be determined by the *sense*, it should be determined by the *position* of the relative, which, as a general rule, should belong to the nearest antecedent. Thus—

"We walked from the house to the *barn* } *which* had been erected."
 "We walked to the barn from the *house* }

Here the relative *which*, as determined by its position, refers, in the first sentence, to *barn*, and in the second, to *house*.

662. So also when the antecedents denote the same object, the one being in the subject and the other, in the predicate, the relative takes the person of the one next it; as "I am the *man* *who* commands you"—not *command* you." If the relative refer to *I*, the words should be arranged, *I* *who* command you am the man." Hence—

663. A relative clause which modifies the *subject* should not be placed in the *predicate*; thus, "He should not keep a horse that can not ride," should be, "He that can not ride, should not keep a horse."

EXERCISE.

ON THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

In the following sentences, say which are correct and which incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of the words to which the rule is applicable, and repeat the rule.

Those who seek wisdom will certainly find her.—
 Those who spend their time in idleness must not expect the sympathy of the diligent.—The tiger is a beast of prey who destroys without pity.—Oh Thou that art, and who wast, and that art to come!—The court who gives currency to such manners should be exemplary.—
 He needs no spectacles that can not see, nor boots that cannot walk.—Whoever came were made welcome.—

Your friend is one of the committee that was appointed yesterday.—The king dismissed his minister without inquiry, who had never before committed so unjust an action.—Everything whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them.—The family with whom I lived has left the city.—I can not believe but what you have been sick.—O Thou hast preserved us, and wilt still preserve us!—It is the best situation which can be got.—No man who respects himself would do so mean an action.—This is the same horse which we saw yesterday.—I who speak unto you am he.

INDEPENDENT CASE.

664. RULE VII.—A noun or pronoun whose case depends on no other word, is put in the independent case.

NOTE.—The case under this rule is usually called *the nominative absolute or independent*; because, in English, though it has no grammatical dependence on any word in the sentence, it has usually the form of the nominative. This occurs in such cases as the following:—

665. RULE 1.—A substantive with a participle, whose case depends on no other word, used to express a cause, reason, or concomitant; as, "He being gone, only two remain," &c.

666. In this construction the substantive is sometimes understood; as "His conduct, viewing it even favorably, can not be commended;" that is "we [a person] viewing it," &c.

667. Sometimes *being* and *having been* are omitted; as, "Her wheel [being] at rest"—"He destroyed or won," &c., that is, "He *having been* destroyed or won," &c—"This said," that is, "This *being* said."

668. In this construction, the substantive with the participle is used to express an assumed fact in an abbreviated form, and is equivalent to a dependent clause, connected by *when*, *while*, *if*, *since*, *because*, &c., as "He *having gone*, his brother returned;"—*Since or because he went*, his brother returned."

669. RULE 2.—A person or thing addressed, without a verb or governing word; as, I remain, dear sir, yours truly—"Plato thou reasonest well."

670. RULE 3.—A substantive, unconnected in mere exclamation; as, "O, the times! O, the manners!"

671. RULE 4.—*A substantive, used by pleonasm before an exclamation; as, "The boy, oh! where was he?"—"Your fathers, where are they?"—the prophets, do they live forever?"*

Under this rule, a mistake can be made only in the case of pronouns.

EXERCISE

ON THE INDEPENDENT CASE.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it; give the construction of all the words to which the rule or any remark applies, and repeat the rule.

I being absent, the business was neglected.—He made as wise proverbs as anybody, him only excepted.—All enjoyed themselves very much, me excepted.—Whom being dead, we shall come.

Whose gray top
Shall tremble, him descending.
The bleating sheep with my complaints agree,
Them parched with heat, and me inflamed by thee
She quick relapsing to her former state.
Then all thy gifts and graces we display.
Thee, only thee, directing all our way.

THE OBJECTIVE GOVERNED BY VERBS.

672. RULE VII.—*A transitive verb in the active voice governs the objective case; as, "We love him."—"He loves us."—"Whom did they send?"*

SPECIAL RULES.

673.—RULE I:—*Verbs used intransitively do not require, and must not have an object to complete the meaning; thus:—*

"Repenting *him* of his design," should be, "Repenting of his design." Still, a few anomalies of this kind are to be found; as, "They laughed *him* to scorn."—"The manliness to look the *subject* in the face."—"Talked the *night* away."

674. RULE 2.—*Intransitive verbs used in a transitive*

sense require an object to complete the meaning; as, "He runs a race."—"They live a holy life."

675. To this usage may be referred such expressions in poetry as the following: "The brooks ran nectar"—"The trees wapt gums and balms"—"Her lips blush deeper sweets," &c.

676. To this rule also belongs the objective after causatives; as, "He runs a stage."—"John walks his horse."—"He works him hard," &c. Such expressions, however, as "Grows corn," are inelegant, and should be avoided.

677 RULE 3.—Verbs used intransitively do not, except in a few instances admit of a passive form. He is gone. Year after year it steals till all are fled.

"I am purposed"—"I am perished," should be, "I have purposed"—"I am perishing." Such expressions as "I am resolved"—"He is deceased"—"He is retired from business"—"We are determined to go on," &c., though common, are incorrect. It is better to say, "I have resolved"—"He has retired." The verbs *come* and *go* and several others are often used in the passive form by good writers; as, He is gone. Year after year it steals till all are fled.

678.—RULE 4.—A transitive verb does not admit a preposition after it; thus, "I must premise *with* a few observations."—"I will not allow *of* it." Omit *with* and *of*.

679. RULE 5.—Verbs signifying to NAME, CHOOSE, APPOINT, CONSTITUTE, and the like, generally govern two objectives, *viz.*, the DIRECT, denoting the person or thing acted upon, and the INDIRECT, denoting the result of the act expressed; as, "They named *him* John."—"The people elected *him* president."—"They made *it* a book."

680. In such sentences, when the verb is in the passive voice, the direct object of the active form is made the subject of the passive, and the indirect remains as the predicate nominative after the verb. Thus, "He was named *John*."—"He was elected *president*."—"It was made a *book*."

681. Besides the direct or immediate object in the objective case some verbs have a remote object between the immediate and the verb, governed by a preposition understood; as, "John gave *me* a book." But when the remote object comes last, the preposition must be expressed; as, "John gave a book to *me*." The

verbs thus used are such as signify to *ask, teach, offer, promise, give, pay, tell, allow, deny*, and some others.

682. These verbs properly take the immediate object of the active

683. In loose composition, however, the *remote* object is some times made the subject, and the *immediate* object remains in the objective case after the passive voice; as "*I was promised a book.*" The verbs *ask* and *teach* frequently have this double construction in the passive, but in general the regular construction is better.

Similar to this are certain expressions sufficiently correct in the active form, but which are anomalous, and cannot be analyzed in the form usually but incorrectly given to them in the passive: Thus, *Active*—"They took possession of the farm." *Passive* (incorrectly) "The farm was taken possession of by them."—(correctly) "Possession of the farm was taken by them." This anomaly arises from making the object of the preposition, instead of the object of the verb, the subject of the verb in the passive. Such anomalies are the following: "The circumstance was made use of." "The ship was lost sight of."—"The occasion was taken advantage of." Either the regular passive form of expression should be used, or, if that be awkward, a different form of expression should be chosen.

POSITION.

684. As the nominative and the objective case of nouns are alike in form, the arrangement of the sentence should clearly show which is intended to stand as nominative and which as objective. The nominative generally *precedes* the verb, and the objective *follows* it. Thus, "*Brutus killed Cæsar.*" If one (or both) of these should be a pronoun, the order may be varied without obscuring the sense, and sometimes the objective is rendered more emphatic by being placed *first*; as, "*Him he slew.*"

685. When the objective is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes both the verb and its nominative; as, "*The man whom we saw is dead.*"—" *Whom did you send?*"

686. The objective should not, if possible, be separated from its verb by intervening clauses. Thus, "*We could not discover, for the want of proper tests, the quality of the metal.*" Better. "*We could not, for want of proper tests, discover the quality of the metal.*"

EXERCISE.

ON THE OBJECTIVE TO VERBS.

In the following sentences, say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule.

Him and them we know, but who art thou?—He is retired to his room.—She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.—Is your father returned?—Them that honor me I will honor.—He was not returned an hour ago.—Who do you think I saw yesterday?—He is gone.—Whom did he marry?—No country will allow such a practice.—Who, having not seen, we love.—False accusation can not diminish from his real merit.—Whom should I meet the other day but my old friend?—He ingratiates with some by traducing others. Who dost thou take to be such a coward?—They shall not want encouragement.—You will have reason enough to repent of your foolish conduct.—We do not want for anything.—Go, flee thee away into the land of Judea.—A pension was promised me.—Hasten thee home.—Several persons had entered into a conspiracy.—She would not accept the situation, though she was offered it.—Fifty men are deserted from the Army.—A dollar was paid to him for my services.—He is almost perished with cold.—The commissioner was denied access.—I have resolved to go.—Becket could not better discover, than by attacking so powerful an interest, his resolution to maintain his right.—The troops pursued, without waiting to rest, the enemy to their gates.

THE PREDICATE NOMINATIVE.

687. RULE IX.—Intransitive verbs, and verbs in the passive voice, take the same case after them as before them, when both words refer to the same person or thing; as:—

"It is I"—"He shall be called *John*"—"She walks a *queen*"—"I took it to be *him*"—"He seems to be a *scholar*"—"The opinion is, *that he will live*." Hence—

POSITION.

688. The usual position of the predicate substantive is after the verb, as that of the subject is before it, and this is always the order of construction. But in both the direct and the indirect question, and in inverted sentences, its *place* is often different; thus, "Who is *he*?"—"We know not who *he* is"—"Is *he* a student?"—"He is the same *that he was*"—"The *don* it was *that* died"—"A *man* *he* was to all the country dear"—"FRET was *I* to the lame"—"Far other *scene* is *Thrasymenus* now."—"Are they friends?"—"Friends they cannot be."

EXERCISE.

ON THE PREDICATE NOUN.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it; give the construction of all the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule.

It is I.—Whom do you think he is?—It was me who wrote the letter, and him who carried it to the post office.—Who do you think him to be?—I am sure it could not have been she.—Whom do men say that I am?—It is them, you said, who deserve most blame.—She is the person whom I understood it to be.—You would probably do the same thing if you were he.—He is the man whom you said it was.—I understood it to be he.—Let him be who he may.—It may have been him, but there is no proof of it.—Can you tell whom that man is?—If I were he, I would go abroad at once.—Is it not him who you thought it was?—I little thought it had been him.—Thomas knew not who it was that called, though quite certain it was not she whom we saw yesterday.—It is not I you are in love with.—Let the same be her whom thou hast appointed for thy servant Isaac.—Art thou proud yet?—He was not the person whom he affected to be.—Ay, and that I am not thee.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

689.—RULE X.—The form peculiar to the Subjunctive mode is used only when both contingency and futurity are implied; as, "If he *continue* to study he will improve."

690. When contingency or doubt only, and not futurity, is implied, the Indicative form is used; as, "If he *has* money he keeps it."

691. Contingency or doubt is usually expressed by the connectives, *if, though, unless, except, whether, &c.*; but whether futurity is implied or not, must be gathered from the context. In general, when the sense is the same, with *shall, will, or should* prefixed to the verb, as without it, the peculiar form of subjunctive may be used; otherwise, not. Thus, in the preceding example, "If he *continue*," and, "If he *shall continue*," mean the same thing.

692. The subjunctive mood is used to express a wish or desire; as, I wish I *were* wise!"

693. A supposition or wish, implying a present denial of the thing supposed or desired, is expressed by the past subjunctive; as "If my kingdom *were* of this world, then would my servants fight," implying, "It is not of this world."—"O, that thou *were* as my brother!" implying, "Thou art not."

EXERCISE.

ON THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

In the following say, which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it; give the construction of all the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule.

We must go to-morrow unless it rain.—There will be enough to do next week if the weather is good.—Though the sky is clear, it is cold.—He will maintain his cause, though he loses his estate.—We may get letters, if the mail arrives in time.—If John is come, why did you not tell me?—Ask John if he know when the legislature meets.—If he knows anything, he surely knows, that unless he get better he cannot be removed.—If thou be the Son of God, command that these stones be made bread.—Take care that the horse does not run away.—See that thou dost it not.—Kiss the Son, lest he is

angry.—Reprove not a scorner, lest he hates thee.—If he is but in health, it will be the cause of great thankfulness.—O, that he were wise!—I wish I was at home.—If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.—If it was not so, I would have told you.—If he were a year older, I would send him to school.—If he was an impostor, he must have been detected.—If I were he, I would accept the offer.—Was I he, I would accept the offer.

THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

694. RULE XI.—The infinitive mood is a verbal noun ; and when not the subject of a verb, or governed as any other noun by a verb, noun, or preposition, is governed by the sign “to ;” as :—

To speak in that manner is wrong—“to speak” subject of the verb “is.” I desire *to learn*—“to learn” objective to “desire.” I have a desire to “learn”—to learn,—in apposition with the noun “desire.” I am in haste *to depart*—“to depart,”—governed by the preposition for, understood, or without supplying anything governed by the sign “to.” I am ready *to begin* the work—“to begin” governed by for, understood, or by the sign “to.” He is about *to return*—“to return,” governed by the preposition “about.” He lived so as [he would live] to refute scandal—“to refute” governed by “for” or by the sign “to.” He aims higher than *to reign* [is high]—“to reign,” nominative to is. He commanded the men *to march*—“to march,” object of commanded. You are *to blame*—“to blame,” predicate, nominative after the copula “are.” The use of the infinitive is fully illustrated in these examples.

695. EXPLANATION.—The infinitive mood, in relation to the word that governs it, that is, the word on which it depends, has always the construction of a noun, as is shown in the above examples ; but it is a *verbal* noun. Like the participle, it lacks the essential characteristic of the verb, that is, it is never used as the verb to make an assertion, and hence has no agreement in person and number with any word as its nominative. With this important exception, it possesses every attribute, and takes every modification of the verb. As it expresses action or being, there must therefore be an actor ; but observe, the word which represents the actor has its own construction independent of any connection with the infinitive, and the further relation of such word as the doer of

the act expressed by the *infinitive*, is super-added and incidental. Take, for example, the sentence,—“*I am ready to begin the work immediately.*” “*I*” is the doer of the act, expressed by the infinitive “to begin,” but “*I*” has its construction independent of this, as nominative to the verb “am.” “To begin,” in its verbal character, like any other transitive verb, has, as a matter of course, its objective, “work;” and also, in its verbal character, is modified by the adverb “immediately.” “He commanded the *men to lead their horses up the hill.*” “To lead” is the object of “commanded;” “men” is the doer of the act, expressed by the infinitive “to lead,” but “men” has its construction independent of this as the direct objective of “commanded;” “horses” is objective of “to lead;” “up the hill” is an adjunct, modifying “to lead.”

SPECIAL RULES.

696. RULE 5.—To, the sign of the infinitive, is not used after the verbs BID, DARE, NEED, MAKE, SEE, HEAR, FEEL and LET, in the active voice, nor after LET in the passive; as, “I saw him do it”—“You need not go”—“He was let go.”

697. To this rule there are some exceptions. As it relates only to euphony and usage, “to” may be inserted when harshness will not thereby be produced; thus, “Conscious that his opinion needs to be disguised.”

698. For the same reason, “to” is sometimes omitted after the verbs *perceive, behold, observe, have, and know.*

699. When several infinitives come together in the same construction, the sign *to* expressed with the first, is sometimes omitted before those that follow; thus, “It is better to be a king and *die*, than to live and *be* a prince.” This should never be done when either harshness or obscurity would be the result.

700. “To,” the sign of the infinitive, should never be used for the infinitive itself. Thus, “I have not written, and I do not intend *to*,” is a colloquial vulgarism for, “I have not written, and I do not intend *to write*.”

701. The infinitive is sometimes put absolutely, without a governing word; as, “*To say* the truth, I was in fault.”

EXERCISE.

ON THE INFINITIVE.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the incorrect syntax, and correct it; give the construction of all the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule.

It is better to be a king and to die than to live and be an exile.—He scorns either to temporize, or deceive, or be guilty of evasion.

I have seen some young persons conduct themselves very discreetly.—He bid me to go home.—Let no man to think too highly of himself.—He was heard to say it by everybody.—Dare to be wise.—They were bid come into the house.—I strive to live as God designed me to.

Point out the use and construction of the infinitive in the following correct sentences.

It too often happens that to be above the reach of want just places us within the reach of avarice.—It does no good to preach generosity, or even justice, to those who have neither sense nor soul.—He was born to be great.—To accomplish these ends, savages resort to cunning.—They thought to make themselves rich.—Some people are difficult to please.—To know ourselves, we must commence by knowing our own weakness.—If we have not always time to read, we have always time to reflect.—To be or not to be? that is the question.—I do well to be angry.—Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might.—Having food to eat and raiment to put on, be content.

CONSTRUCTION OF PARTICIPLES.

702. RULE XII.—The participle, when not joined with the auxiliary verbs "*have*" or "*to be*," and taken as a verb, has the construction of a verbal NOUN or verbal ADJECTIVE; as—

"*He loving his work performed it*"—" *Esteeming themselves wise, they became fools*"—" *After defeating his army, he took possession of the king*"—" *Writing letters is my occupation in the morning.*"

703. In the first two of the above examples the participles are verbal *adjectives*. In the other two they are verbal nouns.

704. It will be seen by these examples that while the verb formally asserts or declares the fact, the participle assumes it. We are

thus, with the greatest advantage, enabled to condense what we have to say by abridging the dependent clauses. The explanatory remarks on the *infinitive* apply equally to the *participle*.

705. In a substantive phrase, a noun following the imperfect or perfect participle (as well as the infinitive) of a copulative verb, is in the predicate-nominative; as, "His *being* an expert dancer"—"The crime of *being* a young man,"

SPECIAL RULES.

706. RULE 1.—*When the imperfect or perfect participle is used as a noun, a noun before it is put in the possessive case*; as, "Much depends on the *pupil's* composing frequently"—"*John's* having done so is evident."

707. In many cases, the nominative or the objective before the imperfect participle as an *adjective*, will express nearly the same idea. Thus, "Much will depend on the *pupil's* composing," and "Much will depend on the *pupil* composing," mean substantially the same thing. Still, the construction is different; in the first, the *dependence* is on the *composing*; in the second it is on the *pupil*: and though in these examples the sense is nearly the same, yet there are often examples in which the sense is entirely different. Thus, "What do you think of my *horse's* running to-day?" implies he *has* run, and asks, "How do you think he ran?" But "What do you think of my *horse* running to-day?" implies he *has not* run, and asks, "Do you think he should run?"

708. RULE 3.—When the verbal noun expresses something of which the noun following denotes the **DOER** it should have the article and preposition; as, "It was said in *the hearing of* the witness." But when it expresses something of which the noun following does not denote the doer, but the **OBJECT**, both should be omitted, as, "The court spent some time in *hearing* the witness."

709. RULE 4.—The perfect participle, and not the past tense, should be used after the auxiliaries **HAVE** and **BE**; as, "I have *written*" (not *wrote*)—"The letter is *written*" (not *wrote*).

710. So also the perfect participle should not be used for the past tense; as, "He *ran*," not *run*—"I *saw*," not *seen*—"I *did*," not *done*.

711. In many verbs whose present passive expresses not the present continuance of the act, but of the result of the act in a finished state, the imperfect participle active has a *passive* as well as an active sense; and is used with the auxiliary verb *to be*, to express the present passive progressively; as, "The house *is building*" (not being built). When, in such verbs, the participle in *ing* has not a passive sense—or where the use of it in a passive sense would be ambiguous, a different form of expression should be used.

712. The participle is sometimes used absolutely, having no dependence on any other word; as, "Properly *speaking*, there is no such thing as chance."

EXERCISE.

ON THE PARTICIPLE.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of all the participles and repeat the rule applicable to each.

We could not be sure of its being him.—While the necessary movement was being made.—Man rebelling against his Maker, brought him into ruin.—Goods are now being sold off at first cost.—Joseph having been sold by his brethren, was overruled for good.—Wheat is being sold at a fair price.—A man being poor does not make him miserable.—And still be being done and never done.—What do you think of my horse running to-day?—While these things were being transacted in England.—Did he run well?—The court was then being held?—What think you of my horse's running to-day?—Will it be safe?—The spot where this new and strange tragedy was being acted.—By the obtaining wisdom you will command respect.—The French language is spoke in every part of Europe.—This was equal to rejecting of the proposal.—Some fell by the way side and was trode down.—Learning of anything well requires great application.—I seen the man who done it.—Meekness is manifested in suffering of ills patiently—in the suffering ills patiently—in the suffering of ills patiently.—In the patient suffering ills—in patient suffering of ills.—Some one has took my pen.—In the hearing of the will read, and in the examining

of sundry papers much time was spent.—The tree has fell.—I have drank enough.—He has broke his cup.

CONNECTION OF TENSES.

713. RULE XIII.—In expressing the different relations of time, care must be taken to employ those tenses which express correctly the sense intended; as, “I have known him these many years;”—not, “I know him these many years;” nor, “I knew him these many years.”

714. REMARK.—The particular tense necessary to be used must depend upon the sense, and no rules can be given that will apply to all cases. But it may be proper to observe that,

715. An observation which is always true must be expressed in the *present tense*; as, “The stoics believed that ‘all crimes *are* equal.’”

716. The *present-perfect*, and not the present tense, should be used in connection with words denoting an *extent* of time continued to the present; thus, “They *continue* with me now three days, should be, *have continued*,” &c.

717. The *present-perfect tense* ought never to be used in connection with words which express past time; thus, “I have *formerly* mentioned his attachment to study,” should be, “I *formerly* mentioned,” &c.

718. To express an event simply as past, without relation to any other point of time than the present, or as taking place *at a certain* past time mentioned, the *past tense* is used; as, “God created the world.”—“In the beginning, God created the world.”

719. When we wish to represent an event as *past* at or before a certain past time referred to, the verb must be put in the *past-perfect tense*. Thus, when we say, “The vessel *had arrived* at nine o’clock,” we mean, at nine o’clock the arriving of the vessel was *past*. But when we say, “The vessel *arrived* at nine o’clock,” we mean, the arriving of the vessel was then *present*.

720. It is always essential to the use of this tense that the event be *PAST* at the time referred to. It is proper to notice here, also, that in pointing out the time of a past event, two points or periods of time are often mentioned—the one for the purpose of *ascertaining the other*. Thus, “Who arrived an *hour* before *sunset*.” Here

the past-perfect is not used, though the arriving is represented as past before a past time mentioned, viz., *sunset*, because *sunset* is *not the time referred to*, but is mentioned in order to describe that time; and at the time described, the event, *arriving*, was not past, but present. If in this example we omit the word "hour," and merely say "*before sunset*," the construction will be the same. This will show that it is correct to say, "Before I went to France I visited England," because the visiting of England is represented as present, and not past at the time indicated by the word *before*. But if the event mentioned is represented as *past* at the time indicated by the word *before*, or if the sentence is so arranged that only one point of past time is indicated at which the event referred to is past, the *past perfect* must be used, as, "They *had arrived* before we sailed."—"They arrived after we *had sailed*."—"I *had visited* England when we returned to America."

721. The present and the past of the auxiliaries, *shall, will, may, can*, should never be associated in the same sentence; and care must be taken that the subsequent verb be expressed in the same tense with the antecedent verb; thus, "I *may* or *can* do it now, if I *choose*"—"I *might* or *could* do it now, if I *chose*"—"I *shall* or *will* do it, when I *can*"—"I *may* do it, if I *can*"—"I *once could* do it, but I *would* not"—"I *would* have done it then, but I *could* not"—"I *mention* it to him, that he *may* stop if he *choose*"—"I *mentioned* it to him, that he *might* stop if he *chose*"—"I have *mentioned* it to him, that he *may* stop."—"I *had* mentioned it to him, that he *might* stop."—"I *had* mentioned it to him that he *might have stopped* had he *chosen*."

722. In dependent clauses, the *past-perfect indicative* or *potential* is used to express an event antecedent to, but never, contemporary with, or subsequent to, that expressed by a verb in the past tense in the leading clause. Thus, we can say, "I believed he had done it," but not, "I hoped he had done it;" because *belief* may refer to what is past, but *hope* always refers to something future.

723. When *should* is used instead of *ought*, to express *present* duty, it may be followed by the present or present-perfect; as, "You *should* study, that you *may* become learned."

The indicative present is frequently used after the words *when, till, before, as soon as, after*, to express the relative time of a future action; as, "When he *comes*, he will be welcome." When placed before the *present-perfect indicative*, these words denote the completion of a future action or event; as, "He will never be better *till* he *has felt* the pangs of poverty."

724. A verb in the infinitive mood must be in the *present tense*, when it expresses what is *contemporary* in point of time with its governing verb, or *subsequent* to it; as, "He appeared *to be* a man of letters."—"The apostles were determined *to preach* the gospel."

Hence, verbs denoting *hope, desire, intention*, or *command*, must be followed by the *present infinitive*, and not by the *perfect*.

725. But the perfect infinitive must be used to express what is *antecedent* to the time of the governing verb; as, "Romulus is said to have founded Rome."

EXERCISE.

ON THE TENSES.

In the following, say which are correct and which are incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it; give the construction of the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule.

The doctor said that fever always produces thirst.—I knew the family more than twenty years.—He has lately lost an only son.—After Columbus made his preparations, he set out on his voyage of discovery.—I should be obliged to him if he would gratify me in that particular.—We had hoped that Lord Nugent would have been able to collect much new and interesting information.—He should study diligently, that he may become learned.—We shall welcome him when he arrives.—From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to be a man of learning.—Kirstall abbey, now in ruins, appears to have been an extensive building.—The philosopher said that heat always expanded metals.—I am now at school six months.—He has been formerly very disorderly.—When we had finished our lessons we went out to play.—Ye will not come to me, that ye may have life.—Columbus hoped that he would render the natives tributary to the crown of Spain.—We should respect those persons, because they continued long attached to us.—As soon as he shall return we will recommence our studies.—Our friends intended to have met us.—Lycurgus, the Spartan law-giver, is said to be born in the nine hundred and twenty-sixth year before Christ.—He said that truth was immutable.—My brother was sick four weeks, and is no better.—I once or twice told the story to our friend before he went away.—He has done it yesterday.—Some one has long ago told the same story.—He that had been dead sat up and began to speak.—Be wise and good that you might be

happy.—We expected that they would have come.—A prisoner is not accounted guilty till he be convicted.—He was afraid he would have died.—He tells lies long enough.—When we had arrived at the palace, we delivered the letters which we previously procured.—He was told his danger, that he might shun it.—They have continued with me now three days.—It was a strange thing to me, for I had never seen such a thing before.—When I came, he was gone.

CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBS.

726. RULE XIV.—Adverbs modify VERBS, ADJECTIVES, and other ADVERBS; as, “John *speaks distinctly*, he is *remarkably diligent*, and reads *very correctly*.”

727. A few adverbs sometimes modify *nouns* or *pronouns*; as, “*Not only* the men, but the women *also*, were present.”—“*I, even I*, do bring a flood.”

728. Sometimes an adverb modifies a preposition, and sometimes an adjunct or clause of a sentence; as, “He sailed *nearly round* the globe”—“*Just below* the ear”—“*Verily I say unto you*.”

SPECIAL RULES.

729. RULE 1.—Adverbs should not be used as adjectives, nor adjectives as adverbs.

Thus, “The *above* [preceding] extract.”—“It seems *strangely* [strange].”—“We arrived *safely* [safe].”—“He writes *beautifully* [beautifully].”

REMARK.—Though it is perhaps never necessary to use an adverb as an adjective; yet, the authority of good writers has so far sanctioned the violation of this rule in certain cases, that remonstrance would be unavailing. Thus, such phrases as the following are common, “The *above* rule”—“the *then* ministry;”—“For *very* age;”—“the *hither* side;”—“thine *often* infirmities,” and the like. Adverbs so used should of course be reckoned adjectives and parsed as such.

730. The adverbs *hence*, *thence*, *whence*, meaning *from this place*, *from that place*, *from which place*, properly should not have *from* before them, because it is implied. But the practice of the best writers has so sanctioned the use of it, that the omission of it would now sometimes appear stiff and affected.

731. After verbs of motion, the adverbs, *hither, thither, whither*, are now used only in solemn style. In ordinary discourse, *here, there*, and *where*, are used instead of them; as, "We came *here*"—"They walked *there*"—"Where did he go?"

732. *Where* should not be used for *in which*, except the reference is to *place*. Thus, "They framed a protestation, *where* [better *in which*] they repented their former claims."

733. The adverbs *now, then, when, where*, in such phrases as *till now, till then, since when, to where*, &c., are sometimes used by good writers as nouns. This, however, is rare in prose, and should not be imitated. In poetry it is more common.

734. Of this character are the expressions *at once, far from hence*, &c., but these are now established idioms, and in parsing are regarded as one word.

735. *There*, properly an adverb of place, is often used as an introductory expletive; as, "*There* came to the beach."

736. RULE 2.—Two negatives in the same clause are equivalent to an affirmative, and should not be used unless affirmation is intended; as, "I can not drink *no* [any] more," or, "I can drink *no* more."

REMARK.—But a repetition of the negation by independent negative words or phrases, or by transferring the word *neither* to the end of the clause, usually strengthens the negation; as, "There is *none* righteous, *no*, *not* one."—"He will *never* consent, *not* he, *not* I *neither*."

737. One negative is sometimes connected with another implied in the negative *never, dis, un, in, in, il, ir*, &c.; as, "You are *not* *unacquainted* with *her*," that is, "You *are* acquainted," &c. In this way a great variety of expression is sometimes produced. But the *only* with the negative, preserves the negation; as, "He was *only* illiberal, but even covetous."

738.—The adverbs *nay, no, yea, yes*, often stand alone as a negative or an affirmative answer to a question; as, "Will he go?"—"No"="He will not go."—"Is he at home?"—"Yes"="He is at home." *Amen* is an affirmative verb, equivalent to "*Be it so*," or "*May it be so*."

739. *No* before a noun is an *adjective*; as, "*No* man." Before an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree, it is an *adverb*; as, "*No* taller"—"*No* sooner." In all other cases the proper negative is *not*; as, "He will *not* come"—"Whether he comes or *not*."

POSITION.

740. RULE 3. Adverbs are for the most part placed

before adjectives, after a verb in the single form, and after the first auxiliary in the compound form ; as "He is *very* attentive, behaves *well*, and is *much* esteemed."

741. This rule applies generally to adverbial adjunct phrases as well as to adverbs.

742. This is to be considered only as a general rule, to which there are many exceptions. Indeed, no rule for the position of the adverb can be given, which is not liable to exceptions. That order is the best which conveys the meaning with most precision. In order to this, the adverb is sometimes placed before the verb, or at some distance after it.

743. *Never*, *often*, *always*, *sometimes*, generally precede the verb. *Not*, with the participle or infinitive, should generally be placed before it.

744. The improper position of the adverb *only* often occasions ambiguity. This will generally be avoided when it refers to a sentence or clause, by placing it at the beginning of that sentence or clause ; when it refers to a predicate, by placing it before the predicated term ; and when it refers to a subject, by placing it after its name or description ; as, "*Only* acknowledge thine iniquity."—"The thoughts of his heart are *only* evil."—"Take nothing for your journey but a staff *only*." These observations will generally be applicable to the words *merely*, *solely*, *chiefly* *first*, *at least*, and perhaps to a few others.

745. In prose, *to*, the sign of the infinitive, or rather a part of it, should never be separated by placing an adverb immediately after it. Thus, "They are accustomed *to carefully study* their lessons," should be "*to study carefully*," or "*carefully to study*," &c.

746. The adverb *enough* is commonly placed after the adjective which it modifies ; as, "A large *enough* house"—"A house large *enough* for all."

747. *Ever* and *never* are sometimes improperly confounded ; thus, "Seldom or *ever*," should be "Seldom or *never*," or "Seldom if *ever*." *Ever so*, referring to quantity or degree, means *in whatsoever degree*. Hence "Charming *never so wisely*," should be "*ever so wisely*." So, "*Ever so much*," "*ever so wise*," &c.

EXERCISE.

ON THE ADVERB.

As adverbs are indeclinable, mistakes are liable to be made chiefly in their position, or in using as adverbs words that are not such or in using adverbs where other words are required.

In the following, say which are correct and which are incorrect ; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax. Give

the construction of the words to which the rule applies and repeat the rule.

They hoped for a speedy and prosperous issue to the war.—He departed thence into a desert place.—Where art thou gone?—He drew up a petition in which he represented his own merit.—I can not do more.—We should not be overcome totally by present events.—The women voluntarily contributed all their rings and jewels to assist the government.—Theism can be opposed only to polytheism.—Scholars should be taught to scrutinize carefully the sentiments advanced in the books they read.—The then emperor was noted for his cruelty.—I will send thee far from hence to the Gentiles.—“And he said unto me, “Come up here.”—He went to London last year, since when I have not seen him.—He will never be no taller.—We should always prefer our duty to our pleasure.—Having not known or having not considered the measures proposed, he failed of success.—By greatness, I do not only mean the bulk of any single object, but the distinctness of a whole view.—To make this sentence perspicuous, it will be necessary to entirely remodel it.—He was befriended by the then reigning duke.—From hence! away!—The city is near, oh! let me escape to it.—Neither he nor any one else can do that.—Not only he found her emplyed, but pleased and tranquil also.—In promoting the public good, we discharge only our duty.—She walks graceful.—Where I am, there ye can not come.—I have received no information on the subject, neither from him nor from his friend.—In the proper disposition of adverbs, the ear carefully requires to be consulted as well as the sense.—He only read the book, but not the letter.—He spoke eloquently.—Be so kind as to tell me whether he will do it or not.—They seemed to be dressed nearly alike.—He chiefly spoke of virtue, not of vice.—Our friends arrived safely.—His expressions sounded harsh.

THE OBJECTIVE GOVERNED BY PREPOSITIONS.

748. RULE XV.—A preposition governs the objective case; as, "*To whom* much is given, of *him* much shall be required."

749. The object of a preposition may take any form that a noun may assume, therefore it may be an infinitive mood—a participle used as a noun—part of a sentence—a phrase, or dependent clause, as well as a noun or pronoun; as, "He is *about to depart*."—"After we came."—"On receiving his diploma."—"Much depends on who are his advisers."

750. As a general rule, it is considered inelegant to connect either an active transitive verb and a preposition, or two prepositions with the same object. Thus, "I wrote *to* and *warned* him." Better, "I wrote *to him* and *warned him*." So, "*Of him*, and *through him*, and *to him*, are all things." Not *of*, and *through*, and *to him*," &c

751. This general rule is so little regarded, even by the best writers, that it is a matter of doubt whether it should any longer retain a place in our grammars. In many instances, at least, the form of speech condemned by the rule is clearly better in respect of perspicuity, brevity, and strength, than that which it recommends, and in such cases it should be adopted. In some cases, again, as in the above example, the full form is better than the elliptical. In this matter, every one must be guided by his taste and judgment, avoiding equally obscurity and harshness.

752. When the prepositions *to*, *at*, *in*, stand before names of places, the following usage should be carefully observed, viz:—

1. *To*—is used after a verb of motion; as, "He went *to* Spain." But it is omitted before *home*; as, "Go *home*."
2. *At* is used before names of *houses*, *villages*, *towns*, and *foreign cities*; as, "He resides *at* the Mansion House."—"At Saratoga Springs."—"At Lisbon."
3. *In*—is used before names of *countries* and large *cities*; as, "He lives *in* England"—"*in* London"—"*in* New York." But *at* is used before the names of places and large cities after the verbs *touch*, *arrive*, *land*, and frequently after the verb *to be*; as, "We touched *at* Liverpool, and, after a short passage, landed *at* New Orleans."—"I was *at* New York."
4. In speaking of one's residence in a city, *at* is used before the *No.*, and *in* before the *street*; as, "He resides *at* No. —."—"He lives *in* State street." When both are mentioned together, the preposition is commonly under-

stood before the last; as, "He lives *at* No.—, State street," or "He lives *in* State street, No.—."

753. Sometimes the antecedent term of a preposition, and sometimes the subsequent, is omitted. Thus, the *antecedent*: "[*I say*] in a word."—"All shall know me [*reckoning*] from the least to the greatest." The *subsequent*: "There is a man I am acquainted with"—that is, *with whom* I am acquainted.

754. Though words denoting *weight, measure, &c.*, are evidently governed by a preposition, yet, as it is for the most part understood, it is better to dispose of such cases by the following—

SPECIAL RULE

755. RULE.—Nouns denoting *TIME, VALUE, WEIGHT, or MEASURE*, are commonly put in the objective case, without a governing word; as,

"He was absent *six months* last year."—"It cost *a shilling*."—"It is not worth *a cent*."—"It weighs *a pound*."—"The wall is *six feet* high, and *two feet* thick."

This may be called the objective of *time, value, weight, &c.*, as the case may be.

756. Nouns denoting *time how long* are generally without a preposition; as, "He is *ten years* old." All nouns denoting *time when*, in a general or indefinite way; as, "He came *last week*." But nouns denoting the time *when*, definitely or with precision, generally have the preposition expressed; as, "He came *last week, on Wednesday, in the evening*."

POSITION.

757. Prepositions should be placed before the words which they govern, and as near to them as possible; but never before *that* as a relative.

758. *Whom* and *which* are sometimes governed by a preposition at some distance after them; this, however, should be avoided as much as possible. Thus, "That is the man *whom* I gave the letter *to*." Generally better thus—"to *whom* I gave the letter."

759. The preposition with its regimen should be placed as near as possible to the word to which it is related.

760. Under this rule, there is liability to error only in the use of *pronouns* and with regard to *position*.

EXERCISE.

ON THE PREPOSITION.

In the following sentences, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax.

and correct it; give the construction of the words to which the rule applies, and repeat the rule.

Will you do me a favor?—The nature of the undertaking was such as to render the progress of the work very slow.—I shall be pleased to do to him a kindness.—Beyond this period the arts can not be traced of civil society.—Ask me that question again.—Wanted a young man to take care of horses, of a religious turn of mind.—We remained in a village in the vicinity of London.—The following verses were written by a young man who has long lain in the grave, for his own amusement.—We touched in Liverpool on our way for New York.—A public dinner was given to the inhabitants, of roast beef and plum pudding.—I have been in Boston.—I saw that the kettle had been scoured, with half an eye.—The book which I read that story in is lost.—He rode to town, and drove twelve cows, on horseback.—I know not who.—The man was digging a well, with a Roman nose.—He gave the book to some one.—That is a small matter between you and me.

761. RULE XVI.—Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions; as,

Abhorrence *of*; Abound *in, with*; Adjudge *to*; Admonish *of*; Abridge *from*; Address *to, &c.*

762. An acquaintance with the meaning of words and the practice of good writers is the only safe guide in the application of this rule.

763. What preposition it is proper to use, often depends as much upon what follows, as upon what goes before. Thus, "To fall *from a height*"—"into a *pit*"—"in *battle*"—"to *work*"—"upon an *enemy*."

764. *Into* is used only after verbs of motion, and implies *entrance*. *In* is used after verbs of motion or rest, and denotes *situation*, but never *entrance*; as, "He went *into* the carriage, and rode *in* it."

765. *Boast, approve, and disapprove*, are often used without a preposition following; so also *worthy* and *unworthy*.

766. The same preposition that follows a verb or adjective, usually follows the noun derived from it, and *vice versâ*; as, "Confide *in*"—"Confident *in*"—"Confidence *in*."

EXERCISE.

ON THE USE OF APPROPRIATE PREPOSITIONS.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it.

He was eager in recommending him to his fellow-citizens.—I find great difficulty of writing.—Every change is not a change to the better.—Changed to a worse shape it can not be.—It is important, in times of trial, to have a friend to whom you can confide.—You may rely on the truth of what he says.—Many have profited from good advice, but have not always been grateful of it.—I have no occasion in his services.—Favors are not always bestowed on the most deserving.—This is very different to that.—Virtue and vice differ widely with each other.—Come into the house.—We rode in a carriage with four horses.—The boy fell into a deep pit.—Such conduct cannot be reconciled to with profession.—Go, and be reconciled with thy brother.—A man had four sons, and he divided his property between them.—I am now engaged in that work.—He insists on it that he is right.

CONSTRUCTION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

767.—RULE XVII.—Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences.

768. Relative pronouns and conjunctive adverbs are also employed to connect clauses.

769.—Co-ordinate sentences are connected by the conjunctions *and, or, nor, but, hence, &c.* (See connectives of Compound Sentences, pp. 168, 169.)

770. Dependent members or clauses are connected with their leading clauses by such conjunctions, or other connective words, as may properly indicate the relation intended.

SPECIAL RULES.

771. RULE 1.—*Copulative* and *Disjunctive* connectives unite together words, phrases or clauses, which hold the same relation in any given sentence; as, "*Do*

good, and *seek* peace." — "Honor thy *father* and *mother*."

772. Verbs of the same mood and tense, under this rule, are generally, also in the same form; as, He *reads* and *writes*," (not *does write*).

773. This rule does not apply to the *connectives of subordinate sentences*; for instance, "If you *made* that proposal they *will* accept it."

774. When two or more verbs in the compound tenses, or in the progressive or emphatic form, or in the passive voice, are connected, the auxiliary expressed with the first, may be understood to the rest; as, "He *can* neither *read* nor *write*."—"Diligence *should be commended* and *rewarded*." Still, however, the repetition of the auxiliary is often more emphatic; as, "They *shall* come, and *they shall* declare his truth."

775. Verbs of the same mood, tense or form, connected as a compound predicate, have the nominative expressed with the first, and understood to the rest; as, "Cæsar *came, saw* and *conquered*." But—

776. When verbs connected are not in the same mood, tense or form, and especially if contrast or opposition, expressed by *but, though, yet*, is intended the nominative is frequently repeated; as, "He *came*, but *he* would not stay." But still—

777. This is to be regarded only as a general direction, in accordance with, perhaps, the majority of cases, but to which, as a rule, there are many exceptions. The object aimed at is to secure *euphony* and *perspicuity*; and when these are preserved without repeating the nominative, it may be omitted; as, "The two charges *had been*, and still *are*, united in one person."—*North British Review*.

778. After expressions implying *doubt, fear, or denial*, the conjunction *that* is properly used—not *lest, but, but that*; as, "I do not doubt *that* he is honest."—"I am afraid *that* he will die."—Also, *what* should never be used for *that*. Thus, "He will not believe but *what* I am to blame," should be, "but *that* I am to blame."

779. RULE 2.—Certain words in the antecedent member of a sentence, require corresponding connectives in the subsequent one; thus—

1. In clauses or words simply connected—

Both requires *and*; as, "*Both* he *and* I came."

Either ——— *or*; as, "*Either* he *or* I will come."

Neither ——— *nor*; as, "*Neither* he *nor* I came."

Whether ——— or ; as, " *Whether* he or I came."

Though ——— yet ; as, " *Though* he slay me, yet will I trust in him."

Not only ——— but also ; as, " *Not only* he but also his brother goes."

2. In clauses connected so as to imply comparison—

The *comparative degree* requires *than* ; as, " He is *taller than* I am."

Other requires *than* ; as, " It is no *other than* he."

Else ——— *than* ; as, " What *else* do you expect *than* this."

As ——— *as* (expressing *equality*) ; as, " He is *as* tall *as* I am."

As ——— *so* (expressing *equality*) ; as, " *As* thy day is, *so* shall thy strength be."

So ——— *as* (with a negative expressing *inequality*) ; as, " He is not *so* learned *as* his brother."

So ——— *that* (expressing *consequence*) ; as, " He is *so* weak *that* he can not walk."

Such ——— *as* (expressing *familiarity*) ; as, " He or *such* as he."

Such ——— *that* (with a finite verb, to express a *consequence*) ; as, " The difference is *such that* all will perceive it."

780. *And*, *or*, *nor*, do not *require* the corresponding antecedent, and *though* does not always require *yet*. By poetic licence, *or* and *nor* are sometimes used as antecedents, instead of *either*, *neither*.

781. In sentences implying comparison, there is commonly an ellipsis in the second member, after *than* and *as* ; " My punishment is greater than [*that is which*] I can bear."—My punishment is as great as [*that is which*] I can bear." And sometimes in sentences not implying comparison, after *though* and *if* ; as, " Though [*it is*] coarse, it is good."—"He is kind, if [*he is*] sincere."

782. A relative after *than* is put in the objective case ; as, " Satan, than *whom* none higher sat." This anomaly may be regarded as a case of simple *enallage*.

783. RULE 3.—When a subsequent clause or part of a sentence is common to two different but connected antecedent clauses, it must be equally applicable to both ; as, " That work always has been, and always will be, *admired*."—"He is as tall though not so handsome, *as his brother*."

EXERCISE.

ON THE CONJUNCTION.

In the following, say which are correct and which incorrect; state distinctly the principle violated in the false syntax, and correct it. Give the construction of the words to which the rule applies and repeat the rule.

Anger glances into the breast of a wise man, but it will rest only in the bosom of fools.—You and I are great friends.—He reads and is writing well.—He should have written, or should have sent, or should have come himself.—He might have been happy and now is convinced of it.—I do not deny but he has merit.—It is so clear as I need not explain it.—The one is equally deserving as the other.—They had no sooner risen but they applied themselves to their studies.—He is bolder than his companion, but not so wise.—If he understand the subject and attends to it, he can scarcely fail of success.—This is a small matter between you and I.—Does he not read and write well?—He could command his temper though he would not.—They were afraid that you would be offended.—As thy days are, so shall thy strength be.—These savage people seem to have no other element than war.—Sincerity is as valuable and even more so than knowledge.—Be more anxious about acquiring knowledge than showing it.—My father and he are very intimate.—Did he not tell thee his fault, and intreat thee to forgive him.—We were apprehensive lest some accident had happened him.—He must go himself or send his servant.—This is none other but the gate of Paradise.—Will it be urged that these books are as old or even older than tradition.—He is taller than me; but I am older than him.—Earth hath her solitudes, and so hath life.—We can not doubt but that he is well.—He is not as eminent and as much esteemed as he thinks himself to be.—He takes neither care nor interest in the matter.—I can not see but what he is well.

INTERJECTIONS.

784. RULE XVIII.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with other words in a sentence.

785. After interjections, pronouns of the first person are commonly in the objective case; those of the second in the nominative; as, "Ah me!"—"O thou!"

786. In neither of those, however, does the case depend on the interjection. The objective is commonly thought to be governed by a word understood; thus, "Ah [*pity*] *me*!"—"Ah [*what will become of me*]!" The nominative form is commonly the independent by address.

ELLIPSIS—SPECIAL RULES.

787. As a general rule, the fewer the words are by which we express our ideas, the better, provided the meaning is clearly brought out. This may often be done without using all the words necessary to the full grammatical form of a sentence, and hence, as the tendency always is to abbreviate speech, such words as can be spared, according to the usage of the language, are properly omitted.

788. RULE 1.—An ellipsis, or omission of words, is admissible when they can be supplied by the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense. Thus—

Instead of saying, "He was a learned man, and he was a wise man, and he was a good man," we may say, "He was a learned, wise, and good man."

According to common usage, an ellipsis of the different parts of speech is allowed in the following cases, viz.:—

1. NOUN AND PRONOUN.—When two or more things are asserted of the same subject, the noun or pronoun is expressed before the

first verb, and omitted before the rest. Also, when the same noun or pronoun is the object of several verbs, it is omitted after all except the last; as, "I love, fear, and respect him," instead of, "I love him, I fear him, and I respect him."

2. A noun is frequently omitted after the comparative degree; as, "I will pull down my barns, and build greater [barns]."

3. When two or more adjectives qualify the same noun, the noun is omitted after all except the last; as, "A great, wise and good man," for "A great man, a wise man, and a good man."

4. ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE.—When an adjective qualifies one or more nouns, it is omitted before all except the first only; as, "Good qualities and actions"—"Happy boys and girls"—"He is an honest, learned, and well-bred man," for, "an honest, a learned, and a well-bred man."

5. VERBS.—A verb is often omitted after its subject, preceded by the comparative degree; as, "He is wiser than I [am]"—"I am younger than he [is]."

6. When several clauses come together, having the same predicate verb, the verb is often expressed in the first, and omitted in the rest; as, "The Italians *have imitated* the Latins; the English, the Italians; and the Americans, the English." Sometimes it is omitted in the first, and expressed in the last; as, "Not only men, but nations, *imitate* one another."

7. The verb *to be*, with its subject, in dependent clauses, is often omitted after the connectives, *if, though, yet, when, &c.*; as, "Study, if [it is] neglected, becomes irksome."—"Though [he was] poor, he was honest."

8. In poetry, verbs which express *address* or *answer*, are often omitted; as, "To him the prince [replied]." Also, when the words connected readily indicate what the verb must be, if expressed; as, "I'll hence to London"—"I'll in"—"Away, old man!"—*Shaks.*—"Up, up, Glenarkin!"—*W. Scott.*

9. The verb is often omitted in the second clause of a sentence after the auxiliary, when the same verb is used in the first clause; as, "You have read, but I have not [read]." Also, verbs connected in the same voice, mood, and tense, having the auxiliary with the first, omit it with the rest; as, "He will be loved and respected for his virtues."

10. ADVERB.—When an adverb modifies more words than one, it is placed only with the last; as, "He spoke and acted gracefully."

11. PREPOSITION.—When the same preposition connects two or more subsequent terms of a relation with one antecedent term, it is usually omitted before all except the first; as, "Over the hills and the valleys"—"Through woods and wilds."

12. CONJUNCTION.—When several words and clauses come to-

gether in the same construction, the conjunction is sometimes omitted entirely, sometimes between each pair, and sometimes before all except the last; as, "He caused the blind to see, the lame to walk, the deaf to hear, the lepers to be cleansed."—"We ran hither and thither, seeking novelty *and* change—sympathy *and* pastime—communion *and* love."—"Youth is the season of joy, of bliss, of strength, *and* of pride."

13. INTERJECTION.—The interjections are never omitted, but, in the expression of sudden emotion, all but the most important words are commonly omitted; as, "Well done!" for, "*That is well done!*" Also, after interjections, there is often an ellipsis of the obvious word; as, "O for a lodge," &c., that is, "*O how I long for a lodge,*" &c.—"A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!" that is, "*Bring me a horse. I would give my kingdom for a horse.*"

789. RULE 2.—An ellipsis is not allowable, when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety; as, "We speak that we do know," for *that which*, &c.

790. In general, no word should be omitted by ellipsis, that is necessary to the usual construction or harmony of a sentence, or to render the meaning perspicuous.

791. Articles, pronouns, and prepositions, should always be repeated when the words with which they stand connected are used emphatically. Under such circumstances, even nouns, adjectives, and verbs, must often be repeated; as, "Not only *the* year, but *the* day and *the* hour were appointed."

792. It is generally improper, except in poetry, to omit the antecedent to a relative; and it is always improper to omit a relative, when it is in the nominative.

EXERCISE.

ON ELLIPSIS.

In the following sentences, omit such words as are not necessary to the sense;—

Cicero was an eloquent man, an able man, a generous man, and he was a truly patriotic man.—I venerate him, I respect him, I love him, on account of his virtues.—Genuine virtue supposes our benevolence to be strengthened and to be confirmed by principle.—We often commend imprudently, as well as censure imprudently.—He is temperate, he is disinterested, he is benevolent.—He regards the truth, but thou dost not regard it.—

Who best can, suffer best can do.—A beautiful garden and trees were sold.—His honor, interest, religion, were all embarked in this undertaking.—Many days and even weeks passed away unimproved.—His conduct is not scandalous, and that is best can be said of it.—That is a property most men have, or at least may attain.—This property has or will be sold.—You suppose him younger than I.—He may be said to have saved the life of a citizen, and consequently entitled to the reward.—A noble spirit disdaineth the malice of fortune ; his greatness of soul is not to be cast down.

GENERAL RULE,

DESIGNED TO SUM UP THE PRECEDING RULES, AND ESPECIALLY TO EMBRACE SUCH FAULTS AS MAY NOT BE SPECIFICALLY POINTED OUT AND CONDEMNED IN THEM.

793. In every sentence, the words employed, and the order in which they are arranged, should be such as clearly and properly to express the idea intended ; and at the same time, all the parts of the sentence should correspond, and a regular and dependent construction be preserved throughout.

794. This may be regarded as a general rule, applicable to every case, and therefore comprehending all the preceding. Though these are so full and minute as to embrace almost everything belonging to the proper construction of sentences, yet their will sometimes occur instances of impropriety in the use, and arrangement, and connection of words, for the avoiding or correcting of which no very specific rule can be given.

795. Among the evils to be guarded against under this general rule, are the following:—

1. Using *too many* words : that is, words not necessary to express the sense intended.
2. Using *too few* words : that is, omitting words really necessary to express the sense intended.
3. A *bad choice* of words : that is, using words in a sense not sanctioned by good writers, or which do not correctly or

properly convey the idea intended, or which convey another with equal propriety.

4. The arrangement of words and clauses in such a way that their relation to other words and clauses is doubtful, or difficult to be perceived.
5. The separating of adjuncts from their principals, and placing them so that they may be joined to words to which they do not belong.
6. The separating of relative clauses improperly from their antecedents.
7. Using injudiciously, or too frequently, the third personal noun or third possessive, especially in indirect discourse.

I. EXERCISE.

The following sentences are not grammatically incorrect, but from some of the causes mentioned above, are *obscure, inelegant, ambiguous, or unintelligible*. Let the pupil point out the error and correct it, and give a reason for the correction.

The son said to his father, I have sinned against Heaven.—A farmer went to a lawyer, and told him that his bull had gored his ox.—The Greeks fearing to be surrounded on all sides wheeled about and halted with the river on their backs.—Nor was Philip wanting to corrupt Demosthenes, as he had most of the leading men of Greece.—Parmenio had served, with great fidelity, Philip the father of Alexander, as well as himself, for whom he first opened the way into Asia.—Belisarius was general of all the forces under Justinian the First, a man of rare valor.—Lysias promised his father never to abandon his friends.—Carthage was demolished to the ground so that we are unable to say where it stood, at this day.—Thus ended the war with Antiochus, twelve years after the second Punic war, and two after it had begun.—Claudius was canonized among the gods, who scarcely deserved the name of a man.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

ON THE RULES OF SYNTAX, ETC.

In the following sentences some are correct and some are incorrect. Say which are correct and which are incorrect. State distinctly the principle violated in the incorrect sentences and correct

them. Give the construction of all incorrect words and of such others as may be called for.

II. EXERCISE.

Too great a variety of studies perplex and weaken the judgment.—I called to see you, but you were not at home.—The crown of virtue is peace and honor.—In the human species, the influence of instinct and habit is generally assisted by the suggestions of reason.—They were both unfortunate, but neither of them were to blame.—We arrived safe at our journey's end.—That is a matter of no consequence between you and I.—They that seek knowledge will find it.—Our welfare and security consist in unity.—The love of virtue, and devotion to pleasure, is opposed to each other.—All the world are spectators of your conduct.—Nothing is more lovely than virtue.—He is taller than me, but I am stronger than him.—Neither riches or beauty furnish solid peace and contentment.—The abuse of mercies ripen us for judgments.—A man's manners frequently influence his fortune.—Much depends on this rule's being observed.—Such will ever be the effect of youth associating with vicious companions.—It has been fully shown that neither of them are correct.—Three months' notice are required to be given previous to a pupil's leaving of the school.—He employed another friend of his father to assert his claim—[whose claim?].—It is remarkable his continual endeavours to serve us.—Whatever antiquities he could procure, he purchased at any price.—I am not so well as when you were here.—This mode of expression has been formerly in use.

III. EXERCISE.

He stated long ago that he had attended to the matter.—Twice three are six.—As two are to four, so are six to twelve.—Five is the half of ten.—One man and one boy are sufficient.—Two are better than one.—Two are an even number—three are not.—Two are twice one.—Five men are too many for such a piece of work—three are too few.—Molasses is thicker than water.—The measles are spreading through the

country.—The news by the last arrival is better than was expected.—We hoped to have heard from you before this.—Do you not think he writes well?—James is as tall if not taller than I am.—He puts down the mighty and exalteth the humble.—Piety towards God, as well as sobriety and virtue, is necessary to happiness.—Take care who you admit into your friendship.—If I was him, I would take more care for the future.—We were in Havre when the revolution broke out at France.—That is the man and the horse which we met before.—George was the most enterprising young man whom I ever saw.—All that were present were pleased with the entertainment.—This excellent person was fully resigned either to live or die.—To enjoy health and to live in peace, are great blessings.—Which dictionary do you prefer, Webster or Walker?

IV. EXERCISE.

Though this event be strange, it certainly did happen.—If he but consider the subject, he will no doubt change his opinion.—Ignorance is the mother of fear, as well as of admiration.—Among every class of people, self-interest prevails.—Many ridiculous customs have been brought into use during the last hundred years.—Is there no person who you can send on that business?—That is a property most men have, or at least may attain.—The pyramids of Egypt have stood more than three thousand years.—When the nation complain, the rulers should listen to their voice.—Who say the people that I am?—They that honor me, I will honor.—He only got the money for a few days.—He was evidently mistaken in his calculations.—No man is fit for free conversation, for the enquiry after truth, if he be exceedingly reserved; if he be haughty and proud of his knowledge; if he be positive and dogmatical in his opinions; if he be one who always affects to outshine all the company; if he be fretful and peevish; if he affect wit, and is full of puns, or quirks or quibbles.—A good end does not warrant using of bad means.—

Humility neither seeks the last place or the last word.—Either wealth or power may ruin its possessor.—Avoid lightness and frivolity ; they are allied to folly.—Do you know to whom you are talking.—O that the winter was gone!—We can fully confide in none but the truly good.—He was accused of acting unfairly, or at least in a manner ill adapted to conciliating regard.

V. EXERCISE.

There is more business done in New York than in any city of the United States.—If there were better management, there would be greater security.—Every year, every day, and every hour, brings its changes.—Whom say ye that I am?—Many a youth has ruined his prospects for life by one imprudent step.—No power was ever yet entrusted to man without liability to abuse.—A conceited fool is more abominable than any other fool.—A constant display of graces are fatiguing to a sober mind.—Expectation and reality makes up the sum total of life.—Music, the love of it, and the practice of it, seems to pervade all creation.—The intellectual and the moral censor both have the same ends in view.—I was engaged formerly in that business, but I never shall be again concerned in it.—We frequently do those things which we afterwards repent of.—Shall you attain success without that preparation, and escape dangers without that precaution which is required of others?—That picture of your mother is a very exact resemblance of her.—The winter has not been as severe as we expected it to have been.—In reference to that transaction, he deserved punishment as much or more than his companions.—Every one of those pleasures that are pursued to excess convert themselves into poison.—Thou Lord, who hast permitted affliction to come upon us, shalt deliver us from it in due time.—The sea appeared to be more than usually agitated.—By these attainments is the master honored and the scholar encouraged.—The temple consisted of one great and several smaller edifices.

796. IMPROPER WORD OR EXPRESSION.

797. IN THE USE OF WORDS, GREAT CARE SHOULD BE TAKEN TO SELECT THE MOST APPROPRIATE.

To lay; to make lie, to place. *To lie*; to rest in a reclining position.—*To set*; to place. *To sit*; to rest. *To seat*; to place in a sitting position, to furnish with a seat.—*To learn*; to acquire knowledge. *To teach*; to impart knowledge.—*To like*; to be pleased with, to desire moderately. *To love*; to feel affectionate or very kind towards.—*To raise*; to lift. *To rise*; to erect one's self, to ascend.—*To affect*; to impress. *To effect*; to accomplish.—*To elude*; to escape. *To illude*; to deceive.—*To suspect*; to mistrust. *To expect*; to await, to regard as something that is to be.—*Stinted*; insufficiently fed, restrained. *Stunted*; checked in growth, dwarfish.—*Go* is estimated from the starting point; and *come*, from the point to be reached.—*Less* implies like or number; *fewer*, number only.—*Whole*, the entire object; *ail*, the entire number.—*Either*, *neither*, or *each other*, should be used in speaking of two only; *any one*, *no one*, *none*, or *one another*, in speaking of more.

Into, from outside to inside. *In*, inside only.—*At*, indefinitely in or about. *In*, enclosure, surroundings. *Between* or *betwixt*, two only. *Among*, three or more. *By*, the agent, and *with*, the means or manner. A taste of what is enjoyed, a taste for what we wish to enjoy. Disappointed of what is not obtained, disappointed in what fails to answer our expectations after it is obtained. Die of disease by an instrument. Compare with, for ascertaining merits, —to, for illustration. Attended by persons, with consequences. Agree with a person, to something proposed, and upon some settlement of affairs. Change for by substitution, and to or into by alteration. Concur with a person, in a measure, and to an effect. A thing consists of what it is composed of, and consists in what it is comprised in. Conversant with men, and in things. What corresponds with, is consistent with,—and what corresponds to, answers to. Defend and protect yourself against, and others from. Disagree with a person, as to what is proposed. Usually, expert or skilled in, before an ordinary noun,—and at, when immediately before a participle noun. We are familiar with things, and they are familiar to us. Indulge with occasionally, and indulge in habitually. We introduce a person to another, and a person or thing into a place. Intrude upon a person or thing, and into something enclosed. We usually look for what is sought, and after what is entrusted to us. Prevail with, on, or upon, by persuasion,—and over or against all opposition. Reconcile one friend to another, and apparent inconsistencies, with one another. Reduce under implies subjugation, and reduce to implies simply a thing of state To have regard for, and to pay regard to. To unite to means to join to, and frequently as an appendage,—to unite with means to

combines with, and generally as a colleague or an equal. To vest authority in a person, and to invest a person *with* authority.

Abhorrence *of*; abhorrent *to, from*; access *to*; accord *with*; accuse *of*; adapted *to*; adequate *to*; agreeable *to*; aspire *to*; brag *of*; capacity *for*; comply *with*; confide *in*; conformable *to, with*; congenial *to, with*; consonant *with*; contiguous *to*; cured *of*; deficient *in*; dependent *on*; independent *of*; derogate *from*; derogatory *to*; destined *to*; differ *from*, seldom *with*; difficulty *in*; diminish *from*; diminution *of*; discourage *from*; discouragement *to*; disgusted *at, with*; disparagement *to*; dissent *from*; indistinction *from*; eager *in, for, after*; embark *in, for*; enamored *of, with*; enter, entrance, *on, upon, into*; exception *from, to, against*; exclude *from*; exclusive *of*; extracted *from*; followed *by*; fond *of*; fondness *for*; foreign *to, from*; founded *on, upon*, sometimes *in*; free *from*; glad *of*, sometimes *at*; guard *against*; hanker *after*; inaccessible *to*; incentive *to*; incorporate *into, with*, sometimes *in*; indulgent *to*; influence *over, with, on*; initiate *into*, sometimes *in*; inroad *into*; intermediate *between*; intervene *between*; inured *to*; invested *with, in*; involved *in*; join *with, to*; lame *of*; land *at*; level *with*; long *for, after*; made *of*; marry *to*; intermarry *with*; meddle *with*; martyr *for*; militate *against*; mingle *with*; mistrustful *of*; necessary *to, for*; need *of*; neglectful *of*, object *to, against*; occasion *for*; offend *against*; offensive *to*; omitted *from*; overwhelmed *with, by*; peculiar *to*; penetrate *into*; pertinent *to*; pleasant *to*; pleased *with*; preferable *to*; preference *to, over, above*; prejudice *against*; prejudicial *to*; preserve *from*; productive *of*; profit *by*; profitable *to*; provide *with, for, against*; pursuant *to*; pursuance *of*; refrain *from*; relation *to*; release *from*; relieve *of, from*; rely *on, upon*; replete *with*; resemblance *to, between*; in or *with* respect *to*; in or *with* regard *to*; rise *above*; rid *of*; similar *to*; strip *of*; subtract *from*; swerve *from*; sympathize *with*; sympathy *for, with*; unison *with*; weary *of*; worthy *of*.

VI. EXERCISE.

IMPROPER WORDS.

Correct what is wrong in each, and give the reason for the correction:—

We had laid on the ground all night. Are you going to go? I ain't going yet. I calculate to invest my money in something else. The nurse sat him in a chair. Can you learn me to write. The business will suit any one who enjoys bad health. I expect it rained here yesterday. The garment was neatly sown. We suspect the trip will afford us great pleasure. The thief illuded the police. He was much affected by the news. A verb ought to agree with its subject, in number and person. Write for me no more, for I will certainly—. He has made one crop of wheat. He throwed the ball. He was drowned. Wast thou chopping

wood! A drive into the country delighteth and invigorates us. She said our noise and romping must be put a stop to. He was found fault with, and taken hold of. Weights and measures are now attempted to be established. She is getting the better of her sickness. Since you have made the first, you may *do* the rest. No one ever sustained such mortifications as I have done to day. A poet can rise higher. . . than a public speaker can do.—*Blair*. Her stupidity soon appeared. I thought she treated me with negligence. Take either of the five. Any one of the two roads will take you to town. Mankind resembles each other most in the beginnings of society. That very point which we are now discussing was lately decided in the supreme court. These very men with whom you travelled yesterday, are now in jail. It all tends to show that our whole plans have been discovered. These evils were caused by Catiline, who, if he had been punished, the republic would not have been exposed to such great dangers. He is seldom or ever here. He said nothing farther. Such cloaks were in fashion five years since. I saw him about five weeks since. Do like I did. A diphthong is when two vowels are united. Fusion is while a solid is converted into a liquid by heat. She is such a good woman. —*so good a woman*. He is such a great man there is no speaking to him. Whether it can be proved or no, is not the thing. —*Butler*. Go, and see if father has come. Tell me if we are going to have but one session to-day. By personification, things are often treated as though they were hearers. There is no doubt but what he is mistaken. I have no doubt but you can help him. —*Dr. Johnson*. I am surprised how you could do such a thing. There is no question but the universe has certain bounds to it. He is not so tired but what he can whistle. O fairest flower, no sooner blown but blasted!—*Milton*.

VII. EXERCISE.

Correct what is wrong with each, and give the reason for the correction:—

The loafer seems to be created for no other purpose but to keep up the ancient order of idleness.—*Irving*. Style is nothing else but that sort of expression which our thoughts most naturally assume.—*Blair*. There is no other umbrella here but mine. Scarcely had he uttered the word *than* the fairy disappeared. (*when*) The donation was the more acceptable, that it was given without solicitation. Do not let the dog come in the house. His case has no resemblance with mine. The soil is adapted for wheat and corn. He was accused with having acted unfairly. They spent the summer at the North, in a small village. Far preferable is a cottage with liberty, than splendor with debt. Such were the difficulties with which the question was involved. I was disappointed in the pleasure of meeting you.

There is constant hostility between the several tribes of Indians. The greatest masters of critical learning differ among one another. I am looking for reinforcements, which the enemy cannot expect. Each then took hold of one end of the pole, to carry the basket. There is a fresh basket of eggs. I only recited one lesson. (Only what!) Some virtues are only seen in adversity. I shall be happy always to see my friends. He is considered generally honest. They became even grinders of knives and razors. They all went to the party, nearly dressed alike. *Every* man can *not* afford to keep a coach.—*Webster*. Please to sing the three first stanzas. At that time I wished somebody would hang me a thousand times. A lecture on the methods of teaching geography at ten o'clock. There is a remarkable union in his style of harmony and ease.—*Blair*. They were not such as to fully answer my purpose. We were to cautiously and quickly advance to the hill above. Cedar is not so hard, but more durable, than oak. He *can* and ought to *give* more attention to his business. The reward has already or will hereafter be given to him. We have the power of *retaining*, altering, and compounding those images which we have received, *into* all the varieties of picture and image.—*Addison*. It is our duty to protect this government and that flag from every assailant be they whom they may.—*Douglas*. Parents are of all other people the worst judges of their children's merits; for what they reckon such, is seldom any else but a repetition of their own faults.—*Addison*. Propositions, you recollect, connect words as well as conjunctions; how, then, can you tell the one from the other.—*R. C. Smith*. The empire of Blefuscu is an island situated to the north-east side of Lilliput, from whence it is parted only by a channel of eight hundred yards wide.—*Swift*.

VIII. EXERCISE.

TOO MANY WORDS.

In the following, correct what is wrong, and give the reason for the correction:—

798. NO NEEDLESS WORD SHOULD BE USED.

She is a poor widow woman. He died in less than two hours time. His two sisters were both of them well educated. I bought it of the bookseller, *him* who lives opposite. You will never have another such a chance. There are but a few *other* similar places in the city. It is equally as good as the other. Mine is equally as good as yours. Who *first* discovered America? When the world was first created, &c. Perseverance in laudable pursuits will reward all our toils, and *will* produce effects beyond our calculation. This is taught by Plato; but it is taught still better by Solomon *than by him*. *Most* is annexed to the end of these words. Our flowers are covered over. I was not able for to do it. My

father presented me with a new knife. It is to this last feature of the game laws, to which we intend to confine our notice.—*Sidney Smith*. The performance was approved of by all who saw it. Whenever he sees me, he always inquires after my health. This barbarous custom, and which prevailed everywhere, the missionaries have abolished. If I mistake not, I think I have seen you before. These lots, if they had been sold sooner, they would have brought a better price. These wild horses having been once captured, they were soon tamed. I don't know nothing about your affairs; and I don't want to know. Neither you nor nobody else can walk ten miles in one hour. The lesser quantity I remove to the other side. Santa Anna now assumed the title of a Dictator. What kind of a man is he? What sort of a thing is it? The whites of America are the descendants of the Europeans. There is another and a better world. My friend was married to a sensible and an amiable woman. Fire is a better servant than a master. I am a better arithmetician than a grammarian. The terror of the Spanish and the French monarchies.—*Bolingbroke*. Pharaoh and his host pursued after them. Many talented men have deserted from the party. A catalogue of the children of the public schools of this city has been published.—(Substitute *in*.) One can not imagine what a monotonous being one becomes if one constantly turning one's self in the circle of one's favorite notions. *A person he, &c.*

IX. EXERCISE.

TOO FEW WORDS.

799. NO NECESSARY WORD SHOULD BE OMITTED.

In the following, correct what is wrong with each, and give the reason for the correction:—

White sheep are much more common than black. He does not know you better than John.—(Ambiguous.) A squirrel can climb a tree quicker than a boy.—*Webster*. Ignorance is the mother of fear as well as admiration. What prevents us going? What use is it to me? My business prevented me attending the last meeting. The court of France or England was to be the umpire. Let us consider the works of nature and art, with proper attention. An officer on European and on Indian service are in very different situations.—*S. Smith*.—(Supply *service* and *one*.) The freight was added to, and very much increased, my expenses. The money has not been used for the purpose it was appropriated. I shall persuade others to take the same measures for their cure that I have. No man can be more wretched than I.—(Supply *am*.) They either have or will write to us about the matter. Money is scarce, and times hard.—(Supply *are*.) The winter is departing, and the wild-geese flying northward. This must be my excuse for seeing a let-

ter which neither inclination nor time prompted me to.—*Washington*. We ought not speak evil of others, unless it is necessary. Please excuse my son for absence yesterday. How do you like up here? We like right well up here. The Indians are descendants of the aborigines of this country. The white and black inhabitants amount to several thousands. The sick and wounded were left at this place. He thinks he knows more than anybody. Noah and his family outlived all the people who lived before the flood. In no case are writers so apt to err as in the position of the word *only*.—*Mauder*. Neither my house nor orchard was injured.—(Supply *my*.) Not the use, but abuse, of worldly things, is sinful. You must either be quiet, or must leave the room. Such a relation as ought to subsist between a principle and accessory. A man may be rich by chance, but can not be good or wise without effort. She possesses more sense, more accomplishments, and beauty than the other. He is a man of sagacity, experience, and of honesty. By industry, by economy, and good luck, he soon acquired a fortune. There is no man knows better how to make money. It was this induced me to send for you. She saw at once what was best to do. This is a position I condemn, and must be better established to gain the faith of any one. Will martial flames forever fire thy mind, and never, never, be to heaven resigned? By the exercising our judgment it is improved. A wise man will avoid the showing any excellence in trifles. Great benefit may be derived from reading of good books.

PUNCTUATION.

800. PUNCTUATION treats of the points and marks now used in writing.

801. The use of these points is to mark the divisions of a sentence, in order to show the meaning more clearly, and to serve as a guide in the pauses and inflections required in reading.

802. The principal marks used for this purpose are the following: the *comma* (,), the *semicolon* (;), the *colon* (:), the *period* (.), the *interrogation point* (!), the *exclamation point* (!), the *dash* (—), the *parenthesis* (), the *brackets* [].

803. With respect to the length of the pauses indicated by these marks, no very definite rule can be given—the same point in certain kinds of composition, and in certain positions, requiring sometimes a longer and sometimes a shorter pause.

804. As a general rule, the comma marks the shortest pause; the semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the colon, a

pause double that of the semicolon; and the period, a pause still longer than that of the colon.

COMMA.

805. The comma is generally used in those parts of a sentence in which a short pause is required, and to mark a connection next in closeness to that which is unbroken.

SPECIAL RULES.

806. RULE 1.—In a short, simple sentence, the comma is not used; as, "Hope is necessary in every condition of life."

807. RULE 2.—When the logical subject of a verb is rendered long by the addition of several adjuncts, or other qualifying words, to the grammatical subject, a comma is usually inserted before the verb, as, "A steady and undivided attention to one subject, is a sure mark of a superior mind."

808. RULE 3.—In compound sentences, the clauses or members are usually separated by commas; as, "Crafty men condemn studies, simple men admire them, and the wise men use them." But when the clauses are short, or closely connected, the comma is not used; as, "Revelation tells us *how* we may attain happiness."

809. RULE 4.—Two words of the same class, connected by a conjunction expressed, do not admit a comma between them; as, "The *earth* and the *moon* are planets."—"He is a *wise* and *prudent* man."—"He *catches* and *arrests* the hours."—"He acts *prudently* and *vigorously*." But when the conjunction is not expressed, a comma is inserted after each; as, "*Reason, virtue,* answer one great aim." But, of two adjectives, the last should not be separated by a comma from its noun; as, "He is a *plain honest* man." Nor can two adjectives be separated from each other by a comma when used together as a compound adjective; as, "A *bright-red* color."

810. RULE 5.—More than two words of the same class connected by conjunctions expressed or understood, have a comma after each; as, "Poetry, music, and painting, are fine arts." But when the words connected are adjectives, the last should not be separated from its noun by a comma after it; as, "David was a *wise, brave,* and *prudent* king."

811. RULE 6.—Words used in pairs take a comma after each pair; as, "Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, desolation and ruin, are the consequences of civil war."

812. RULE 7.—Nouns in apposition are separated by a comma, when the latter noun has several words or adjuncts connected with it; as, "Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles." But a single noun in apposition with another is not separated by a comma; as, "Paul the apostle."

813. RULE 8.—The nominative independent, and the nominative absolute, with the words dependent on them, are separated by commas from the rest of the sentences; as, "My son, hear the instruction of thy father."—"I am, sir, your obedient servant."—"The time of youth being precious, we should devote it to improvement."—"To confess the truth, I was in fault."

814. RULE 9.—Comparative and antithetical clauses are separated by a comma; thus, "As the hart panteth after the water-brooks; so doth my soul pant after thee."—"Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull." But when the comparison is short, and the connection intimate, the comma is not used; as, "Wisdom is better than rubies."

815. RULE 10.—The adverbs *namely*, *so*, *hence*, *again*, *first*, *secondly*, &c., when considered important, and particularly at the beginning of a sentence, should be separated from the context by a comma; as, "Nay, but we will serve the Lord." So also, *as* and *thus*, introducing an example or quotation; as, &c.

816. RULE 11.—A relative with its clauses, explanatory of its antecedent, is usually separated from the rest of a sentence; as, "He who disregards the good opinion of the world, must be utterly abandoned," or, "He must be utterly abandoned, who disregards," &c. But when the relative, with its clause, is restrictive, and the connection so close that it can not be separated, the comma is not used; as, "Self-denial is the *sacrifice which* virtue must make."

817. RULE 12.—*That*, used as a conjunction, and preceded by another clause, usually has a comma before it; as, "Be virtuous, that you may be happy." But when the clause introduced by *that*, is the subject or the object of the verb in the preceding clause, the comma is not inserted; as, "It is well *that* he should know it." "I said *that* ye are gods."

818. RULE 13.—When a verb is understood, a comma must be inserted; as, "Reading makes a full man; conversation, a ready man; and writing, an exact man."

819. RULE 14.—*Words repeated* are separated by a comma; as, "Holy, holy, holy, is the Lord God Almighty."—"No, no, no, it can not be."

820. RULE 15.—*Inverted sentences*, by throwing two or more words out of their regular connection, often require a comma; as, "To God, all things are possible." Not inverted, it would be, "All things are possible to God."—"His delight was, to assist the distressed." In the natural order, "To assist the distressed was his delight."

821. RULE 16.—A short expression, in the manner of a quotation, is separated by commas; as, "Plutarch calls lying, *the vice of slaves*." Also the verbs *say*, *reply*, and the like, with their dependent words introducing a quotation or remark, are usually

separated by commas; as, "The book of nature, *said he*, is open before thee.—"I say unto all, watch."

822. RULE 17.—*Adjectives, participles, adverbs, infinitives &c.*, when separated from the word on which they depend, or, when accompanied by several adjuncts, commonly require commas to be inserted; as, "His talents, formed for great enterprises, could not fail of rendering him conspicuous."—"To conclude, I can only say this."—"We must not, *however*, neglect our duty."

SEMICOLON.

823. The semicolon is used to separate the parts of a sentence which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma, and more closely than those which are separated by the colon.

GENERAL RULE.

824. The parts of a sentence separated by a semicolon, should contain in themselves a complete and independent proposition, but should still have a connection with the other parts.

SPECIAL RULES.

825. RULE 1.—When the first division of a sentence contains a complete proposition, but is followed by a clause added as an inference or reason, or to give some explanation, the part thus added must be separated by a semicolon; as, "Perform your duty faithfully; for this will procure you the blessing of Heaven."—"The orator makes the truth plain to his hearers; he awakens them; he excites them to action; he shows them their impending danger."—"Be at peace with many; nevertheless, have but few counsellors."

826. RULE 2.—When several short sentences, complete in themselves, but having a slight connection in idea, follow in succession, they should be separated by a semicolon; as, "The epic poem recites the exploits of a hero; tragedy represents a disastrous event; comedy ridicules the vices and follies of mankind; pastoral poetry describes rural life; and elegy displays the tender emotions of the heart."

827. RULE 3.—When a sentence consists of several members, and these members are complex, and subdivided by commas, the larger divisions of the sentence are sometimes separated by a semicolon; as, "As the desire of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable part of our species in everything that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly."

828. **RULE 4.**—When a general term has several others, as particulars, in apposition under it, the general term is separated from the particulars by a semicolon, and the particulars, from each other by commas; as, "Adjective pronouns are divided into four classes; progressive, demonstrative, distributive, and indefinite." But if the word *namely* be introduced, the separation is made by a comma only.

COLON.

829. The colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon, but not so independent as to require a period.

SPECIAL RULES.

830. **RULE.**—A colon is used when a sentence is complete in itself, in both sense and construction, but is followed by some additional remark or illustration, depending upon it in sense, though not in Syntax; as, "A brute arrives at a point of perfection that he can never pass: in a few years he has all the endowments of which he is capable."—"Study to acquire a habit of thinking: nothing is more important."

831. **RULE 2.**—When several short sentences follow in succession each containing a complete sense in itself, but all having a common dependence on some *subsequent* clause; these sentences are separated from the subsequent clause by a colon, and from each other by a semicolon; as, "That Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible resources in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries; *these* are among the assertions of philosophers."

832. **RULE 3.**—Either a colon or semicolon may be used when an example, a quotation, or a speech, is introduced; as, "Always remember this ancient maxim; 'Know thyself.'"—"The Scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity in these words: 'God is love.'"

833. **RULE 4.**—The insertion or omission of a conjunction before the concluding member of a sentence, frequently determines the use of the colon or semicolon. When the conjunction is not expressed before the concluding member, which would otherwise be separated by a semicolon, the colon is used; but when the conjunction is expressed, the semicolon; "Apply yourself to learning; it will redound to your honor."—"Apply yourself to learning; for it will redound to your honor."

PERIOD.

834. Sentences which are complete in sense, and not connected in either meaning or grammatical construction, are separated by

a period; thus, "Fear God. Honor the king. Have charity toward all men."

835. But when short sentences are connected in meaning, but not in construction, they are separated by a semicolon.

836. Long sentences, if complete, even though grammatically connected by conjunctions, often insert a period; thus, "He who lifts up himself to the notice and observation of the world, is, of all men, the least likely to avoid censure. For he draws upon himself a thousand eyes, that will narrowly inspect him in every part."

837. A period must be used at the end of all books, chapters, sections, &c.; also after all abbreviations; as, A. D., M. A., Art. II., Obs. 3., J. Smith, &c.

INTERROGATION.

838. A question is regarded as a complete sentence, and the interrogation point as equal to the period.

839. The note of interrogation is always put at the end of a *direct* question; as, "What is truth?" But the *indirect* question does not require the interrogation point; as, "Pilate inquired what is truth."

NOTE. Printers are generally the best punctuators, as they follow a uniform system. It is, therefore, for the most part, best, in preparing matter for the press, to leave this matter to them, except where the meaning intended may not be clearly perceived without the punctuation.

OTHER CHARACTERS USED IN WRITING.

840. The *Dash* (—) is used where the sentence breaks off abruptly; also, to denote a significant pause—an unexpected turn in the sentiment—or that the first clause is common to all the rest, as in this definition.

841. The note of *Exclamation* (!) is used after expressions of sudden emotion of any kind; also, in invocations or addresses; as, "Eternity! thou pleasing, dreadful thought." *Oh* has the mark immediately after it, or after the next word; as, "Oh! that he would come." But when *O* is used, the note is placed after some intervening words; as, "O my friends!"

842. *Parenthesis* () includes a clause inserted in the body of a sentence, in order to some useful or necessary information or remark, but which may be omitted without injuring the construction of the sentence; as, "Know ye not, brethren (for I speak to them that know the law), how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth." In reading, the parenthetical part is distinguished by a lower or altered tone of the voice. When the clause

is short, and accords with the general tone of the sentence, commas are now generally used instead of parenthesis ; as,

"Thou sluggish power, *if power thou be,*
All destitute of energy."

The use of parentheses should be avoided as much as possible.

843. *Brackets* [] are properly used to enclose a word or phrase interpolated for the purpose of explanation, correction, or supplying a deficiency in a sentence quoted or regarded as such, and which did not belong to the original composition ; thus, it is said, "The wisest men [and, it might be added, the best too] are not exempt from human frailty."

844. The *Apostrophe* (') is used when a letter or letters are omitted ; as, *e'er* for *ever* ; *tho'* for *though* ; or to mark the possessive case.

845. Quotation marks (" ") are put at the beginning and end of a passage quoted from an author in his own words, or to mark a passage regarded as a quotation.

846. The *Hyphen* (-) is used to connect compound words which are not permanent compounds, as, *lap-dog* ; also at the end of a line, to show that the rest of the word not completed is at the beginning of the next line.

847. *Section* (§) is used to divide a discourse or chapter into portions.

848. *Paragraph* (¶) was formerly used to denote the beginning of a new paragraph.

849. The *Brace* ({ }) is used to connect words which have one common term, or three lines in poetry having the same rhyme, called a *triplet*.

850. *Ellipsis* (—) is used when some letters are omitted ; as, *K—g* for *King*. Several asterisks are sometimes used for the same purpose ; as, *K* *g*.

The *Caret* (^) is used to show that some word is either omitted or interlined.

The *Index* (⚭) is used to point out anything remarkable.

851. The vowel marks are : The *Diæresis* (¨), on the last of two concurrent vowels, showing that they are not to be pronounced as a diphthong ; the *Acute accent* (´) ; the *Grave* (`) ; the *Long sound* (—) ; the *Short sound* (ˇ) .

852. The marks of reference are : The *Asterisk* (*) ; the *Obelisk* or *Dagger* (†) ; the *Double Dagger* (‡) ; the *Parallels* (||) . Sometimes, also, the § and ¶ . Also small letters or figures which refer to notes at the foot of the page.

FIGURES.

853. A **FIGURE**, in grammar, is some deviation from the ordinary form, or construction, or application of words in a sentence, for the purpose of greater precision, variety, or elegance of expression.

854. There are three kinds of Figures; viz., of *Etymology*, of *Syntax* and of *Rhetoric*. The first and the second refer to the form of words, or to their construction; and the last to their application.

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

855. A figure of *Etymology* is a departure from the usual or simple form of words, merely.

856. Of these, the most important are eight; viz., *A-phær-e-sis*, *Pros-the-sis*, *Syn-co-pe*, *A-poc-o-pe*, *Par-a-gog-ge*, *Di-ar-e-sis*, *Syn-ar-e-sis*, and *Tme-sis*.

1. *Aphæresis* is the elision of a syllable from the beginning of a word; as, 'gainst, 'an, 'bove, 'neath, for *against*, *began*, *above*, *beneath*.

2. *Prosthesis* is the prefixing of a syllable to a word; as, *adown*, *agoing*, &c., for *down*, *going*, &c.

3. *Syncops* is the elision of a letter or syllable, usually a short one, from the middle of a word; as, *med'cine*, *sp'rit*, *e'en*, for *medicine*, *spirit*, *even*.

4. *Apocope* is the elision of a letter or syllable from the end of a word; as, *tho'*, for *though*, *th'* for *the*.

5. *Paragogge* is the annexing of a syllable to the end of a word; as, *deary*, for *dear*.

6. *Diaeresis* is the division of two concurrent vowels into different syllables, usually marked thus (") on the second vowel; as, *coöperate*, *aërial*.

7. *Synæresis* is the joining of two syllables into one, in either orthography, or pronunciation; as, *doest*, *seest*, for *doest*, *seest*, or *loved*, *learned*, pronounced in one syllable instead of two, *lov-ed* *learn-ed*.

8. *Tmesis* is separating the parts of a compound word by an intervening term; as, "What time soever—" "On which side soever"—"To us ward."

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

857. A figure of *Syntax* is a deviation from the usual construction of words in a sentence, used for the sake of greater beauty or force.

858. Of these, the most important are *Ellipsis*, *Pleonasm*, *Syllepsis*, *Enallage*, *Hyperbaton*.

1. *Ellipsis* is the omission of a word or words necessary to the full construction of a sentence, but not necessary to convey the idea intended. Such words are said to be understood; as, "The men, women, and children," for "The men, *the* women, and *the* children."

2. *Pleonasm* is the using of more words than are necessary to the full construction of a sentence, to give greater force or emphasis to the expression; "The boy, oh! where was *he*."

3. *Syllepsis* is an inferior species of personification, by which we conceive the sense of words otherwise than the words import, and construe them according to the sense conceived. Thus, of the sun, we say, "*He* shines"—of a ship, "*She* sails"

4. *Enallage* is the use of one part of speech for another, or of one modification of a word for another; as, an adjective for an adverb, thus; "The fall *successive*, and *successive* rise," for *successively*; the use of *we* and *you* in the plural, to denote an individual, &c.; the use of one case for another; as, "than *whom*," for than *who*.

5. *Hyperbaton* is the transposition of words and clauses in a sentence, to give variety, force, and vivacity, to the composition; as, "Now come *we* to the last."—"A man *he* was to all the country; dear."—"He wanders *earth* around."

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

859. The figure of *Rhetoric* is a deviation from the ordinary application of words in speech, to give animation, strength and beauty, to the composition. These figures are sometimes called *tropes*.

860. Of these, the most important are the following, viz.:—

Personification,	Hyperbole,	Climax,
Simile,	Irony,	Exclamation,
Metaphor,	Metonymy,	Interrogation,
Allegory,	Synecdoche,	Paralepsis,
Vision,	Antithesis,	Apostrophe.

1. *Personification*, or *prosopopeia*, is that figure of speech by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, "*The sea saw it and fled*."

2. A *simile* expresses the resemblance that one object bears to another; as, "*He shall be like a tree planted by the rivers of water*."

3. A *Metaphor* is a simile without the sign (*like*, or *as*, &c.) of comparison; as, "*He shall be a tree planted by*," &c.

4. An *allegory* is a continuation of several metaphors, so con-

nected in sense as to form a kind of parable or fable. Thus the people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine: "*Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt,*" &c., Ps. lxxx. 8-17. Of this style are AEsop's Fables, Bunyan's "*Pilgrim's Progress,*" &c.

5. *Vision*, or *imagery*, is a figure by which the speaker represents past events, or the objects of his imagination, as actually present to his senses; as, "*Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy.*"—"The combat thickens: on, ye braves!"

6. An *hyperbole* is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse, than they really are. Thus, David says of Saul and Jonathan, "*They were swifter than eagles, they were stronger than lions.*"

7. *Irony* is a figure by which we mean quite the contrary of what we say; as, when Elijah said to the worshippers of Baal, "*Cry aloud, for he is a god,*" &c.

8. A *metonymy* is a figure by which we put the cause for the effect, or the effect for the cause; as, when we say, "*He reads Milton,*" we mean Milton's *works*. "*Gray hairs* should be respected"—that is, *old age*.

9. *Synecdoche* is the putting of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part, a definite number for an indefinite, &c.; as, the *waves* for the *sea*, the *head* for the *person*, and *ten thousand* for any great number. This figure is nearly allied to *metonymy*.

10. *Antithesis* or *contrast*, is a figure by which different or contrary objects are contrasted, to make them show one another to advantage. Thus, Solomon contrasts the timidity of the wicked with the courage of the righteous, when he says, "*The wicked flee when no man pursueth, but the righteous are bold as a lion.*"

11. *Climax*, or *amplification*, is the heightening of all the circumstances of an object or action which we wish to place in a strong light; as, "*Who shall separate us from the love of Christ? Shall tribulation, or distress, or persecution, or famine, or nakedness, or peril, or sword?*" Nay, &c. See also Rom. viii. 38, 39.

12. *Exclamation* is a figure that is used to express some strong emotion of the mind; as, "*Oh! the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and the knowledge of God.*"

13. *Interrogation* is a figure by which we express the emotion of our mind, and enliven our discourse, by proposing questions; thus, "*Hath the Lord said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it? and shall he not make it good?*"

14. *Paralepsis*, or *omission*, is a figure by which the speaker pretends to conceal what he is really declaring and strongly enforcing; as, "*Horatius was once a very promising young gentleman, but in process of time he became so addicted to gaming, not to mention his drunkenness and debauchery, that he soon exhausted his estate, and ruined his constitution.*"

15. *Apostrophe* is a turning off from the subject to address some other person or thing; as, "*Death is swallowed up in victory. O Death, where is thy sting?*"

861. Besides the deviations from the usual form and construction of words, noted under the figures of Etymology and Syntax, there are still others, which can not be classed under proper heads, and which, from being used mostly in poetic composition, are commonly called—

POETIC LICENCES.

862. These are such as the following :—

1. In poetry, words, idioms, and phrases, are often used, which would be inadmissible in prose; as—

"A man he was to all the country dear,
And *passing* rich with forty pounds a year."

"By fountain clear, or spangled starlight *sheen*."

"Shall I receive by gift, what of my own,
When and where *likes me* best, I can command?"

"Thy voice we hear, and thy *behests* obey."

"The *whiles*, the vaulted shrine around,
Seraphic wires were heard to sound."

"On the first friendly bank, he *throws him* down."

"I'll seek the solitude he sought,
And *stretch me* where he lay."

"Not Hector's *self* should want an equal foe."

2. More violent and peculiar ellipses are allowable in poetry than in prose; as—

"*Suffice*, to-night, these orders to obey."

"*Time* is our tedious song should here have ending"

"For is there aught in sleep *can* charm the wise?"

"'T is Fancy, in her fiery car,
Transports me to the thickest war."

"Who never fasts, no banquet e'er enjoys."

"Bliss is the same in subject as in king,
In who obtain defence, or who defend."

3. In poetry, adjectives are often elegantly connected with nouns which they do not strictly qualify; as—

"The *ploughman* homeward plods his *weary* way."

"The *tenants* of the *warbling* shade."

"And *drowsy* tinklings lull the distant *folds*."

4. The rules of grammar are often violated by the poets. A noun and its pronoun are often used in reference to the same verb; as—

"It ceased, the melancholy *sound*."

"My *banks they* are furnished with bees."

5. An adverb is often admitted between the verb and *to*, the sign of the infinitive; as—

"To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell;
To *slowly* trace the forest's shady scenes."

6. A common poetic license consists in employing *or* and *nor* instead of *either* and *neither*; as—

—————"And first
Or on the listed plain, or stormy sea."

"Nor grief nor fear shall break my rest."

7. Intransitive verbs are often made transitive, and adjectives used like abstract nouns; as—

"The lightnings *flash* a larger curve."

"Still in harmonious intercourse, they lived
The rural day, and *talked* the flowing heart."

"Meanwhile, what'er of *beautiful* or *new*,
By chance or search, was offered to his view,
He scanned with curious eye."

8. Greek, Latin, and other foreign idioms, are allowable in poetry, though inadmissible in prose; as,—

"He *knew* to sing, and *build* the lofty rhyme."

"Give me to seize rich Nestor's shield of gold."

"There are, who, deaf to mad ambition's call,
Would shrink to hear the obstreperous trump of fame."

"Yet to their general's voice they all obeyed."

—————"Never since *created man*,
Met such embodied force."

863. Such are a few of the licenses allowed to poets, but denied to prose writers; and among other purposes which they obviously serve, they enhance the pleasure of reading poetic composition, by increasing the boundary of separation set up, especially in our language, between it and common prose. Were such licenses not permitted in poetry, the difficulty attendant upon this species of composition would probably be so great, that hardly any person would attempt the arduous task of writing verse.

EXERCISE.

Point out, name, and define, the figures of Etymology in the following phrases and sentences:—

His courage 'gan fail.—Bend 'gainst the steepy hill
thy breast.—'T was mine, 't is his.—Vain tamp'ring

has but fostered his disease. Enchained, he lay a monster.—What way soe'er he turned, it met him.—Th' aërial pencil forms the scene anew.

Point out, name, and define, the figure of Syntax in the following sentences:—

The law I gave to nature him forbids.—So little mercy shows who need so much.—My head is filled with dew, and my locks with the drops of the night.—Consider the lilies of the field, how they grow.—He that glorieth, let him glory in the Lord.

Point out, name, and define, the figures of Rhetoric in the following sentences:—

As thy day is, so shall thy strength be.—Without discipline, the favorite, like a neglected forester, runs wild.—Thy name is as ointment poured forth.—The Lord God is a sunn and shield.—I saw their chief, tall as a rock of ice, his spear the blasted fir.—At which the universal host sent up a shout that tore hell's concave.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

864. PROSODY treats of Elocution and Versification.

ELOCUTION.

865. ELOCUTION is correct pronunciation, or the proper management of the voice in reading or speaking.

866. In order to read and speak with grace and effect, attention must be paid to the proper *pitch* of the voice, the *accent* and *quantity* of the syllables, and to *emphases*, *pauses*, and *tones*.

867.—1. In the *pitch* and management of the voice, it should be neither too high nor too low; it should be distinct and clear; the utterance neither too quick nor too slow, and neither too *varied* nor too monotonous.

868.—2. **ACCENT** is the laying of a particular stress of voice on a certain syllable in a word, as the syllable *vir* in *vir' tue vir' tuous*.

869.—3. The **QUANTITY** of a syllable is the relative time which is required to pronounce it. A long syllable, in quantity, is equal to two short ones. Thus *pine, tube, note*, require to be sounded as long again as *pin, tub, not*. In English versification, an *accented* syllable is *long*, an *unaccented* one is *short*.

870.—4. **EMPHASIS** means that greater stress of the voice which we lay on some particular word or words, in order to mark their superior importance in the sentence, and thereby the better to convey the idea intended by the writer or speaker.

871.—5. **PAUSES** or rests, are cessations of the voice, in order to enable the reader or speaker to take breath; and to give the hearer a distinct perception of the meaning, not only of each sentence, but of the whole discourse.

872.—6. **TONES** consist in the modulation of the voice, and the notes, or variations of sound, which we employ in speaking, to express the different sentiments, emotions or feelings, intended.

* * * A full consideration of these topics, in a work of this kind, would be as impracticable as it would be out of place, since it would require a volume for that purpose. They are fully treated of and exemplified in works on elocution—a subject which is, or should be, taken up as a separate branch of study.

VERSIFICATION.

873. **VERSIFICATION** is the art of arranging words into poetical lines, or verses.

874. A *Verse* or *Poetical Line*, consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged according to fixed rules.

875. A *Couplet* or *Distich*, consists of two lines or verses taken together, whether rhyming with each other or not. A *Triplet* consists of three lines rhyming together.

876. A *Stanza* is a combination of several verses or lines, varying in number according to the poet's fancy, and constituting a regular division of a poem or song. This is often incorrectly called a *verse*.

877. *Rhyme* is the similarity of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines arranged in a certain order. Poetry, the verses of which have this similarity, is sometimes called *Rhyme*.

878. *Blank Verse* is the name given to that species of poetry which is without rhyme.

FEET.

879. *Feet* are the smaller portions into which a line is divided—each of which consists of two or more syllables, combined according to accent.

880. In English versification, an *accented* syllable is accounted long; an *unaccented* syllable, *short*. In the following examples, a straight line (—) over a syllable shows that it is accented, and a curved line, or breve (˘) that it is unaccented.

881. Monosyllables, which, when alone, are regarded as without accent, often receive it when placed in a poetical line, and are long or short, according as they are with or without the accent. Thus—

“Tõ rouse hĩm with thẽ spũr ănd reĩn,
With mõre thăn răptũre’s rāy.”

In the ancient languages, each syllable has a certain quantity, long or short, independent of accent, for which there are certain definite rules. In this they differ widely from the English.

882. *Metre*, or *Measure*, is the arrangement of a certain number of poetical feet in a verse or line.

1. When a line has the proper metre, or number of feet, it is called *Acatalectic*.

2. When it is deficient, it is called *Catalectic*.

3. When it has a redundant syllable, it is called *Hypercatalectic*, or *Hypermeter*.

883. A line consisting of one foot is called *monometer*; of two, *dimeter*; of three, *trimeter*; of four, *tetrameter*; of five, *pentameter*; of six, *hexameter*; of seven, *heptameter*.

884. *Scanning* is dividing a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

885. All feet in poetry are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three, as follows:—

I. FEET OF TWO SYLLABLES.

1. An Iambus ˘ — ; as, dẽfẽnd.

2. A Trochee — ˘ ; as, nõblẽ.

3. A Spondee — — ; as, văĩn măn.

4. A Pyrrhic ˘ ˘ ; as, ẽn ă (hill).

II. FEET OF THREE SYLLABLES

1. An Anapæst ˘ ˘ — ; as, ıntẽrcăde.

2. A Dactyl — ˘ ˘ ; as, dũrăblẽ.

3. An Amphibrach ˘ — ˘ ; as, ăbũndănt.

4. A Tribach ˘ ˘ ˘ ; as, (tol)ěrăblẽ.

886. Of all these, the *principal* are the *Iambus*, *Trochee*,

Anapæst, and *Dactyl*. The other four feet are used chiefly in connection with those, in order to give variety to the measure.

887. A *Trochee* has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented, as, *nōblē, mūsīc*.

888. An *Iambus* has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented; as, *ādōre, dēfēnd*.

889. A *Spondee* has both the words or syllables accented; as, "*rāin mān*."

890. A *Pyrrhic* has both the words or syllables unaccented; as, "*ōn ā (hill)*."

891. A *Dactyl* has the first syllable accented, and the two last unaccented; as *vīrtūōūs*.

892. An *Amphibrach* has the first and the last syllable unaccented, and the middle one accented; as, *cōntēntmēt*.

893. An *Anapæst* has the two first syllables unaccented, and the last accented; as *īntērcēde*.

894. A *Tribrach* has all its syllables unaccented; as *num-ērāblē*.

895. A verse is usually named from the name of the foot which predominates in it; thus, *Iambic, Trochaic, &c*.

I. IAMBIC VERSE.

896. An iambic verse consists of iambuses, and consequently has the accent on the *second, fourth, sixth, &c.*, syllables. It has different metres, as follows:—

1. *One foot, or Monometer*; as—

'Tis swēet
To mēet.

2. *Two feet, or Dimeter*; as—

With thēe | wē rise,
With thee | we reign.

3. *Three feet, or Trimeter*; as—

In plā | cēs fār | ōr neār,
Or fa | mous, or | obscure.

4. *Four feet, or Tetrameter*; as—

Hōw slēep—thō brāve,—whō sink | tō rēst,
By all | their coun | try's wish | es blest.

5. *Five feet, or Pentameter*; as—

För mē | yoŭr trib | ütū | ry stōres cōmbine ;
Crea—tion's heir, | the world, | the world | is mine.

6. *Six feet, or Hexameter* ; as—

Hīs heārt | Is sād, | hīs hōpe | Is gōne | hīs light | Is
passed ;
He sits | and mourns, | in si | lent grief, | the ling | ring
day.

7. *Seven feet, or Heptameter* ; as—

Whēn āll | thy mēr | cies, O | my Gōd, | my ris | ing
sōul | sŭrvēys,
Transport | ed with | the view | I'm lost, | in won | der,
love, | and praise.

897. Each of these kinds of iambic verse, may have an additional short syllable, and so be called *iambic hypermeter* ; thus—

1. Dīs | dāin | ing.

2. Upon | a moun | taīn.

3. When on | her Ma | ker's bo | sōm.

4. But hail, | thou god | dess, sage | and ho | ly.

5. What slen | der youth | bedewed | with liq | uid o | dōr.

6. Whose front | can brave | the storm, | but will | not
rear | the flow | ēr.

7. To scat | ter o'er | his path | of fame | bright hues | of
gem | like show | ērs.

898. It often happens that a trochee, or sometimes a spondee, is admitted in place of the first foot, which gives a pleasing variety to the verse ; as—

Plānēts | ānd sūns | run law | lōss thrōugh | thē sky.

Fiērce, hārd | y, prōūd, | in cōn | sciōus frēe | dōm bōld.

899. *Iambic Monometer, Dimeter, and Trimeter*.—Of these metrer there is no regular form, but they are sometimes introduced into stanzas.

900. *Iambic Tetrameter*.—This verse may extend through a considerable number of verses.

901. *Iambic Pentameter*.—Iambic verse of five feet is called *Heroic* verse. Such is Milton's "Paradise Lost," &c. By the admission of trochees, anapaests, &c., in certain places, it is capable of many varieties.

902. *Iambic Hexameter*.—A verse of six feet is called *Alexandrine*.

903. The *Elegiac* stanza consists of four pentameter lines rhyming, alternately ; as—

Thō cūr | fēw tōlls | thē knōll | ōf pārt | Ing dāy,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea ;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

904. The *Spenserian* stanza (which takes its name from the poet Spencer) consists of eight pentameter or heroic verses, followed by one hexameter, or Alexandrine verse. This is the stanza in which the "Fairie Queene" is written.

905. *Iambic Heptameter*.—Iambic verses of seven feet, formerly written in one line, are now commonly divided into two, one of four, and one of three feet ; as—

Whēn āll | thy mēr—cēs, O | my Gōd,
My ris | ing soul | surveys,
Transport | ed with | the view, | I'm lost,
In won | der, love, | and praise.

906. This is called *common metre*. Stanzas having three feet in the first, second, and fourth lines, and four in the third, are called *short metre*; and those consisting of four lines, each containing four feet, are called *long metre*.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

907. *Trochaic* verse consists of Trochees, and consequently has the accent on the *first, third, fifth, &c.*, syllables. It has different metres, as follows :—

1. *One foot, or Monometer* ; as—

Stāying,
Plāying.

2. *Two feet, or Dimeter* ; as—

Rich thē | trēūsūre,
Swēet thē | pleūsūre.

3. *Three feet, or Trimeter* ; as—

Gō whēre | glōry | wāits thēe ;
Būt whēn | fāme ē | lātes thēe.

4. *Four feet, or Tetrameter* ; as—

Māids āre | sittīng | by thē | foūntāin,
Bright thē | mōon o'er | yōndēr mōūntāin.

5. *Five feet, or Pentameter (very uncommon); as—*

In thō | dārk ānd | glōomy | vāllēy,
Satyrs, | by the | brooklet, | love to | dally.

6. *Six feet, or Hexameter ; as—*

On ā | moūntāin, | strētched bū | neāth ā | hoāry |
willōw,
Lāy ā | shēphērd | swāin, ānd | viowed thō | rōlling |
billōw.

908. Each of these may take an additional long syllable, and so become *hypercatalectic*, or *hypermeter*; thus—

1. Tūmūlt | ceāse,
Sink tō | pōūce.

2. In the | days of | ōld,
Fables | plainly | tōld.

3. Restless | mortals | toil for | nōught,
Bliss in | vāin | from earth | is sōught.

4. Idle | after | dinner, | in his | chāir,
Sat a | farmer, | ruddy, | fat, and | fāir.

5. Hail to | thee, blithe | spirit! | bird thou | never | wert,
That from | heaven, or | near it, | pourest | thy full |
heart.

6. Night and | morning | were at | meeting, | over |
Water | lōo,
Cocks had | sung their | earliest | greeting | faint and
| low they | crōw.

909. In the last two forms, each line is usually divided into two, thus—

5. Hail to | thee, blithe | spirit!
Bird thou | never | wert.

6. Night and | morning | were at | meeting,
Over | Water | lōo.

910. *Trochaic verse*, with an additional long syllable at the end, is the same as *Iambic verse*, wanting a short syllable at the beginning.

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

911. *Anapæstic verse* consists chiefly of *anapæsts*, and when pure, has the accent on every third syllable. It has different metres, as follows:—

1. *One foot, or Monometer ; as—*

Būt too fār,
Eāch proūfīd stār.

2. *Two feet, or Dimeter ; as—*

Būt hīs coū | rāge 'gān fāil,
or no arts | could avail.

3. *Three feet, or Trimeter ; as—*

O yē wōods! | sprēad yoūr brānch | ēs āpāce,
To your deep | est recess | es I fly,
I would hide | with the beasts | of the chase,
I would van | ish from ev | ery eye.

4. *Four feet, or Tetrameter ; as—*

Māy I gōv | ōrn my pās | siōns with āb | sōlūte swāy,
And grow wis | er and bet | ter as life | wears away.

912. Of these, the *first* is ambiguous, for by placing an accent on the first syllable, it becomes a *trochaic monometer hypermeter*.

913. The *second* sometimes admits an additional short syllable at the end ; as—

On thē rōad | by thē vāl | lēy,
As he wand | ered lament | īng ;
Tō the green | of the for | ēst,
He returned | him repent | īng.

914. The *third* is a very pleasing measure, and is much used in both solemn and cheerful subjects, but it seldom takes an additional syllable.

915. The *fourth*, or *tetrameter*, admits an additional syllable, which often has a pleasing effect ; as—

On the warm | cheek of youth | smiles and ros | es are blend | ing.

DACTYLIC VERSE.

916. *Dactylic verse* consists chiefly of dactyls, and has the following varieties :—

1. *One foot, or Monometer ; as—*

Fēārfully,
Tēārfully.

2. *Two feet, or Dimeter ; as—*

Frée fröm sã | tiēty,
 Care and anx | iety,
 Charms in va | riety,
 Fall to his | share.

3. *Three feet, or Trimeter ; as—*

Weāring ā | wāy īn hīs | yōuthfūlnēss,
 Loveliness, | beauty, and | truthfulness.

917. Each of these sometimes takes an additional long syllable, and so becomes *hypermeter* ; as—

1. Ovēr ā | mead,
 Prīckīng hīs | steed.
2. Cōvēred wīth | snōw wās thē | vale,
 Sad was the | shriek of the | gale,
 When to the | night, woful | wail
 Rose to the | skies—to the | skies !
3. Time īt hās | pāsseed, ānd thē | lādy īs | pale,
 Pale as the | lily that | lolls on the | gale.

918. By combining these kinds, examples of *tetrameter*, *pentameter*, and even *hexameter*, are obtained ; but they are seldom used.

919. A dactylic verse seldom ends with a dactyl ; it more commonly adds a long syllable, sometimes a trochee, as in the following lines :—

Brightēst ānd | bēst ōf thē | sōns ōf thē | mōrnīng,
 Dawn on our | darkness and | lend us thine | aid.

920. The following is an example of *dactyls* and *spondees* alternately :—

Grēen īn thē | wildwōod | prōudly thē | tāll trēe | lōoks ōn
 thē | brōwn plain.

The following is an example of pure dactylic hexameter :—
 Ovēr thē | vāllēy' wīth | spēed līke thē | wīnd, āll thē |
 stēeds wēre ā | gāllōpīng.

921. Considering the beauty of this kind of verse, and its peculiar adaptedness to gay and cheerful movements, it is surprising that it has not been more cultivated.

MIXED VERSES.

922. Scarcely any poem is perfectly regular in its feet. Iambic

verse, for example, sometimes admits other feet into the line, particularly at the beginning, as has been already noticed. The following are examples of iambic lines with different feet introduced:—

Trochee. Prōphet | of plagues, | forev | er bod | ing ill!

Dactyl. Mūrmūring, | and with | him fled | the shades
| of night.

Anapæst. Before | all tem | plēs thē ūp | right heart | and
pure.

Pyrrhic. Brought death | intō | the world | and all |
our wo.

Tribrach. And thun | ders down | impet | ūous tō | the
plain.

923. In *iambic* verse, the initial short syllable is sometimes omitted; and the verse becomes *trochaic* with an additional long syllable.

924. In *trochaic* verse, the initial long syllable is sometimes omitted; and the line becomes *iambic* with an additional short syllable.

925. If the two short syllables are omitted at the beginning of an *anapæstic* line, it becomes *dactylic* with a long syllable added. So—

926. If the initial long syllable is omitted in a *dactylic* verse, it becomes *anapæstic* with two short syllables added.

927. A pleasing movement is produced by intermingling *iambuses* and *anapæstic*, as in the following lines:—

“I come, | I come! | yě havē called | me long,
I come | o’ēr thē mōūn | tāīns with light | and song!
Yě mǎy trāce | my steps | o’ēr thē wāk | enīng eārth,
By thē wīnds | which tell | ōf thē vī | ōlēt’s birth,
By thē prīm | rose stars | ōf thē shād | ōwy grāss,
By thē grēen | leaves op | enīng | ās I pās.”

928. In odes and lyric pieces, verses of different kinds and different metres or measures are often intermingled, after the manner of the ancient choral odes, with a pleasing effect. “Alexander’s Feast,” Collins’ “Ode to the Passions,” &c., are examples.

POETIC PAUSES.

929. Besides the usual pauses required to mark the sense in reading, and which may be called sentential pauses, indicated by the punctuation, there are other pauses in poetic composition, required by, and necessary to give proper effect to, the movement of the line.

930. These are chiefly the *Final* pause and the *Cæsural* pause.

931. The *final* pause is required at the end of every line of poetry, even where there is no sentential pause. When that is the case, it consists of a brief suspension of the voice, without any change in its tone or pitch. When a sentential pause occurs at the end of the line, as it does very often, it takes the place of, and supersedes the *final* pause.

932. The *cæsural* pause is a suspension of the voice somewhere in the line itself, for which no rule can be given, but which will always be manifest when poetry is well read. It does not occur in very short lines. In lines of some length, it generally occurs near the middle; sometimes, however, nearer the beginning, and sometimes near the end; often in the middle of a foot, but never in the middle of a word. Sometimes, besides this, a sort of *demi-cæsural* pause is required, to give full effect to the expression. The following lines furnish examples of the *cæsural* pause in different parts of the line, and also of the *demicæsural* pause. The former is marked (") and the latter ('):—

"The steer and lion" at one crib shall meet,
And harmless serpents" lick the pilgrim's feet."

"The crested basalisk" and speckled snake."

"And on the sightless eyeballs" pour the day."

—————"But not to me returns
Day," or the sweet approach of even or of morn."

"No sooner had the Almighty ceased," but all
The multitude of angels" with a shout
Loud" as from numbers without numbers," sweet
As from blest voices" uttering joy."

"Warms' in the sun," refreshes' in the breeze,
Glows' in the stars," and blossoms' in the trees;
Lives' through all life," extends' through all extent,
Spreads' undivided," operates' unspent."

EXERCISE

IN SCANNING.

The selections in poetry (pages 161, 176, 268, &c.) may be used as exercises in scanning. Further selections, if necessary, may be made from any poetical work.

SELECTIONS
IN
PROSE AND POETRY,
INTENDED TO BE USED AS
Exercises in Analysis and Parsing.

1. The great business of man is to improve his mind, and govern his manners.

The whole universe is his library; conversation his living studies; and remarks upon them are his best tutors.

Learning is the temperance of youth, the comfort of old age, and the only sure guide to honor and preferment.

2. Aristotle says, that to become an able man in any profession whatever, three things are necessary—which are, nature, study, and practice.

To endure present evils with patience, and wait for expected good with long suffering, is equally the part of the Christian and the hero.

3. Adversity overcome, is the highest glory; and willingly undergone, the greatest virtue: sufferings are but the trials of gallant spirits.

Never employ yourself to discern the faults of others, but be careful to amend and prevent your own.

4. There is an odious in spirit many persons, who are better pleased to detect a fault than to commend a virtue.

The worthiest people are most injured by slanderers; as we usually find that to be the best fruit, which the birds have been picking at.

5. When a man loses his integrity, he loses the foundation of his virtue.

A contented mind is a continual feast; and the pleasure of the banquet is greatly augmented, by knowing that each man may become his own entertainer.

6. Man is born for society, without which virtue would have no

followers, the world would be without allurements, and life without pleasures.

It is natural for us to contract the passions as well as the habits of those with whom we are familiar; to follow their vices as well as to imitate their virtues.

7. Be sincere in all your words, prudent in all your actions, and obliging in all your manners.

He who begins an affair without judgment, ought not to be surprised if it ends without success.

If justice directs you in pursuit of gain, tranquillity will attend you in the enjoyment of it.

1.

Tully has therefore very justly exposed a precept, delivered by some ancient writers, That a man should live with his enemy in such a manner, as might leave him room to become his friend; and with his friend, in such a manner, that if he became his enemy, it should not be in his power to hurt him.

2.

"Like birds, whose beauties languish, half conceal'd,
Till, mounted on the wing, their glossy plumes
Expanded, shine with azure, green, and gold,
How blessings brighten as they take their flight!"

3.

Though a man has all other perfections, yet if he wants discretion, he will be of no great consequence in the world; on the contrary, if he has this single talent in perfection, and but a common share of others, he may do what he pleases in his particular station of life.

4.

—————"Never man was truly blest,
But if compos'd and gave him such a cast.
As folly might mistake for want of joy:
A cast unlike the triumph of the proud;
A modest aspect, and a smile at heart."

5.

If we are thus accountable to God for thoughts either voluntarily introduced, or deliberately indulged, we are no less so, in the last place, for these which find admittance into our hearts from supine negligence, from total relaxation of attention, from allowing our imagination to rove with entire license, "like the eyes of the fool, towards the ends of the earth."

6.

"Who noble ends by noble means obtains,
Or failing, smiles in exile or in chains,
Like good Aurelius, let him reign, or bleed
Like Socrates, that man is great indeed."

7.

If there is any passion which intrudes itself unseasonably into our mind, which darkens and troubles our judgment, or habitually discomposes our temper; which unfits us for properly discharging the duties, or disqualifies us for cheerfully enjoying the comforts of life, we may certainly conclude it to have gained a dangerous ascendant.

8.

"No radiant pearl, which crested fortune wears,
No gem, that twinkling hangs from beauty's ears,
Nor the bright stars, which night's blue arch adorn,
Nor rising suns that gild the vernal morn,
Shine with such lustre, as the tear that breaks,
For other's wo, down Virtue's manly cheeks."

9.

Let us be animated to cultivate those amiable virtues, which are here recommended to us; this humility and meekness; this penitent sense of sin; this ardent desire after righteousness; this compassion and purity; this peacefulness and fortitude of soul; and, in a word, this universal goodness which becomes us, as we sustain the character of "the salt of the earth," and "the light of the world."

10.

"How lov'd, how valu'd once, avails thee not;
To whom related, or by whom begot:
A heap of dust alone remains of thee;
'Tis all thou art, and all the proud shall be."

11.

It may indeed be objected, that the same sensibility lays open the heart to be pierced with many wounds, from the distresses which abound in the world; exposes us to frequent suffering from the participation which it communicates of the sorrows as well as of the joys of friendship. But let it be considered, that the tender melancholy of sympathy, is accompanied with a sensation, which they who feel it would not exchange for the gratification of the selfish.

12.

"Down the smooth stream of life the stripling starts,
 Gay as the morn; bright glows the vernal sky,
 Hope swells his sails, and Passion steers his course.
 Safe glides his little bark along the shore,
 Where Virtue takes her stand: but if too far
 He launches forth beyond discretion's mark,
 Sudden the tempest scowls, the surges roar,
 Blot his fair day, and plunge him in the deep."

13.

From all this it follows, that in order to discern where man's true honor lies, we must look, not to any adventitious circumstances of fortune; not to any single sparkling quality; but to the whole of what forms a man; what entitles him, as such, to rank high among that class of beings to which he belongs; in a word, we must look to the mind and the soul.

14.

"Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense,
 Lie in three words: health, peace, and competence:
 But health consists with temperance alone,
 And peace, O Virtue! peace is all thy own."

15.

A mind superior to fear, to selfish interest and corruption; a mind governed by the principles of uniform rectitude and integrity; the same in prosperity and adversity; which no bribe can seduce, nor terror overawe; neither by pleasure melted into effeminacy, nor by distress sunk into dejection: such is the mind which forms the distinction and eminence of man.

16.

"The tree of deepest root is found,
 Least willing still to quit the ground:
 'Twas therefore said, by ancient sages,
 That love of life increased with years,
 So much, that in our later stages,
 When pains grow sharp, and sickness rages,
 The greatest love of life appears."

17.

One who, in no situation of life, is either ashamed or afraid of discharging his duty, and acting his proper part with firmness and constancy; true to the God whom he worships, and true to the faith in which he professes to believe; full of affection to his brethren of mankind; faithful to his friends, generous to his enemies, warm with compassion to the unfortunate; self-denying to little private interests and pleasures, but zealous for public interest

and happiness; magnanimous, without being proud; humble, without being mean; just, without being harsh; simple in his manners, but manly in his feelings; on whose word we can entirely rely; whose countenance never deceives us; whose professions of kindness are the effusions of his heart: one, in fine, whom, independently of any views of advantage, we should choose for a superior, could trust in as a friend, and could love as a brother—this is the man whom, in our heart, above all others we do, we must honour.

18.

"Soft is the strain when zephyr gently blows,
And the smooth stream in smoother numbers flows;
But when loud surges lash the sounding shore,
The hoarse, rough verse, should like the torrent roar."

19.

This planet, and the four others that so wonderfully vary their mystic dance, are in themselves dark bodies, and shine only by reflection; have fields, and seas, and skies of their own; are furnished with all accommodations for animal subsistence, and are supposed to be the abodes of intellectual life; all which, together with our earthly habitation, are dependent on that grand dispenser of Divine munificence, the sun; receive their light from the distribution of his rays, and derive their comfort from his benign agency.

20.

"A nightingale, that all day long
Had cheer'd the village with his song,
Nor yet at eve his note suspended,
Nor yet when eventide was ended,
Began to feel, as well he might,
The keen demands of appetite;
When, looking eagerly around,
He spied far off, upon the ground,
A something shining in the dark,
And knew the glow-worm by his spark."

21.

This sun, with all its attendant planets, is but a very little part of the grand machine of the universe: every star, though in appearance no bigger than the diamond that glitters upon a lady's ring, is really a vast globe, like the sun in size, and in glory; no less spacious, no less luminous, than the radiant source of day. So that every star, is not barely a world, but the centre of a magnificent system; has a retinue of worlds, irradiated by its beams, and revolving round its attractive influence, all which are lost to our sight in immeasurable wilds of ether.

22.

"A Grecian youth of talents rare,
Whom Plato's philosophic care,
Had form'd for Virtue's nobler view,
By precept and example too.
Would often boast his matchless skill,
To curb the steed, and guide the wheel;
And as he pass'd the gazing throng,
With graceful ease, and smack'd the thong,
The idiot wonder they express'd
Was praise and transport to his breast."

23.

In the second place, I would recommend to every one, the admirable precept which Pythagoras is said to have given to his disciples, and which that philosopher must have drawn from the observation I have enlarged upon: "Pitch upon that course of life which is the most excellent, and custom will render it the most delightful.

24.

"To-morrow, ere fresh morning streak the east
With first approach of light, we must be risen,
And at our pleasant labor; to reform
You flow'ry arbours, yonder alleys green,
Our walk at noon, with branches overgrown,
That mock our scant manuring, and require
More hands than ours to lop their wanton growth,
Those blossoms also, and those dropping gums,
That lie bestrown, unsightiy and unsmooth,
Ask riddance, if we mean to tread with ease
Mean while, as nature wills night bids us rest."

25.

In the fourth place, we may learn from this observation which we have made on the mind of man, to take particular care, when we are once settled in a regular course of life, how we too frequently indulge ourselves in even the most innocent diversions and entertainments; since the mind may insensibly fall off from the relish of virtuous actions, and by degrees, exchange that pleasure which it takes in the performance of its duty, for delights of a much inferior and unprofitable nature.

26.

"Sweet is the breath of morn, her rising sweet,
With charm of earliest birds; pleasant the sun,
When first on this delightful land he spreads
His orient beams on herb, tree, fruit, and flow'r,

Glist'ring with dew; fragrant the fertile earth,
 After soft show'rs : and sweet the coming on
 Of grateful evening mild ; then silent night,
 With this her solemn bird, and this fair moon,
 And these, the gems of heav'n, her starry train :
 But neither breath of morn, when she ascends
 With charm of earliest birds ; nor rising sun
 On this delightful land ; nor herb, fruit, flow'r,
 Glist'ring with dew ; nor fragrance after show'rs ;
 Nor grateful evening mild ; nor silent night,
 With this her solemn bird ; nor walk by moon,
 Or glitt'ring star-light,—without thee is sweet."

27.

Happy that man, who, unembarrassed by vulgar cares, master of himself, his time, and fortune, spends his time in making himself wiser ; and his fortune, in making others (and therefore himself) happier ; who, as the will and understanding are the two ennobling faculties of the soul, thinks himself not complete, till his understanding is beautified with the valuable furniture of knowledge, as well as his will enriched with every virtue ; who has furnished himself with all the advantages to relish solitude, and enliven conversation ; who, when serious, is not sullen ; and when cheerful, not indiscreetly gay ; whose ambition is, not to be admired for a false glare of greatness, but to be beloved for the gentle and sober lustre of his wisdom and goodness.

28.

" Let no presuming impious railer tax
 Creative wisdom, as if aught was form'd
 In vain, or not for admirable ends.
 Shall little, haughty ignorance pronounce
 His works unwise, of which the smallest part
 Exceeds the narrow vision of her mind ?
 As if, upon a full-proportion'd dome,
 On swelling columns heav'd the pride of art,
 A critic fly, whose feeble ray scarce spreads
 An inch around, with blind presumption bold,
 Should dare to tax the structure of the whole."

29.

Happy would the poor man think himself if he could enter on all the treasures of the rich ; and happy for a short time he might be : but before he had long contemplated and admired his state, his possessions would seem to lessen, and his cares would grow.

30.

"Mercy to him that shows it, is the rule
And righteous limitation of its act,
By which heav'n moves in pard'ning guilty man ;
And he that shows none, being ripe in years,
And conscious of the outrage he commits,
Shall seek it, and not find it in his turn."

31.

In the exercise of good affections, and the testimony of an approving conscience ; in the sense of peace and reconciliation with God, through the great Redeemer of mankind ; in the firm confidence of being conducted through all the trials of life, by infinite Wisdom and Goodness ; and in the joyful prospect of arriving, in the end, at immortal felicity ; they possess a happiness which, descending from a purer and more perfect region than this world, partakes not of its vanity.

32.

"Ye vainly wise ! ye blind presumptuous ! now,
Confounded in the dust, adore that Power
And Wisdom, oft arraign'd ; see now the cause
Why unassuming worth in secret liv'd,
And died neglected ; why the good man's share
In life was gall, and bitterness of soul :
Why the lone widow and her orphans, pin'd
In starving solitude : while luxury,
In palaces lay straining her low thought,
To form unreal wants : why heav'n born truth,
And moderation fair, wore the red marks
Of superstition's scourge : why licens'd pain,
That cruel spoiler, that embosom'd foe,
Imbitter'd all our bliss."

33.

If the scale of being rises by so regular a progress, so high as man, we may, by parity of reason, suppose that it still proceeds gradually through those beings which are of a superior nature to him ; since there is infinitely greater space and room for different degrees of perfection, between the Supreme Being and man, than between man and the most despicable insect.

34.

"Wouldst thou approve thy constancy ? approve
First thy obedience ; th' other who can know,
Not seeing thee attempted, who attest ?
But if thou think, trial unsought may find
Us both securer than thus warn'd thou seem'st,

Go ; for thy stay, not free, absents thee more ;
 Go in thy native innocence ; rely
 On what thou hast of virtue, summon all ;
 For God towards thee hath done his part ; do thine,"

35.

In this great system of being, there is no creature so wonderful in its nature, and which so much deserves our particular attention, as man ; who fills up the middle space between the animal and the intellectual nature, the visible and the invisible world ; and who is that link in the chain of being, which forms the connection between both.

36.

"Thus man devotes his brother, and destroys ;
 And worse than all, and most to be deplor'd,
 As human nature's broadest, foulest blot,
 Chains him, and tasks him, and exacts his sweat
 With stripes, that mercy, with a bleeding heart,
 Weeps when she sees inflicted on a beast."

37.

It is our comfort, while we are obnoxious to so many accidents, that we are under the care of one who directs contingencies, and has in his hands the management of every thing that is capable of annoying or offending us ; who knows the assistance we stand in need of, and is always ready to bestow it on those who ask it of him.

38.

"Mighty winds,

That sweep the skirt of some far-spreading wood.
 Of ancient growth, make music, not unlike
 The dash of ocean on his winding shore,
 And lull the spirit while they fill the mind ;
 Unnumber'd branches waving in the blast,
 And all their leaves fast flutt'ring all at once."

39.

But nothing of this kind can affect the intercourse of gratitude with Heaven. Its favors are wholly disinterested, and with a gratitude the most cordial and unsuspecting, a good man looks up to that Almighty Benefactor, who aims at no end but the happiness of those whom he blesses, and who desires no return from them, but a devout and thankful heart. While others can trace their prosperity to no higher source than a concurrence of worldly causes ; and, often, of mean and trifling incidents, which occasionally favored their designs ; with what superior satisfaction does the servant of God remark the hand of that gracious Power which

hath raised him up; which hath happily conducted him through the various steps of life, and crowned him with the most favourable distinction beyond his equals?

40.

"Even so a gentle pair,
By fortune sunk, but form'd of gen'rous mould,
And charm'd with cares beyond the vulgar breast,
In some lone cot beyond the distant woods,
Sustain'd alone by providential Heav'n,
Oft, as they weeping eye their infant train,
Check their own appetites, and give them all."

41.

What a purified, sentimental enjoyment of prosperity is here exhibited! How different from that gross relish of worldly pleasures, which belongs to those who behold only the terrestrial side of things; who raise their views to no higher objects than the succession of human contingencies, and the weak efforts of human ability; who has no protector or patron in the heavens, to enliven their prosperity, or to warm their hearts with gratitude and trust!

42.

"Did sweeter sounds adorn my flowing tongue,
Than ever man pronounc'd or angel sung:
Had I all knowledge, human and divine,
That thought can reach, or science can define;
And had I pow'r to give that knowledge birth,
In all the speeches of the babbling earth;
Did Shadrach's zeal my glowing breast inspire,
To weary tortures, and rejoice in fire;
Or had I faith like that which Israel saw,
When Moses gave them miracles, and law:
Yet, gracious charity, indulgent guest,
Were not thy power exerted in my breast;
Those speeches would send up unheeded pray'r;
That scorn of life, would be but wild despair:
A cymbal's sound were better than my voice;
My faith were form; my eloquence were noise."

43.

This great Emperor, in the plenitude of his power, and in possession of all the honours which can flatter the heart of man, took the extraordinary resolution to resign his kingdoms; and to withdraw entirely from any concern in business or the affairs of this world, in order that he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and solitude.

44.

"As through the artist's intervening glass,
Our eye observes the distant planets pass;
A little we discover; but allow,
That more remains unseen, than art can show;
So whilst our mind its knowledge would improve,
(Its feeble eye intent on things above,)
High as we may, we lift our reason up,
By faith directed, and confirm'd by hope;
Yet are we able only to survey,
Dawnings of beams, and promises of day;
Heav'n's fuller effluence mocks our dazzl'd sight;
Too great its swiftness, and too strong its light."

45.

Though it requires neither deep reflection, nor extraordinary discernment, to discover that the state of royalty is not exempt from cares and disappointments; though most of those who are exalted to a throne, find solicitude, and satiety, and disgust, to be their perpetual attendants in that envied pre-eminence; yet, to descend voluntarily from the supreme to a subordinate station, and to relinquish the possession of power in order to attain the enjoyment of happiness, seems to be an effort too great for the human mind.

46.

"Oh! blest of heaven, who not the languid songs
Of luxury, the siren! not the bribes
Of sordid wealth, nor all the gaudy spoils
Of pageant Honour, can seduce to leave
Those ever blooming sweets, which, from the store
Of nature, fair imagination calls,
'To charm th' enliven'd soul! What tho' not all
Of mortal offspring can attain the height
Of envied life; tho' only few possess
Patrician treasures, or imperial state."

47.

The ambitious thoughts and projects which had so long engrossed and disquieted him, were quite effaced from his mind. Far from taking any part in the political transactions of the princes of Europe, he restrained his curiosity even from any inquiry concerning them; and he seemed to view the busy scene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference arising from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleasing reflection of having disentangled himself from its cares.

48.

"Nor thence partakes
 Fresh pleasure only ; for th' attentive mind,
 By this harmonious action on her powers,
 Becomes herself harmonious : wout so oft
 In outward things to meditate the charm,
 Of sacred order, soon she seeks at home,
 To find a kindred order ; to exert
 Within herself this elegance of love,
 This fair inspir'd delight : her temper'd pow'rs
 Refine at length, and every passion wears
 A chaster, milder, more attractive mien."

49.

He observed, that from the seventeenth year of his age, he had dedicated all his thoughts and attention to public objects, reserving no portion of his time for the indulgence of his ease, and very little for the enjoyment of private pleasure ; that either in a pacific or hostile manner, he had visited Germany nine times, Spain six times, France four times, Italy seven times, the Low Countries ten times, England twice, Africa as often, and had made eleven voyages by sea ; that while his health permitted him to discharge his duty, and the vigour of his constitution was equal, in any degree, to the arduous office of governing dominions so extensive, he had never shunned labor, nor repined under fatigue ; that now, when his health was broken, and his vigour exhausted by the rage of an incurable distemper, his growing infirmities admonished him to retire ; nor was he so fond of reigning, as to retain the sceptre in an impotent hand, which was no longer able to protect his subjects, or to render them happy ; that instead of a sovereign worn out with diseases, and scarcely half alive, he gave them one in the prime of life, accustomed already to govern, and who added to the vigour of youth, all the attention and sagacity of maturer years ; that if during the course of a long administration, he had committed any material error in government, or if, under the pressure of so many and great affairs, and amidst the attention which he had been obliged to give to them, he had either neglected or injured any of his subjects, he now implored their forgiveness ; that, for his part, he should ever retain a grateful sense of their fidelity and attachment, and would carry the remembrance of it along with him to the place of his retreat, as his sweetest consolation, as well as the best reward for all his services ; and in his last prayers to Almighty God, would pour forth his ardent wishes for their welfare.

50.

"As thus the snows arise ; and foul and fierce,
 All winter drives along the darken'd air ;

In his own loose-revolving field, the swain
 Disaster'd stands ; see other hills ascend,
 Of unknown joyless brow ; and other scenes,
 Of horrid prospect, shag the trackless plain ;
 Nor finds the river, nor the forest hid
 Beneath the formless wild ; but wanders on,
 From hill to dale, still more and more astray ;
 Impatient flouncing through the drifted heaps."

51.

I am not entitled to argue from these passages, that Christ actually did foretell these events, and that they did accordingly come to pass ; because that would be at once to assume the truth of the religion ; but I am entitled to contend, that one side or other of the following disjunction is true ; either that the evangelists have delivered what Christ really spoke, and that the event corresponded with the prediction ; or that they put the prediction into Christ's mouth, because at the time of writing the history, the event had turned out so to be : for, the only two remaining suppositions appear in the highest degree incredible ; which are, either that Christ filled the minds of his followers with fear and apprehensions, without any reason or authority for what he said, and contrary to the truth of the case ; or that, although Christ had never foretold any such thing, and the event would have contradicted him if he had, yet historians, who lived in the age when the event was known, falsely, as well as officiously, ascribed these words to him.

52.

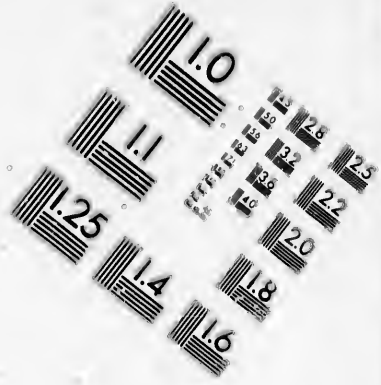
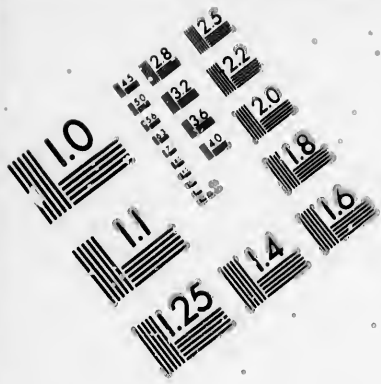
"How sinks his soul !

What black despair, what horror fills his heart !
 When, for the dusky spot, which fancy feign'd
 His tufted cottage rising through the snow,
 He meets the roughness of the middle waste,
 Far from the track, and blest abode of man ;
 While round him night resistless closes fast,
 And every tempest howling o'er his head,
 Renders the savage wilderness more wild."

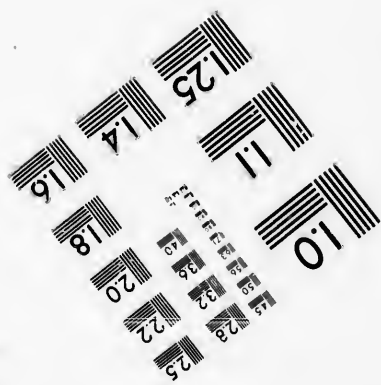
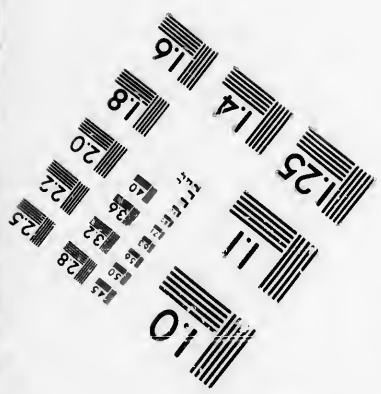
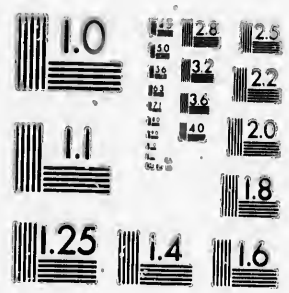
53.

When we consider, first, the prevalency of the religion at this hour ; secondly, the only credible account which can be given of its origin, viz : the activity of the Founder and his associates ; thirdly, the opposition which that activity must naturally have excited ; fourthly, the fate of the Founder of the religion, attested by heathen writers as well as our own ; fifthly, the testimony of the same writers to the sufferings of Christians, either contemporary with, or immediately succeeding, the original settlers of the institution ; sixthly, predictions of the sufferings of his followers ascribed





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to the Founder of the religion, which ascription alone proves, either that such predictions were delivered and fulfilled, or that the writers of Christ's life were induced by the event to attribute such predictions to him; seventhly, letters now in our possession, written by some of the principal agents in the transaction, referring expressly to extreme labors, dangers, and sufferings, sustained by themselves and their companions; lastly, a history purporting to be written by a fellow-traveller of one of the new teachers, and, by its unsophisticated correspondency with letters of that person still extant, proving itself to be written by some one well acquainted with the subject of the narrative, which history contains accounts of travels, persecutions, and martyrdoms, answering to what the former reasons led us to expect: when we lay together these considerations, which, taken separately, are, I think, correctly, such as I have stated them in the preceding chapters, there cannot much doubt remain upon our minds, but that a number of persons at that time appeared in the world, publicly advancing an extraordinary story, and, for the sake of propagating the belief of that story, voluntarily incurring great personal dangers, traversing seas and kingdoms, exerting great industry, and sustaining great extremities of ill usage and persecution.

54.

The genuineness of the historical books of the New Testament, is, undoubtedly, a point of importance, because the strength of their evidence is augmented by our knowledge of the situation of their authors, their relation to the subject, and the part which they sustained in the transaction; and the testimonies which we are able to produce, compose a firm ground of persuasion, that the Gospels were written by the persons whose names they bear. Nevertheless, I must be allowed to state, that to the argument which I am endeavoring to maintain, this point is not essential; I mean, so essential as that the fate of the argument depends upon it.

55

That the exertions and sufferings of the apostles were for the story which we have now, is proved by the consideration that this story is transmitted to us by two of their own number, and by two others personally connected with them; that the particularity of the narrative proves, that the writers claimed to possess circumstantial information, that from their situation they had full opportunity of acquiring such information; that they certainly, at least, knew what their colleagues, their companions, their masters, taught; that each of these books contains enough to prove the truth of the religion; that, if any one of them, therefore, be genuine, it is sufficient; that the genuineness, however, of all of them is made out, as well by the general arguments which evince the genuineness of the most undisputed remains of antiquity, as also by peculiar and

specific proofs, viz. by citations of them in writings belonging to a period immediately contiguous to that in which they were published; by the distinguished regard paid by early Christians to the authority of these books (which regard was manifested by their collecting of them into a volume, appropriating to that volume titles of peculiar respect, translating them into various languages, digesting them into harmonies, writing commentaries upon them, and, still more conspicuously, by the reading of them in their public assemblies in all parts of the world); by a universal agreement with respect to *these* books, whilst doubts were entertained concerning some others; by contending sects appealing to them; by the early adversaries of the religion not disputing their genuineness, but, on the contrary, treating them as the depositories of the history upon which the religion was founded; by many formal catalogues of these, as of certain authoritative writings, published in different and distinct parts of the Christian world; lastly, by the absence or defect of the above-cited topics of evidence, when applied to any other histories of the same subject.

56.

Had a teacher of morality been asked concerning a general principle of conduct, and for a short rule of life; and had he instructed the person who consulted him, "constantly to refer his actions to what he believed to be the will of his Creator, and constantly to have in view not his own interest and gratification alone, but the happiness and comfort of those about him," he would have been thought, I doubt not, in any age of the world, and in any, even the most approved, state of morals, to have delivered a judicious answer; because, by the first direction, he suggested the only motive which acts steadily and uniformly, in sight and out of sight, in familiar occurrences and under pressing temptations; and in the second, he corrected what, of all tendencies in the human character, stands most in need of correction, *selfishness*, or a contempt of other men's convenience and satisfaction.

These selections might with great advantage, in many cases, be used as exercises in Reading and Dictation, Scanning, &c.

VOCABULARY OF ROOTS.

I. SAXON ROOTS.

Observation.—A great number of English words are derived from precisely corresponding Saxon words. Where the derivation is obvious, (as, smith, brother, tooth, &c., from smith, brother, toth, &c.,) the Saxon words are not given in the Vocabulary. The roots printed below are those which give origin to a number of English words, the derivation of which is more disguised.

SAXON NOUNS.

- Aker, a field*; (Ger. Aker,) *acre*, God's acre.
Bana, death; *bane*, baneful, *hen-bane*.
Bot, satisfaction; to *boot*, *bootless*.
Cyn, race; *kin*, kindred, *kind*.
Deor, animal; (Ger. Thier,) *deer*, *Durham*.
Doel, part; (Ger. Theil,) *dole*, *deal*, to *deal*.
Dun, a hill; *downs*; most proper names end in *don*.
Ea, eas, water; *island*, many names of places in *ey*. *Ouse*.
Feond, enemy; (Ger. Feind,) *fiend*, *fiendish*.
Fugal, bird; (Ger. Vogel,) *fowl*, *fowler*, *fowling piece*.
Geard, enclosure; *yard*, *garden*.
Gorst, furze; *gorse*, *gooseberry*.
Ham, dwelling; *home* (Ger. Heim) *hamlet*; names of places ending in *ham*.
Holm, island; *Holms*, *Axholm*, &c.
Hund, dog; (Ger. Hund,) *hound*, *hunt*.
Hythe, port; *Hythe*, *Rotherhythe*.
Ing, meadow; the *lugs*, names of places in *ing*.
Leag, field; *Lea*, names of places in *ley*.
Maga, stomach; (Ger. Magen,) *maw*.
Mere, lake; (Ger. Mere,) *Mere*, names of places in *mere*.
Nesse, promontory; *Naze*, names of places in *ness*.
Rice, kingdom; (Ger. Reich,) *bishopric*.
Sped, success; *speed*, *Godspeed*.
Stede, station; names of places in *stead*.
Stoc, place; names of places in *stock* and *stow*.
Snud, strait; *sound*, *Bomarsund*.
Thorp, village; (Ger. Dorf,) names of places in *thorp*.
Tid, time; (Ger. Zeit,) *tide*, *shrovetide*, (*time and tide*.)
Wald, wood; (Ger. Wald,) *weald*, *wold*, *Walt-ham*.
Weard, guard; *ward*, *warden*.
Wic, dwelling; *Wick*, and names of places ending in same.
Wirt, root; (Ger. Wurzel,) *wort*.
Wise, manner; (Ger. Weise,) in *nowise*, *leastways*.
Wylen, slave; *villain*.

SAXON VERBS.

- Beordan, to order*; (Ger. *bieten*) bid, bandle.
Beorgan, to protect; (Ger. *borgen*) burgh, borough.
Bidan, to wait; bide, abide, abode.
Bloosan, to blow; (Ger. *blasen*) blast, bluster, blossom.
Brucan, to use; broker, to brook.
Buan, to cultivate; (Ger. *bauen*) boor, neighbour.
Bugan, to bow; (Ger. *biegen*) bow, bough, bay, elbow.
Ceapian, to buy; (Ger. *kaufen*) cheap, chapman, chaffer, Cheapside, Chipping.
Cenreian, to creak: cark, chatter, chirp. (Old Eng. *chirk*)
Clypian, to call; old Eng. *yclept*.
Cunnian, to search; to con, cunning. (Ger. *kennen*.)
Cwellan, to slay; quell, kill.
Demau, to judge; deem, doom.
Dragan, to draw; drag, draught, (Ger. *tragen*.)
Drigan, to dry; drought, drug, (Ger. *trocken*.)
Faran, to go; fare, farewell, ferry, thoroughfare.
Fengan, to catch; (Ger. *fangen*) finger, fung.
Frean, to love; (Ger. *freien*) friend.
Frician, to jump; freak, frog.
Fullian, to corrupt; foul, filth.
Gulan, to sing; nightingale.
Gangen, to go; gang, gangway, (Ger. *gehen*.)
Glewan, to shine; glow, gleam. (Ger. *glühen*.)
Grafian, to dig; (Ger. *graben*) grave, engrave, groove.
Gripon, to squeeze; (Ger. *grifen*) gripe, grip.
Hebban, to lift; (Ger. *heben*) heave.
Macien, to make; (Ger. *machen*) make, mackle.
Mengan, to mix; (Ger. *mengen*) mingle, among.
Metsian, to feed; meat, mess.
Mennan, to think; (Ger. *meinen*) mean, mind.
Plihtan, to expose to danger; plight.
Rupan, to bind; wrap, reap, rope.
Reccan, to care; to reck, reckless.
Secadan, to divide; scot, scatter, shed, watershed.
Sceiran, to cut; shear, shears, share, sheer, ploughshare, scar, score.
Slehan, to kill; (Ger. *schlagen*) slay, slaughter, sleight, sly, (clover in stroke.)
Snican, to creep; sneak, snake.
Steorfan, to die; starve, (Ger. *sterben*.)
Stigan, to ascend; (Ger. *steigen*) stair, stuge, story, stirrup.
Tellan, to count; (Ger. *zählen*) tell, tale.
Teogan, to draw; tug.
Thinkan, to seem; methinks (it seems to me.)
Thringan, to press; (Ger. *dringen*) throng.
Wannian, to fail; wane, wan.
Wenlden, to govern; wield, bretwald, (Ger. *Gewalt*.)
Wenan, to think; ween.
Wenden, to go; wend, went, wonder, (Ger. *Wenden*.)
Witan, to know; wit, wot, wise, (Ger. *wissen*.)
Wrecan, to revenge; wreak.
Writhan, to twist; wreaths, writhe, wrath, wroth, wry.
Wunian, to dwell; (Ger. *wohnen*) wont.

SAXON ADJECTIVES.

<i>Ær</i> , before; ere, early, erst.	<i>Halig</i> , holy; (Ger. heilig,) Halidoun.
<i>Bald</i> , brave; bold, Ethelbold.	<i>Rein</i> , clean; (Ger. rein,) rinse.
<i>Eald, old</i> ; elder, alderman, Aldgate.	<i>Rude</i> , red; ruddy, Ruthin.
<i>God</i> , good; gospel, godsand.	<i>Soth</i> , true; sooth, soothsayer.
<i>Hal</i> , sound; whole, wholesome, hale.	

II. LATIN ROOTS—NOUNS.

<i>Ædes</i> , a building, edifice.	<i>Dexter</i> , the right hand; dexterous.
<i>Ævum</i> , an age; coeval.	<i>Dies</i> , a day; diurnal.
<i>Ager</i> , a field; agriculture.	<i>Digitus</i> , a finger; digit.
<i>Anima</i> , life; animal.	<i>Domus</i> , a house; domicile.
<i>Animus</i> , mind; magnanimous.	<i>Equus</i> , a horse; equestrian.
<i>Annus</i> , year; annual.	<i>Exemplum</i> , instance; example.
<i>Aqua</i> , water; aquatic.	<i>Fabula</i> , a fable; fabulous.
<i>Arma</i> , weapons; armour.	<i>Facies</i> , the face; efface.
<i>Articulus</i> , a little joint; article.	<i>Fama</i> , report; famous.
<i>Auris</i> , the ear; aurist.	<i>Femina</i> , woman; female.
<i>Aurum</i> , gold; auriferous.	<i>Ferrum</i> , iron; farrier.
<i>Auster</i> , south wind; Australia.	<i>Filius</i> , a son; filial.
<i>Avis</i> , a bird; aviary, augur.	<i>Finis</i> , end; final.
<i>Barba</i> , beard; barber.	<i>Flamma</i> , flame; inflame.
<i>Bellum</i> , war; rebel, bellicose.	<i>Flos</i> , flower; flourish.
<i>Brachium</i> , the arm; bracelet.	<i>Folium</i> , leaf; foliage.
<i>Calculus</i> , a little stone; calculate.	<i>Forma</i> , Form; formation.
<i>Calor</i> , heat; caloric.	<i>Frater</i> , brother; fraternal.
<i>Canis</i> , a dog; canine.	<i>Frons</i> , forehead; frontispiece.
<i>Caput</i> , the head; captain.	<i>Fumus</i> , smoke; fumigate.
<i>Carbo</i> , coal; carbonic.	<i>Fundus</i> , foundation; profound.
<i>Carmen</i> , song; charming.	<i>Gens</i> , nation; gentile.
<i>Caro</i> , flesh; carnal.	<i>Globus</i> , a sphere; globular.
<i>Catena</i> , chain; concatenate.	<i>Gradus</i> , a step; grade.
<i>Causa</i> , cause; excuse.	<i>Gratia</i> , favour; ingratiate.
<i>Centrum</i> , middle; centripetal.	<i>Grex</i> , a flock; congregate.
<i>Centum</i> , a hundred; century.	<i>Hæres</i> , heir; hereditary.
<i>Charta</i> , paper; card.	<i>Homo</i> , man; human.
<i>Civis</i> , a citizen; civil.	<i>Hora</i> , hour; horary.
<i>Cælum</i> , heaven; celestial.	<i>Hortus</i> , garden; horticulture.
<i>Cor</i> , heart; cordial.	<i>Hospes</i> , a guest; hospitable.
<i>Corpus</i> , body; corporeal.	<i>Ignis</i> , fire; ignite.
<i>Cruz</i> , cross; crucify.	<i>Insula</i> , island; insular.
<i>Culpa</i> , fault; culpable.	<i>Iter</i> , journey; itinerate.
<i>Cura</i> , care; curious.	<i>Jugum</i> , yoke; subjugate.
<i>Cutis</i> , skin; cuticle.	<i>Jus</i> , right; justice.
<i>Dens</i> , tooth; dentist.	<i>Juvenis</i> , a youth; juvenile.
<i>Deus</i> , God; deity.	

- Labor, *labour*; laborious.
 Lac, *milk*; lactation.
 Lapis, *stone*; lapidary.
 Laus, *praise*; laudatory.
 Libra, *bark, book*; library.
 Libra, *balance*; equilibrium.
 Limen, *threshold*; preliminary.
 Linea, *line*; delineate.
 Lingua, *tongue*; linguist.
 Litera, *letter*; literal.
 Locus, *place*; locate.
 Luna, *the moon*; lunatic.
 Lux, *light*; lucifer.
 Luxus, *luxury*; luxuriate.
 Macula, *a spot*; immaculate.
 Magister, *a master*; magistrate.
 Mamma, *the breast*; mammalia.
 Manus, *the hand*; manual.
 Mare, *the sea*, marine.
 Mars, *the god of war*; martial.
 Mater, *mother*; maternal.
 Materies, *matter*; material.
 Mel, *honey*; mellifluous.
 Mens, *mind*; mental.
 Miles, *a soldier*; military.
 Minæ, *threats*; menaces.
 Modus, *manner*; mood.
 Mola, *mill*; meal.
 Moleo, *mass*; demolish.
 Mons, *mountain*; promontory.
 Mors, *death*; immortal.
 Mos, *manner*; morals.
 Munus, *gift*; munificent.
 Negotium, *business*; negotiate.
 Nihil, *nothing*; annihilation.
 Nomen, *a name*; nominal.
 Nox, *night*; nocturnal.
 Numerus, *number*; numeration.
 Oculus, *the eye*; oculist.
 Os, *oris, mouth*; oral.
 Os, *ossis, bone*; ossify.
 Ovum, *egg*; oval.
 Pactus, *a treaty*; compact.
 Palma, *a palm*; palmary.
 Pars, *a part*; partial.
 Pater, *a father*; paternal.
 Pax, *peace*; pacify.
 Pectus, *breast*; expectorate.
 Pes, *foot*; biped.
 Pilus (capillus), *hair*; pile, capillary.
 Piscis, *fish*; piscatory.
 Planta, *plant*; plantation.
 Plumbum, *lead*; plumber.
 Pœna, *punishment*; penal.
 Pondus, *weight*, pound.
 Populus, *people*; popular.
 Præda, *booty*; predacious.
 Pretium, *price*; precious.
 Puer, *boy*; puerile.
 Quies, *rest*; quiet.
 Radius, *spoke of wheel*; ray.
 Radix, *root*; radical.
 Rivus, *stream*; river.
 Robur, *strength*; robust.
 Rota, *wheel*; rotary.
 Rus, *country*; rustic.
 Sal, *salt*; saline.
 Salus, *safety*; salvation.
 Sanguis, *blood*; sanguine.
 Sapor, *savour*; insipid.
 Seculum, *the age*; secular.
 Semen, *seed*; seminary.
 Signum, *sign*; signify.
 Sol, *sun*; solar.
 Somnus, *sleep*; somnambulist.
 Sors, *lot*; assort.
 Spatium, *space*; expatiate.
 Tabula, *table*; tabulate.
 Tempus, *time*; temporary.
 Terminus, *boundary*; exterminate.
 Terra, *the earth*; terrestrial.
 Testis, *witness*; attest.
 Umbra, *shadow*; umbrageous.
 Unda, *a wave*; inundate.
 Urbs, *city*; urbanity.
 Vacca, *cow*; vaccinate.
 Vapor, *steam*; evaporate.
 Vas, *a vessel*; vascular.
 Vellum, *veil*; revelation.
 Vena, *vein*; venous.
 Verbum, *word*; verb.
 Vestis, *garment*; invest.
 Via, *way*; obvious.
 Vindex, *avenger*; vindicate.

Vinum, *wine* ; vintage.
 Vir, *a man* ; virile.
 Virtus, *valour* ; virtue.
 Vita, *life* ; vitality.
 Vitium, *fault* ; vice.

Voluptas, *pleasure* ; voluptuous.
 Votum, *vow* ; votary.
 Vulgus, *common people* ; vulgar.
 Vultus, *wound* ; vulnerable.

LATIN VERBS.

Æstimare, *value* ; estimate.
 Ago (actus) *act* ; transact.
 Amo, *love* ; amatory.
 Aperio, *open* ; aperture.
 Appello, *call* ; appellation.
 Apto, *fit* ; aptitude.
 Audio, *hear* ; audible.
 Augeo, *increase* ; augment.
 Cado (casum), *fall* ; accident.
 Cædo (cæsum), *cut* ; incision.
 Cano, *sing* ; chant.
 Capió (captum), *take* ; reception.
 Cedo (cessum), *go* ; accede.
 Cerno (cretum), *perceive* ; discern.
 Clamo, *call out* ; exclaim.
 Claudio (clausum), *shut* ; include.
 Colo (cultus), *till* ; cultivate.
 Credo, *believe* ; credit.
 Creó, *create* ; creation.
 Cresco, *to grow* ; increase.
 Criminor, *judge, accuse* ; discriminate.
 Cumbo, *lie* ; succumb.
 Curro (cursum), *run* ; occur.
 Dico (dictum), *say* ; predict.
 Doceo (doctus), *teach* ; doctor.
 Doleo, *grieve* ; condole.
 Dono, *give* ; donation.
 Dormio, *sleep* ; dormouse.
 Duco, *lead* ; conduct.
 Emo (emptus), *buy* ; redeem.
 Eo (itum), *go* ; exit.
 Experior (expertus), *try* ; experiment.
 Facio (factus), *do* ; effect.
 Fallo, *deceive* ; fallacious.
 Fero (latus), *bear* ; confer, translate.
 Ferveo, *boil* ; fervent.
 Fido, *trust* ; confide.
 Fingo (fictus), *frame* ; fiction.

Flecto (flexus), *bend* ; flexible.
 Fluo, *flow* ; fluid.
 Frango (fractus), *break* ; fracture.
 Frico, *rub* ; friction.
 Frigeo, *I am cold* ; frigid.
 Fugio, *fly* ; fugitive.
 Fundo (fusus), *pour* ; diffuse.
 Gero (gestus), *bear* ; belligerent.
 Gradior (gressus), *step* ; congress.
 Habeo, *have* ; habit.
 Hæreo, *stick* ; adhere.
 Ignoro, *not to know* ; ignorant.
 Imperio, *command* ; imperious.
 Jaceo, *lie* ; adjacent.
 Jacio, *cast* ; eject.
 Judico, *judge* ; adjudicate.
 Jungo, *join* ; conjunction.
 Juro, *swear* ; jury.
 Labor (lapsus), *slide* ; relapse.
 Lædo (læsum), *strike* ; collision.
 Lego, *send* ; delegate.
 Lego (lectum), *choose* ; elect.
 Levo, *raise* ; lever.
 Libero, *to free* ; liberate.
 Liceo, *to be allowed* ; license.
 Ligo, *to bind* ; obligation.
 Linquo, *leave* ; relinquish.
 Loquor, *speak* ; eloquent.
 Ludo, *play* ; prelude.
 Luo, *wash* ; dilute.
 Mando, *commit to* ; commend.
 Maneo, *remain* ; mansion.
 Medeor, *heal* ; remedy.
 Memini, *remember* ; memory.
 Mercor, *buy* ; merchant.
 Mergo (mersum), *plunge* ; immerse.
 Mineo, *to project* ; eminent.
 Misceo (mixus), *mix* ; miscellaneous.
 Mitto, *send* ; remit.
 Moneo, *advise* ; monitor.

- Mordeo, *bite*; remorse.
 Moveo (motus), *move*; motion.
 Nascor (natus). *to be born*; in-
 nate.
 Necto, *bind*; connect.
 Nego, *deny*; negation.
 Noceo, *hurt*; noxious.
 Nosco (notus), *know*; denote.
 Nuncio, *make known*; announce.
 Opto, *wish*; optative.
 Orno, *adorn*; ornament.
 Pando, *to stretch*; expand.
 Pareo, *appear*; apparent.
 Paro, *prepare*; repair.
 Pascor (pastum), *feed*; repast.
 Patior, *suffer*; patient.
 Pello (pulsus), *drive*; repel.
 Penleo, *hang*; depend.
 Petu, *seek*; petition.
 Placeo, *please*; placid.
 Placo, *appease*; placate.
 Plaudo, *clap*; applaud.
 Plecto, *twine*; complex.
 Plico, *fold*; complicated.
 Ploro, *implore*; deplore.
 Pono (positus), *place*; deposit.
 Porto, *carry*; import.
 Precor, *pray*; imprecate.
 Prehendo, *lay hold of*; apprehend.
 Premo (pressus), *press*; impress.
 Probo, *approve*; probation.
 Pungo, *prick*; pungent.
 Purgo, *cleanse*; purgatory.
 Puto, *think*; repute.
 Quaero, *seek*; query.
 Queror, *complain*; querulous.
 Rapio (raptus), *seize*; rapacious.
 Rego, *rule*; regent.
 Rideo, *laugh*; deride.
 Rigeo, *to be stiff*; rigid.
 Rumpo (ruptus), *break*; rupture.
 Salio (saltum), *leap*; assail.
 Scando, *climb*; ascend.
 Scribo (scriptus), *write*; trans-
 scribe.
 Seco, *cut*; sect.
 Sedeo, *sit*; subside.
 Sentio, *feel*; sentient.
 Sequor, *follow*; persecute.
 Servio, *serve*; servile.
 Servo, *keep*; preservation.
 Sisto, *stop*; persist.
 Soleo, *to be accustomed*; insolent.
 Solvo, *loose*; resolve.
 Sono, *sound*; consonant.
 Specio (spectus), *see*; inspect.
 Spiro, *breathe*; inspire.
 Statuo, *appoint*; constitute.
 Sterno (stratus), *scatter*; prostrate.
 Sto, *stand*; station.
 Stringo (strictus), *draw tight*; strict.
 Sumo (sumptus), *take*; assume.
 Tango (tactus), *touch*; intact.
 Temno, *despise*; contempt.
 Tendo, *stretch*; attend.
 Teneo, *hold*; tenacious.
 Terreo, *frighten*; terrify.
 Texo, *weave*; textile.
 Timeo, *fear*; timid.
 Tingo, *dye*; tincture.
 Tolerō, *bear*; tolerate.
 Tollo, *raise*; extol.
 Torreo, *roast*; torrid.
 Torqueo (tortus), *wrest*; extort.
 Traho (tractus), *draw*; attract.
 Tribuo, *bestow*; attribute.
 Trudo, *thrust*; intrude.
 Tumeo, *swell*; tumour.
 Utor (usus), *use*; useful.
 Vado, *go*; evade.
 Valeo, *prevail*; valid.
 Veho, *carry*; vehicle.
 Venio (ventus), *come*; advent.
 Verto, *turn*; convert.
 Video (visum), *see*; provide.
 Vinco (victus), *conquer*; invincible.
 Vivo, *live*; vivify.
 Voco, *call*; invoke.
 Volo, *fly*; volatile.
 Volvo, *roll*; involve.
 Voro, *devour*; voracious.

LATIN ADJECTIVES.

Acer, <i>sharp</i> ; acid.	Lentus, <i>slow</i> ; relent.
Aequus, <i>equal</i> ; equator.	Longus, <i>long</i> ; longitude.
Albus, <i>white</i> ; albino.	Malus, <i>evil</i> ; malefactor.
Alter, <i>another</i> ; alternate.	Maturus, <i>ripe</i> ; mature.
Altus, <i>high</i> ; exalt.	Medius, <i>middle</i> ; mediator.
Antiquus, <i>old</i> ; antique.	Minor, <i>less</i> ; diminish.
Asper, <i>rough</i> ; asperity.	Obscurus, <i>dark</i> ; obscure.
Bonus, <i>good</i> ; bounty.	Omnis, <i>all</i> ; omnipotent.
Brevis, <i>short</i> ; brief.	Planus, <i>level</i> ; plain.
Cautus, <i>wary</i> ; cautious.	Plenus, <i>full</i> ; plenty.
Cavus, <i>hollow</i> ; cavern.	Plus, <i>more</i> ; plural.
Certus, <i>sure</i> ; certify.	Posterus, <i>last</i> ; posterity.
Coctus, <i>cooked</i> ; concoct.	Primus, <i>first</i> ; primary.
Densus, <i>thick</i> ; dense.	Privus, <i>secret</i> ; private.
Dignus, <i>worthy</i> ; dignify.	Purus, <i>pure</i> ; purify.
Dulcis, <i>sweet</i> ; dulcet.	Qualis, <i>of what kind</i> ; quality.
Durus, <i>hard</i> ; endure.	Quantus, <i>how much</i> ; quantity.
Externus, <i>outward</i> ; external.	Quot, <i>how many</i> ; quotient.
Exterior, <i>outer</i> ; exterior.	Rarus, <i>thin</i> ; rare.
Extremus, <i>outermost</i> ; extreme.	Sacer, <i>sacred</i> ; sacrament.
Facilis, <i>easy</i> ; facile.	Sanctus, <i>holy</i> ; sanctify.
Felix, <i>happy</i> ; felicity.	Sonus, <i>sound</i> ; insane.
Firmus, <i>strong</i> ; firm.	Senex, <i>old</i> ; senile.
Fortis, <i>strong</i> ; fortify.	Similis, <i>like</i> ; similar.
Grandis, <i>great</i> ; aggrandise.	Solus, <i>alone</i> ; solitude.
Gravis, <i>heavy</i> ; gravity.	Surdus, <i>deaf</i> ; absurd.
Inferior, <i>lower</i> ; inferior.	Tenuis, <i>thin</i> ; attenuate.
Inferus, <i>low</i> ; infernal.	Tres, <i>three</i> ; triennial.
Internus, <i>inner</i> ; internal.	Vanus, <i>vain</i> ; v. i. u. n. t.
Latus, <i>broad</i> ; oblate.	Vetus, <i>old</i> ; veteran.

III. GREEK ROOTS—NOUNS.

Aer (αἴρ), <i>the air</i> ; aerial.	Bios (βίος), <i>life</i> ; biography.
Agogos (αἰγῳγος), <i>leader</i> ; demagogue.	Chole (χολή), <i>bile</i> ; melancholy.
Agon (αγών) <i>contest</i> ; antagonist.	Chronos (χρόνος), <i>time</i> ; chronology.
Angelos (αγγελος), <i>messenger</i> ; angel.	Cosmos (κόσμος), <i>world</i> ; cosmogony.
Anthos (ανθος), <i>flower</i> ; polyanthus.	Cratos (κρατος), <i>rule</i> ; democrat.
Anthropos (ανθρωπος), <i>man</i> ; philanthropy.	Daimon (δαιμων), <i>spirit</i> ; demon.
Arctos (αρκτος), <i>bear</i> ; arctic.	Demos (δημος), <i>people</i> ; democrat.
Arithmos (αριθμος), <i>number</i> ; arithmetic.	Doxa (δοξα), <i>opinion</i> ; orthodox.
Astron (αστρον), <i>star</i> ; astronomy.	Dogma (δογμα), <i>opinion</i> ; dogmatic.
Biblion (βιβλιον), <i>book</i> ; bible.	Dynamis (δυναμις), <i>strength</i> ; dynamics.
	Ethos (εθος), <i>manner</i> ; ethics.

- Gamos (γάμος), *marriage*; polygamy.
 Ge (γη), *the earth*; geography.
 Genos (γενος), *kind*; heterogeneous.
 Glossa (γλωσσα), *tongue*; glossary.
 Gonia (γωνια), *corner*; diagonal.
 Gramma (γραμμα), *letter*; grammar.
 Haima (αίμα), *blood*; hemorrhage.
 Hairesis (αἵρεσις), *choosing*; heresy.
 Helios (ἥλιος), *sun*; perihelion.
 Hemera (ἡμερα), *day*; ephemeral.
 Hippos (ἵππος), *horse*; hippodrome.
 Hodos (ὁδος), *way*; period.
 Hudor (ὕδωρ), *water*; hydrostatics.
 Ichthus (ἰχθυς), *a fish*; ichthyology.
 Kephalē (κεφαλή), *head*; cephalic.
 Kuklos (κύκλος), *circle*; cycle.
 Laos (λαος), *people*; laity.
 Latreia (λατρεία), *service*; idolater.
 Logos (λογος), *reason*; geology.
 Lysis (λυσις), *loosing*; analysis.
 Martyr (μαρτυρ), *witness*; martyr.
 Mathema (μαθημα), *science*; mathematics.
 Metron (μετρον), *measure*; symmetry.
 Meter (μητηρ), *mother*; metropolis.
 Muthos (μυθος), *myth*; mythology.
 Naus (ναυς), *ship*; nautical.
 Nesos (νησος), *island*; Polynesia.
 Nomos (νομος), *law*; astronomy.
 Oikos (οικος), *house*; economy.
 Onoma (ονομα), *name*; synonyme.
 Ophthalmos (οφθαλμος), *eye*; ophthalmia.
 Organon (οργανον), *instrument*; organic.
 Ornis (ορνις), *bird*; ornithology.
 Pais (παις), *child*; pedagogue.
 Pathos (παθος), *feeling*; pathology.
 Petra (πέτρα), *rock*; petrify.
 Phone (φωνη), *voice*; phonetic.
 Phos (φως), *light*; phosphorus.
 Pusia (φυσις), *nature*; physics.
 Pneuma (πνευμα), *wind*; pneumatics.
 Polemos (πολεμος), *war*; polemic.
 Polis (πολις), *city*; politics.
 Potamos (ποταμος), *river*; hippopotamus.
 Pous (πους), *foot*; antipodes.
 Psyche (ψυχη), *soul*; psychology.
 Put (πυρ), *fire*; pyramid.
 Sphaira (σφαίρα), *ball*; sphere.
 Stasis (στασις), *standing*; apostasy.
 Strophe (στροφή), *turning*. apostrophe.
 Taphos (ταφος), *tomb*; epitaph.
 Techne (τεχνη), *art*; technical.
 Theos (θεος), *God*; theology.
 Thesis (θεσις), *placing*; parenthesis.
 Topos (τοπος), *place*; topography.
 Tupos (τυπος), *stamp*; type.
 Zoon (ζωον), *animal*; zoology.

GREEK VERBS.

- Archo (αρχω), *to command*; monarch.
 Ballo (βαλλω), *to throw*; symbol.
 Calupto (καλυπτω), *cover*; Apocalypse.
 Gignosco (γινωσκω), *know*; prognostic.
 Grapho (γραφω), *write*; autograph.
 Miso (μισεω), *hate*; misanthropist.

Optomai (οπτομαι), <i>see</i> ; optics.	Psallo (ψαλλω), <i>sing</i> ; psalm.
Orao (ορω), <i>see</i> ; panorama.	Skopeo (σκοπεω), <i>see</i> ; telescope.
Phantazo (φανταζω), <i>appear</i> ; phantom.	Stello (στελλω), <i>send</i> ; apostle.
Phaino (φαινω), <i>show</i> ; phenomenon.	Tasso (τασσω), <i>arrange</i> ; syntax.
Poieo (ποιεω), <i>make</i> ; poetry.	Theommi (θαμαι), <i>see</i> ; theatre.
	Temno (τεμνω), <i>cut</i> ; otom.
	Trepo (τρεπω), <i>turn</i> ; tropics.

GREEK ADJECTIVES.

Autos (αυτος), <i>self</i> ; autobiography.	Necros (νεκρος), <i>dead</i> ; necropolis.
Calos (καλος), <i>beautiful</i> ; calligraphy.	Neos (νεος), <i>new</i> ; neology.
Gymnos (γυμνος), <i>naked</i> ; gymnastics.	Oligos (ολιγος), <i>few</i> ; oligarchy.
Heteros (ετερος), <i>another</i> ; heterogeneous.	Orthos (ορθος), <i>right</i> ; orthodox.
Hieros (ιερος), <i>sacred</i> ; hierarchy.	Oxys (οξυς), <i>sharp</i> ; oxygen.
Isos (ισος), <i>equal</i> ; isosceles.	Philos (φιλος), <i>friendly</i> ; philanthropist.
Monos (μονος), <i>alone</i> ; monotonous.	Polus (πολυς), <i>many</i> ; polygon.
	Protos (πρωτος), <i>first</i> ; prototype.
	Thermos (θερμος), <i>warm</i> ; thermometer.

The following are a few specimens of the French words, which have been the *medium* of introducing the original Latin roots in English.

Cheval (Lat. caballus), <i>horse</i> ; chevalier, chivalry, cavalry.	fealty.
Charte (Lat. carta), <i>paper</i> ; chart charter, cartoon, cartouch.	Merveille (Lat. mirabile), <i>wonder</i> ; marvel, marvellous.
Campagne (Lat. campus), <i>field</i> ; camp, campaign, champagne.	Parler, <i>to speak</i> : parley Parliament.
Chanter (Lat. cano), <i>sing</i> ; chant enchant, enchanting.	Souverain (Lat. supernus), <i>sovereign</i> ; sovereignty.
Féodalité (Lat. fidelitas), <i>feudal</i> ;	Vue (Lat. video), <i>see</i> ; view.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION,

CONTAINING A BRIEF EXPOSITION OF ITS

GENERAL PRINCIPLES,

ACCOMPANIED WITH PROGRESSIVE EXERCISES,

DESIGNED TO BE TAKEN UP IN CONNECTION WITH PART III.

COMPOSITION is the art of expressing our sentiments in spoken or written language. It is of two kinds, Prose and Poetry.

Prose compositions are those in which the thoughts are expressed in the natural order, in common and ordinary language.

Poetic compositions are those in which the thoughts and sentiments are expressed in measured verse, in loftier and more inverted style, by words and figures selected and arranged so as to please the ear, and captivate the fancy.

In both of these, speech or discourse is either *direct* or *indirect*.

Direct discourse is that in which a writer or speaker delivers his own sentiments.

Indirect or *oblique* discourse is that in which a person relates, in his own language, what another speaker or writer said.

In the *first*, when the speaker refers to himself, he uses the *first* person *I* or *we*. When he refers to the person or persons addressed, he uses the *second* person *thou*, *you*, &c.

In the *second* or indirect discourse, whether the speaker is reported as referring to himself, or to those whom he addresses, the third person is used in either case; as, *he*, *she*, *they*, &c. An example will best illustrate the distinction. Thus:

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Then Paul stood in the midst of Mars hill and said: "Ye men of Athens, I perceive that in all things ye are too superstitious; for as I passed by and beheld your devotions, I found an altar with

this inscription: 'To THE UNKNOWN GOD.' Whom, therefore, ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you."

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

The same, reported in indirect or oblique discourse, would run thus:

Then Paul, standing on Mars hill, told the men of Athens, *he* perceived that in all things *they* were too superstitious; for as *he* passed by and beheld *their* devotions, *he* found an altar with *this* inscription: "To THE UNKNOWN GOD." Whom, therefore, *they* ignorantly worshipped, him declared *he* unto them.

When the reporter, the speaker reported, and the person or persons addressed, are different in gender or number, there is no danger of ambiguity. But when in these respects they are the same, ambiguity is unavoidable, from the same pronoun being used in the progress of the discourse, to designate different persons. Hence, to prevent mistakes, it is often necessary to insert the name or designation of the person meant by the pronoun. An example will best illustrate this also:—

"Then the son went to his father and said to him, [*direct*] 'I have sinned against Heaven and in thy sight.'"

"Then the son went to his father and said to him, [*indirect*] that *he* (the son) had sinned against Heaven and in his (his father's) sight."

It will at once be perceived, that, without the words enclosed in brackets, for explanation, it would be impossible to tell whether by the word *he*, the father or the son was intended; so also with respect to the word *his*. Hence, when by the *indirect* discourse, ambiguity is unavoidable, it is generally better to have recourse to the *direct* form, and quote the writer's or speaker's own words.

The principal kinds of *prose* composition are—*narratives, letters, memoirs, history, biography, essays, philosophy, sermons, novels, speeches and orations.*

The principal kinds of *poetical* composition are—the *epigram, the epitaph, the sonnet, pastoral poetry, didactic poetry, satires, descriptive poetry, elegy, lyric poetry, dramatic poetry, and epic poetry.*

THE USE OF GRAMMAR IN COMPOSITION.

To speak and write with propriety, in every species of composition, is an attainment of no small importance; and to lead to this attainment is the business of grammar. The grammar of a language is a just compilation of rules and directions, agreeably to which that language is spoken or written. These rules, however, are not the invention of the grammarian, nor dependent on his authority for their validity. As it is the business of the

philosopher, not to *make* a law of Nature, nor to *dictate* how her operations should be performed, but, by close observation, to ascertain what those laws are, and to state them for the information of others; so the business of the grammarian is, not to *make* the laws of language, for language is before grammar, but to observe and note those principles, and forms and modes of speech, by which men are accustomed to express their sentiments, and to arrange the results of his observation into a system of rules for the guidance and assistance of others. It is obvious, then, that the ultimate principle or *test* to which the rules laid down by the grammarian must conform, is *THE BEST USAGE*.

Hence, when the inquiry is whether a particular word or form of speech is *right*, is *good English*, the only question to be decided is, "Is it according to the *best usage*?" On this subject however, it has been made a question, "What is the best usage?" The following sentiments, abridged from Dr. Crombie's work on English Etymology and Syntax, seem to be just, and comprehensive of this whole subject.

THE LAW OF LANGUAGE.

The *USAGE* which gives law to language, in order to establish its authority, or to entitle its suffrage to our assent, must be in the first place *reputable*, by which is meant, not the usage of the court, nor great men, nor merely scientific men; but of those whose works are *esteemed by the public*, and who may therefore be denominated *reputable* authors.

In the second place this usage must be *national*. It must not be confined to this or that province or district. "Those," to use Campbell's apposite similitude, "who deviate from the beaten road may be incomparably more numerous than those who travel in it; yet, in whatever number of by-paths the former may be divided, there may not be found in any one of these tracks so many as travel in the king's highway."

Thirdly, this usage must be *present*. It is difficult to fix with any precision what usage may in all cases be deemed *present*. It is perhaps in this respect different with different compositions. In general, words and forms of speech, which have been long disused, should not be employed. And so, on the contrary, the usage of the present day is not implicitly to be adopted. Mankind are fond of novelty, and there is a fashion in language as there is in dress. Whim, vanity, and affectation, delight in creating new words, and using new forms of phraseology. Now, to adopt every new-fangled upstart at its birth, would argue, not taste, nor judgment, but childish fondness for singularity and novelty. But should any of these maintain its ground, and receive the sanction of reputable usage, it must in that case be received.

The usage, then which gives law to language, and which is generally denominated good usage, must be *reputable, national* and *present*. It happens, however, that "good usage" is not always uniform in her decisions, and that in unquestionable authorities are found far different modes of expression. In such cases, the following CANONS, proposed by Dr. Campbell, will be of service in enabling to decide to which phraseology the preference ought to be given. They are given nearly in the words of the author:—

CANON 1.—When usage is divided as to any particular words or phrases, and when one of the expressions is susceptible of a *different* meaning, while the other admits of only *one* signification, the expression which is strictly *univocal* should be preferred.

CANON 2.—In doubtful cases, *analogy* should be regarded.

CANON 3.—When expressions are in other respects equal, that should be preferred which is *most agreeable to the ear*.

CANON 4.—When none of the preceding rules takes place, regard should be had to *simplicity*.

But though no expression or mode of speech can be justified which is not sanctioned by usage, yet the converse does not follow, that every phraseology sanctioned by usage should be retained. In many such cases, custom may properly be checked by criticism, whose province it is, not only to remonstrate against the introduction of any word or phraseology which may be either unnecessary or contrary to analogy, but also to exclude whatever is reprehensible, though in general use. It is by this, her prerogative, that languages are gradually refined and improved. In exercising this authority, she can not pretend to degrade, instantly, any phraseology which she may deem objectionable; but she may, by repeated remonstrances, gradually effect its dismissal. Her decisions in such cases may be properly regulated by the following rules, laid down by the same author:—

RULE 1.—All words and phrases, particularly harsh and not absolutely necessary, should be dismissed.

RULE 2.—When the etymology plainly points to a different signification from what the word bears, propriety and simplicity require its dismissal.

RULE 3.—When words become obsolete, or are never used but in particular phrases, they should be repudiated, as they give the style an air of vulgarity and cant, when this general disuse renders them obscure.

RULE 4.—All words and phrases which, analyzed grammatically, include a solecism, should be dismissed.

RULE 5.—All expressions which, according to the established rules of language, either have no meaning, or involve a contradiction, or, according to the fair construction of the words, convey a meaning different from the intention of the speaker, should be dismissed.

In order to write any language with grammatical purity, three things are required:—

1. That the words be all of that language. The violation of this rule is called a *barbarism*.

2. That they be construed and arranged according to the rules of syntax in that language. A violation of this rule is called a *solecism*.

3. That they be employed in that sense which usage has annexed to them. A violation of this rule is called *impropriety*.

A *barbarism* is an offence against lexicography. The *solecism* is an offence against the rules of syntax; and the *impropriety* is an offence against lexicography, by mistaking the meaning of words and phrases.

HINTS FOR CORRECT AND ELEGANT WRITING.

Correct and elegant writing depends partly upon the choice of words, and partly upon the form and structure of sentences.

1. In so far as respects single words, the chief things to be observed are *purity*, *propriety*, and *precision*.

PURITY.

Purity consists in the rejection of such words and phrases as are not strictly English, nor in accordance with the practice of good writers or speakers.

1. Avoid foreign words and modes of expression; as, "*Fraicheur*"—"politesse"—"He repents him of his folly."

2. Avoid obsolete and unauthorized words; as, *albeit*, *aforetime*, *inspector*, *judgmatical*.

PROPRIETY.

Propriety consists in the use of such words as are best adapted to express our meaning.

1. Avoid low and provincial expressions; as, "To get into a scrape."

2. In writing prose, reject words that are merely poetical; as, "This morn."—"The celestial orbs."

3. Avoid technical terms, unless you write to those who perfectly understand them.

4. Do not use the same word too frequently, or in different senses; as, "The king communicated his intention to the minister, *who* disclosed it to the secretary, *who* made it known to the public."—"His own *reason* might have suggested better *reasons*."

5. Supply words that are wanting, and necessary to complete the sense. Thus, instead of "This action increased his former services," say, "This action increased the *merit* of his former services."

6. Avoid equivocal or ambiguous expressions, as "His *memory* shall be lost on the earth."

7. Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent expressions; as, "I have an *opaque* idea of what you mean."

PRECISION.

Precision rejects superfluous words.

1. Avoid tautology; as, "His *faithfulness* and *fidelity* are unequalled."

2. Observe the exact meaning of words accounted synonyms. Thus, instead of "Though his actions and intentions were good, he lost his *character*," say, "He lost his *reputation*."

II. With respect to sentences, *clearness*, *unity*, *strength*, and a proper application of the *figures of speech*, are necessary.

CLEARNESS.

Clearness demands a proper arrangement of words.

1. Adverbs, relative pronouns, and explanatory phrases, must be placed as near as possible to the words which they affect, and in such a situation as the sense requires.

2. In prose, a poetic collocation must be avoided.

3. Pronouns must be so used as clearly to indicate the word for which they stand.

UNITY.

Unity retains one predominant object through a sentence, or a series of clauses.

1. Separate into distinct sentences such clauses as have no immediate connection.

2. The principal words must, throughout a sentence, be the most prominent, and the leading nominative should, if possible, be the subject of every clause.

3. Avoid the introduction of parentheses, except when a lively remark may be thrown in, without too long suspending the sense of what goes before.

STRENGTH.

Strength gives to every word and every member its due importance.

1. Avoid tautology, and reject all superfluous words and members. In the following sentence, the word printed in italics should be omitted; "*Being* conscious of his own integrity, he disdained submission."

2. Place the most important words in the situation in which they will make the strongest impression.

3. A weaker assertion should not follow a stronger; and, when the sentence consists of two members, the longer should be the concluding one.

4. When two things are compared or contrasted with each other where either resemblance or opposition is to be expressed, some resemblance in the language should be preserved.

5. A sentence should not be concluded with a preposition, or any inconsiderable word or phrase, unless it is emphatic.

FIGURES OF SPEECH (SEE PAGES 251 TO 256.)

1. Figurative language must be used sparingly, and never except when it serves to illustrate or enforce what is said.

2. Figures of speech, when used, should be such as appear natural, not remote or foreign from the subject, and not pursued too far.

3. Literal and figurative language ought never to be blended together.

4. When figurative language is used, the same figure should be preserved throughout, and different figures never jumbled together.

PROGRESSIVE EXERCISES IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

The following Exercises are taken chiefly from Armstrong's "English Composition," an admirable text-book, recently published in Edinburgh.

1ST EXERCISE.

Conjoin the simple sentences in each of the following paragraphs into two sentences.

The sun is the great source of light. The sun is the centre of the solar system. The animal kingdom is arranged into four great divisions. These divisions are called sub-kingdoms.

The hyena is a fierce animal. The hyena is a solitary animal. The hyena is found chiefly in the desolate parts of the Torrid Zone.

The plant samphire grows on the sea shore. The plant samphire grows always in certain places. These places are never covered by the sea.

The oak upbraided the willow. The willow was weak. The willow was wavering. The willow gave way to every blast. Soon after it blew a hurricane. The willow yielded. The willow gave way. The oak stubbornly resisted. The oak was torn up by the roots.

2ND EXERCISE.

Conjoin the simple sentences in the following paragraph into three sentences.

The tiger is almost confined to the warm climates of the East. The tiger is especially confined to India. The tiger is especially confined to Siam. The Strait of Gibraltar leads into the Mediterranean. The Mediterranean is a series of inland seas. These seas wash the shores of Rome. These seas wash the shores of Carthage. These seas wash the shores of Syria. These seas wash the shores of Egypt. Cotys was king of Thrace. Cotys got a present of earthen vessels. The earthen vessels were exquisitely wrought. The earthen vessels were extremely brittle. Cotys broke them into pieces. Cotys did not wish to have occasion of anger against his servants.

3RD EXERCISE.

Conjoin the simple sentences in the following paragraph into a narrative with properly constructed sentences.

Octavius, Lepidus, and Antonius, attained supreme power at Rome. They proscribed Planus. Planus had once been consul. Planus therefore fled for his life. His slaves were seized. They were put to the torture. They refused to discover him. New torments were prepared. Planus would no longer save himself at the expense of so faithful servants. Planus came from his hiding-place. He submitted to the swords of the messengers. The messengers sought his life. This was a noble example of mutual affection between a master and his slaves. It procured a pardon for Planus. All the world exclaimed, that Planus only was worthy of so good servants. All the world exclaimed that they only were worthy of so good a master.

4TH EXERCISE.

Change the position of the clauses and phrases in the following sentences, without altering the construction or destroying the sense.

Temperance, by fortifying mind and body, leads to happiness.

After the Revolution, when James II. was dethroned, it was high treason to correspond with the exiled monarch. The history of a nation, to be really instructive, should contain nothing but the truth. He requires no law who commits no injury. He who always lives in the bustle of the world, lives in a perpetual warfare. Next to the sun, the moon has the most salutary impression upon our earth. Many things, which, in the days of our forefathers, were considered as useless, are now regarded as great benefits.

5TH EXERCISE.

Vary the construction of the adjective clause in each of the following complex sentences.

The king, who was taken prisoner, was put to the sword. James I., who was one of the wisest kings that reigned over Scotland, was assassinated at Perth in 1436. The song of woe, which the poets have attributed to the nightingale, is entirely fanciful. A man who is intimately acquainted with the nature of things has seldom occasion to be astonished. Men of great talent are not always the persons whom we should esteem. There are many peculiarities in plants which excite the greatest interest. Many things, which, in the days of our forefathers, were considered as useless, are now regarded as great benefits.

6TH EXERCISE.

Vary the construction of the participial phrase, converting it into an adjective or adverbial clause.

The ocean, rolling its surges from clime to clime, is the most magnificent object under the sun. Man, considered in himself, is a very helpless and wretched being. Having obtained all the money that he could, Richard departed for the Holy Land. The people, seeing so many of their townsmen fall, were exasperated beyond all sense of danger. I yesterday passed a whole afternoon in the churchyard, the cloisters, and the church, amusing myself with the tombstones and inscriptions that I met with in these several regions of the dead. The minutest animal, examined attentively, affords a thousand wonders. On learning the defeat of Pembroke, Edward marched with an army towards Scotland, determined to be revenged on Bruce.

7TH EXERCISE.

Vary the construction of the participial independent phrase, converting it into a principal sentence.

Order being obtained, the member addressed the House. In Palestine, the cold of winter not being severe, the ground is never

frozen. The olive tree is from twenty to thirty feet high, its branches being numerous and very widely extended. Perkin's affairs being altogether desperate, he embraced the king's offer without hesitation. The battle having been concluded, the commander-in-chief ordered an estimate of his loss to be made. The rain having poured in torrents, we were prevented from setting out. Lord Cathcart having taken the command of the troops, they were landed near Copenhagen without opposition. The fortress having surrendered, the king held a council within its walls.

8TH EXERCISE.

Vary the construction of one or more of the principal clauses in each of the following sentences.

And David put his hand into his bag, and took thence a stone, and slung it and smote the Philistine in the forehead. Their intentions were good; but they wanted prudence, and missed the mark at which they aimed. As the Armada advanced up the Channel, the English still followed and infested the rear. As Becket approached Southwark, the clergy, the laity, and men of all ranks and ages, came forth to meet him, and celebrated his triumphal entry with hymns of joy. A general assembly of deputies was then summoned, and Philadelphia, because it was the most central town, was fixed upon as the place of meeting. Patriots have toiled, and in their country's cause bled nobly; and their deeds, as they deserve, receive proud recompense. David, on reaching the army of the Israelites, found it in great confusion; for a Philistine giant of enormous stature had paraded before it during forty days, and challenged the bravest to single combat.

9TH EXERCISE.

Vary the construction of the sentences in the following passages as much as possible, altering the position of the clauses as may be found necessary.

At the time of the French Revolution, there lived at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, in Germany, a Jewish banker, of limited means but good reputation, named Moses Rothschild. When the French army invaded Germany, the prince of Hesse-Cassel was obliged to flee from his dominions. As he passed through Frankfort, he requested Moses Rothschild to take charge of a large sum of money and some valuable jewels, which he feared might otherwise fall into the hands of the enemy. The Jew would have declined so great a charge; but the prince was so much at a loss for the means of saving his property, that Moses at length consented. He declined, however, giving a receipt for it, as in such dangerous circumstances he could not be answerable for its being safely restored.

10TH EXERCISE.

Substitute appropriate words in the following passages for those printed in italics.

Charles, after some *delay*, accepted the *conditions* imposed upon him, and *obtained leave* to enter Scotland, where, less a *king* than a *prisoner*, he was *excluded* from public *affairs* and the *deliberations* of the council. On the *news* of these *events*, Cromwell was *recalled* from Ireland, and *named* general of the parliamentary *troops* in the place of Fairfax, who *felt* some religious scruples about *attacking* the Scotch. He *immediately* set out at the head of 16,000 men, and *advanced* without *obstacle* as far as Edinburgh. Lesly, who *commanded* the *troops* of the Covenanters, was *anxious* to *avoid* a general *battle*; and *taking possession* of all the *difficult* passes, *reduced* Cromwell to such *straits*, that he is said to have *formed* the *resolution* of *sending off* his foot and artillery by sea, and breaking through, at all *hazards*, with his *cavalry*. But the Scottish clergy *opposed* the *prudent* measures of their *general*. They *forced* him to *descend* into the *plain*, that he might *attack* the English in their retreat; and the *consequence* was, that he *suffered* a *total defeat* near Dunbar.

11TH EXERCISE.

Substitute appropriate words of Saxon origin for those printed in italics in the following passages.

Encouraged by the *destruction* of the Spanish Armada, the English, in the *succeeding* year, began to *meditate* revenge, and Parliament *entreated* the queen to punish the *insult* which had been *offered* by Philip, and carry *hostilities* into his dominions. An *armament* of 200 sail was *accordingly* *collected* at Plymouth, which *received* on board a refugee *called* Don Antonio, a claimant of the crown of Portugal, that had been *usurped* by Philip. The *expedition* was placed under the command of Norris and Drake, who sailed *directly* to the *port* of Corunna, and *captured* several ships, but were *repulsed* from the town with the *sacrifice* of many valuable lives. The fleet then sailed to the mouth of the Tagus, and the troops *marched* without *opposition* to Lisbon, but not a voice was *raised* for Don Antonio; and the English were *ultimately* compelled, by *destitution* and *disease* to *abandon* the *enterprise*. Of 21,000 men engaged in this *disastrous* expedition, one-half had *perished*, yet an attempt was made to *conceal* the loss, and to *convert* the defeat into a *second* triumph over the *power* of Spain.

12TH EXERCISE.

Supply appropriate words in the following elliptical passages.

About the middle of the eighteenth

, when Englishmen

abroad were, from their rareness, objects of greater
 than now, one, while the tour of Europe at
 Turin. out to see the , he happened to meet a
 of infantry from parade. As he at the pass-
 ing troops, a young officer, evidently desirous to make a
 before the stranger, his footing in one of the
 water-courses by the city is intersected, and in trying to
 himself, his hat. The populace laughed, and
 at the Englishman, expecting him to too. On
 the , he not only his composure, but promptly
 to the spot where the had rolled, and it
 up, presented it with an of unaffected kindness to its con-
 fused . The received it with a of sur-
 prise and gratitude, and to rejoin his company. There
 was a of applause, and the passed on. Though
 the of a moment, it every heart: it was an
 of that genuine politeness which from kind and gentle
 feelings. On the being dismissed, the captain, who was a
 young of rank, the circumstance in terms
 to his colonel. The colonel immediately it to the general
 in ; and when the returned to his hotel, he
 an aid-de-camp waiting to his to dinner at head-
 quarters. In the evening he was to court, at that
 the most brilliant in Europe, and was with particular
 . During his subsequent at , he was invited
 to the of all persons of ; and at his he
 received letters of to the different states of .
 Thus a private of moderate , by a act
 of , was enabled to through a foreign
 with more real distinction and advantage can be derived
 from the mere of birth and fortune.

13TH EXERCISE.

Vary the expression and construction of the follow-
 ing prose passages, taking care to preserve the sense.

During an eruption of Mount Vesuvius, Pliny the younger was at
 Misenum with his family. All the inhabitants sought for safety in
 flight; but reflecting little on the danger that surrounded himself,
 Pliny was completely occupied with the means of saving his
 mother, whom he esteemed more than his life. She entreated
 him in vain to flee from a place where his destruction was certain.
 She represented to him that her age and infirmities would prevent
 her from accompanying him, and that the least delay would ex-
 pose them both to destruction. Her entreaties were useless:
 Pliny would rather die than leave his mother in such imminent
 danger. He seized her against her will, and forced her along.

She yielded to his entreaties, and allowed him to carry her, but reproached herself for retarding his flight.

Already the ashes were falling upon them; and the vapour and smoke with which the air was filled, turned day into the darkest night. On entering the gloom, they had nothing to guide their trembling steps but the flashing of the flames that surrounded them. They heard nothing but groans and cries, which rendered the darkness more frightful. But this horrible spectacle could not shake the constancy of Pliny, nor induce him to provide for his own security by deserting his mother. The more she was in danger, the more did he exert himself to comfort her. He supported and carried her in his arms; her frailty roused his courage, and enabled him to make the greatest efforts for her safety. Heaven rewarded so praiseworthy an action, and preserved to him a mother more esteemed than the life which he received from her, and to her a son worthy of being beloved and exhibited as a pattern of filial duty.

14TH EXERCISE.

Express the sentiments contained in the following simple sentences by enlarging them into complex sentences.

A volcano in action is one of the grandest spectacles in nature. Man obtains much of his clothing from animals. The island of Staffa is one of the wonders of nature. The Pyramids testify the greatness of the ancient Egyptians. The sagacity of insects is a most interesting subject of contemplation. The seasons afford many a theme for poetry. The resurrection is the basis of Christian religion. The Pharisees were remarkable for ostentation. The mariner's compass is one of the most important discoveries.

The order of words in a sentence is either *Rhetorical* or *Conventional*. The conventional arrangement is used in ordinary discourse; the rhetorical, in poetry and impassioned prose. In rhetorical sentences, the emphatic words are generally placed first.

RHETORICAL AND CONVENTIONAL ARRANGEMENT.

The order of words in a sentence is either *Rhetorical* or *Conventional*. The conventional arrangement is used in ordinary discourse; the rhetorical in poetry and impassioned prose. In rhetorical sentences, the emphatic words are generally placed first.

15TH EXERCISE.

Change the following complex sentences from the conventional to the rhetorical order by placing the adjective first.

The man that findeth wisdom is happy. A little with righteousness is better than great revenues without right. The delight of the warrior is high, when returning to the bosom of his family. The sleep of the dead is deep: their pillow of dust is low. Thy dwelling is narrow now: the place of thine abode is dark. The gate is wide and the way is broad that leadeth to destruction, and there be many who go in thereat: the gate is strait and the way is narrow which leadeth unto life, and there be few that find it. Her cries were frequent and loud. The voice of thy song is pleasant, thou lonely dweller of the rock.

16TH EXERCISE.

Change the following sentences from the conventional to the rhetorical order by placing the adverb first.

A man is seldom so wicked but he will endeavour to reconcile his actions with his duty. Like the evening sun, the memory of former times often comes on my soul. We do scarcely look around us in life, when our children are matured, and remind us of the grave. He shall hear thy voice no more—awake at thy call no more. I have often heard of Comal, who slew the friend he loved. A scene of woe then ensued, the like of which no eye had seen. The flower of the mountain grows there, and shakes its white head in the breeze. I ought to have doomed this ringleader of sedition to an ignominious death, long, very long, before this late hour.

17TH EXERCISE.

Change the following sentences from the conventional to the rhetorical order by placing the object before its governing verb.

Breathe his praise soft or loud, ye winds, that from four quarters blow. Death has placed upon her bier our blooming princess, whom fancy had decked with the coronet, and under whose sway all bade so fair for the good and the peace of the nation. You may set my fields on fire, and give my children to the sword; you may drive forth myself, a houseless, childless beggar; but you can never conquer the hatred I feel to your oppression. Thou hast presumed bold deed, adventurous Eve, and provoked great peril. I shall neither attempt to palliate nor deny the atrocious crime of being a young man, which the honourable gentleman has, with such spirit and decency, charged upon me. I did not expect such treatment from him who had formerly been my friend.

18TH EXERCISE.

Change the following complex sentences from the conventional to the rhetorical order by placing the prepositional adjunct first.

I compass thy grave with three steps, O thou, who wast so great before! God withdraws his favour and the light of his countenance from the sinner. I behold all full of courage, on what side soever I turn my eyes. The dark browed warriors came around him, and struck the shield of joy. Every office of benifecence and humanity is a pleasure to him who is prompted by virtuous sensibility. I call on you, ye heroes, who have lost so much blood in the service of your country. He stands over a distant stream, the tear hanging in his eye. The chief drew his sword from his side and bade the battle move. Let it be one great aim, in the conduct of life, to show that everything you do proceeds from yourself, not from your passions.

19TH EXERCISE.

Change the following passages from the rhetorical to the conventional arrangement, altering such expressions as are not allowable in prose.

With hasty step the farmer ran ;
And close beside the fire they place
The poor half-frozen beggar man,
With shaking limbs and blue cold face.
The little children flocking came,
And chafed his frozen hands in theirs ;
And busily the good old dame
A comfortable mess prepares.

In pensive guise,
Oft let me wander o'er the russet mead,
And through the saddened grove, where scarce is heard,
One dying strain to cheer the woodman's toil.

When Israel, of the Lord beloved,
Out from the land of bondage came,
Her father's God before her moved,
An awful guide, in smoke and flame.
By day, along the astonished lands,
The cloudy pillar glided slow ;
By night, Arabia's crimsoned sands
Returned the fiery pillar's glow.

O'er the wide prospect as I gazed around,
Sudden I heard a wild promiscuous sound,

Like broken thunders that at distance roar,
 Or billows murmuring on the hollow shore:
 Then, gazing up, a glorious pile beheld,
 Whose towering summit ambient clouds concealed.
 High on a rock of ice the structure lay,
 Steep its ascent, and slippery was the way.
 The wondrous rock like Parian marble shone,
 And seemed, to distant sight, of solid stone.
 Inscriptions here of various names I viewed,
 The greater part by hostile time subdued!
 Yet wide spread their fame in ages past,
 And poets once had promised they should last.
 Some, fresh engraved, appeared of wits renowned:
 I looked again, nor could their trace be found.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON THE RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.

(See Rules, page 244 to 250.)

What are the principal marks used in punctuation? General rule for use of Comma (805)? Report special rule, and write an example to illustrate it. Give rule 2, and write a sentence to show its application. Do the same with Rule 3, Rule 4, Rule 5, Rule 6, Rule 7, Rule 8, Rule 9, Rule 10, Rule 11, Rule 12, Rule 13, Rule 14, Rule 15, 16, and 17. Give the general rule for the use of the Semicolon, (824). Repeat 1st Special Rule for the use of the Semicolon and write a sentence to show its application. Do the same with Rule 2, Rule 3, and Rule 4. What is the general principal which determines the use of the Colon? Repeat the 1st Special Rule and write a sentence to show its application. Do the same with Rule 2, Rule 3, and Rule 4. From the remarks in 834, 835, 836, and 837 form a general rule to determine when the period should be used. From 839, write a rule to determine when the Interrogation point should be used. What other characters or marks are used in writing? Write a sentence to illustrate the use of each.

Supply the points omitted in the following exercises, and correct those which are wrong.

20TH EXERCISE.

The Comma.

I. The soil of the earth is not the same in all places. To do unto others, as we would be done unto, is the sum of our duty towards our fellow-creatures. To indulge in continual regrets for what cannot be remedied is only magnifying the evil.

II. Beware of pleasure the mother of all evils. Milton, the poet, was afflicted with blindness. Sir Isaac Newton, the eminent astronomer, was remarkable for his modesty. Howard the celebrated philanthropist was no less distinguished for courage than benevolence.

III. An embattled wall fortified with towers encompassed the city of Jerusalem. The creation demonstrates the power, and wisdom of the Deity. The bodies of the greater part of insects are composed of several rings which close on each other and have a share in all the motions of the animal. The righteous shall flourish, like the palm tree. The soil of Campania being full of sulphur the water contracts a disagreeable taste. Virtue strengthens in adversity, moderates in prosperity, supports in sickness, and comforts in the hour of death. The study of astronomy expands and elevates the mind.

IV. It is quite unnecessary indeed to insist further upon the point. Consider on the other hand the advantages of truth. "A faithful friend" it is beautifully said "is the medicine of life." Mountains then we find are essential to the due preservation of the earth. With respect to man no doubt there are many new things which take place on the earth.

V. The principal metals, are gold silver mercury copper iron tin and lead. The cocoa-nut tree supplies the inhabitants with bread milk and oil. We should live soberly righteously and piously in the present world. The soul can understand will imagine see hear love, and discourse. A man that is temperate generous valiant faithful and honest may at the same time have wit humour mirth and good-breeding.

VI. The wise, and the foolish the virtuous, and the evil the learned, and the ignorant the temperate, and the profligate must often be blended together. Absalom's beauty Jonathan's love David's valour and Solomon's wisdom though faintly amiable in the creature are found in unspeakable perfection in the Creator. Manners and customs virtues and vices knowledge and ignorance principles and habits are with little variation transmitted from one generation to another,

VII. Go on young men and pursue the study of learning. Learn good people, what a virtue it is to live on a little. My son give me thy heart. Observe I beseech you men of Athens how different your conduct appears, from the practices of your ancestors. Romans countrymen and lovers! Hear me for my cause.

VIII. Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man; and writing an exact man. Poverty is apt to betray a man into envy; riches into arrogance. The vineyards of France, may be called our gardens; the Spice Islands our hotbeds; the Persians

our silk weavers; and the Chinese our potters. Meekness controls our angry passions; candour our severe judgments.

IX. The poet says that anger is a short madness. Ovid says that it is a sort of pleasure to weep. Swift observes that no wise man, ever wished himself younger. It is written by Solomon that the wise shall inherit glory. It is remarked by Pope that fools have an itching to deride. It is an ancient saying that history is philosophy, teaching by example. Hannibal acted upon the maxim that the Romans could be conquered only at Rome.

21ST EXERCISE.

Semicolon.

I. The Dutch have a saying that thefts never enrich, alms never impoverish, prayers hinder no work. The most remarkable precious stones are the diamond which is colourless and transparent, the sapphire blue, the topaz yellow, the amethyst purple, and the garnet a deep red. The first nations who paid attention to architecture were the Babylonians who built the Temple of Belus and the hanging gardens, the Assyrians who filled Nineveh with splendid buildings, the Phœnicians whose cities were adorned with magnificent structures, and the Israelites whose temple was considered wonderful. There are tears for his love joy for his fortune honor for his valor and death for his ambition.

II. His manner was humble, but his spirit was haughty. When the righteous are in authority the people rejoice, but when the wicked beareth rule the people mourn. The duty of a soldier is to obey his general; not to direct him. Your enemies may be formidable by their numbers and their power, but He who is with you is mightier than they.

III. Blessed are they that mourn, for they shall be comforted. Mary was impatient of contradiction, because she had been accustomed from her infancy to be treated as a queen. Too much anxiety to avoid evils often brings them upon us, and we frequently cause misfortunes by the very efforts we make to escape them. A great advantage in the manufacture of almost every article is the division of labor for when each man has only one thing to do he soon acquires great neatness and proficiency in the performance.

22ND EXERCISE.

Colon.

I. Choose what is most fit, custom will make it most agreeable. I do not repine at my condition, it is the decree of Heaven. Guard with vigilance against the habit of procrastination, nothing is more injurious to success in life. The origin of a virtuous and happy life is derived from early years whoever would reap happi-

ness in old age must plant virtue in youth. To reason with him was vain, he was infatuated. Do not flatter yourself with the idea of perfect happiness there is no such thing in the world.

II. The feebleness of the body and the weakness of the mind the dimness of the eye and the failure of the limbs the restless night and the day that can no longer be enjoyed; these are some of the frailties and afflictions of old age as described by the sacred Preacher.

III. In my youth I saw the sepulchre of Cyrus, which bore this inscription; I am Cyrus, he who subdued the Persian empire Tiberius interrupted him with astonishment; Can these be sentiments of Belisarius! The apostle thus gives expression to the intensity of his emotion, O wretched man that I am! who shall deliver me from the body of this death? The patriot thus addressed the assembly, My friends we are brought to great straits this day.

23RD EXERCISE.

Period.

I. The student obtained the degree of AM Jerusalem was destroyed by Titus AD 70 At the death of Charles IV of France his nearest heirs were his sister Isabella mother of Edward III. and his cousin-german Philip of Valois. Then shall the kingdom of Heaven be likened unto ten virgins Matt xxv 1

24TH EXERCISE.

Interrogation, Exclamation, Dash and Parenthesis.

I. Approach O man and try what thy wisdom and thy power can execute. Canst thou make one tree to blossom or one leaf to germinate. Canst thou call from the earth the smallest blade of grass or order the tulip to rise in all its splendour. Contemplate these flowers. Examine them with attention.

II. How delightful is the face of nature when the morning light first dawns upon a country embosomed in snow. The thick mist which obscured the earth and concealed every object from our view at once vanishes. How beautiful to see the hills the forests and the groves all sparkling in white. What a delightful combination these objects present. Observe the brilliancy of those hedges.

III. Here lies the great false marble where. Our fathers each man was a god. And we shall we die in our chains. If thou beest he but oh how fallen.

And thou the billows' queen even thy proud form
On our glad sight no more perchance may swell.

IV. He gained from Heaven 'twas all he wished a friend. The distance of the nearest of these fixed stars or suns for suns they are

proved to be is at least twenty billion miles. What are our views of all worldly things and the same appearances they would always have if the same thoughts were always predominant when a sharp or tedious sickness has set death before our eyes and the last hour seems to be approaching.

The Paragraph.

The Paragraph marks a greater pause in the construction of a discourse than the period, and is indicated by an indented line.

The Paragraph is used to divide a discourse into distinct parts, the sentences of which are closely connected in narrative or sentiment.

25TH EXERCISE.

Supply all points omitted in the following narrative and separate into paragraphs.

In that season of the year when the serenity of the sky the various fruits which cover the ground the discoloured foliage of the trees and all the sweet but fading graces of inspiring autumn open the mind to benevolence and dispose it to contemplation I was wandering in a beautiful and romantic country till curiosity began to give way to weariness sitting down on the fragment of a rock overgrown with moss the rustling of the falling leaves the dashing of waters and the hum of the distant city soothed my mind into tranquillity and as I was indulging in the agreeable reveries which the objects around me naturally inspired I was insensibly overcome by sleep I immediately fancied myself in a vast extended plain in the middle of which arose a mountain whose height surpassed any of my previous conceptions it was covered with a multitude of people chiefly youth many of whom pressed forwards with the liveliest expressions of ardour in their countenance though the way was in many places steep and difficult I observed that those who had just begun to climb the hill thought themselves not far from the top but as they proceeded new hills were continually rising to their view till the mountain at length appeared to lose itself in the clouds as I was gazing on these things with astonishment my good genius suddenly appeared the mountain before thee said he is the Hill of Science on the top is the temple of Truth whose head is above the clouds and a veil of pure light covers her face observe the progress of her votaries be silent and attentive I saw that the only regular approach to the mountain was by a gate called the Gate of Languages it was kept by a woman of a pensive and thoughtful appearance whose lips were continually moving as if she repeated something to herself her name was Memory on entering this first enclosure I was stunned with a confused murmur

of jarring voices and dissonant sounds which increased upon me to such a degree that I was utterly confounded and could compare the noise to nothing but the confusion of tongues at Babel after contemplating these things I turned my eyes towards the top of the mountain where the air was always pure and exhilarating where the path was shaded with laurels and other evergreens and the effulgence which beamed from the face of the goddess seemed to shed a glory round her votaries happy said I are those who are permitted to ascend the mountain while I was pronouncing this exclamation with uncommon ardour I saw standing beside me a form of diviner features and a more benign radiance happier said she are those whom Virtue conducts to the mansions of Content what said I does Virtue then reside in the vale I am found said she in the vale and I illuminate the mountain I cheer the cottager at his toil and inspire the sage at his meditation I mingle in the crowd of cities and bless the hermit in his cell I have a temple in every heart that owns my influence and to him that wishes for me I am already present Science may raise you to eminence but I alone can guide to felicity while the goddess was thus speaking I stretched out my arms towards her with a vehemence which broke my slumbers the chill dews were falling around me and the shades of evening stretched over the landscape I hastened homeward and resigned the night to silence and meditation.

DICTATION.

26TH EXERCISE.

I. Write to dictation the following narrative, inserting the points and capital letters, and forming the paragraphs.

Edward III., after the battle of Cressy, laid siege to Calais. He had fortified his camp in so impregnable a manner, that all the efforts of France proved ineffectual to raise the siege or throw succors into the city. The citizens, under Count Vienna, their gallant governor, made an admirable defence. France had now put the sickle into her second harvest, since Edward, with his victorious army, sat down before the town. The eyes of all Europe were intent on the issue. At length, famine did more for Edward than arms. After suffering the most dreadful calamities, they resolved to attempt the enemy's camp. They boldly sallied forth; the English joined battle; and, after a long and desperate engagement, Count Vienne was taken prisoner, and the citizens who survived the slaughter retired within their gates.

The command now devolving upon Eustace St. Pierre, a man of mean birth, but of exalted virtue, he offered to capitulate with Edward, provided he permitted them to depart with life and liberty. Edward, to avoid the imputation of cruelty, consented

to spare the inhabitants, provided they delivered up to him six of their principal citizens with halters about the necks, as victims of atonement for that spirit of rebellion with which they had inflamed the people.

When his messenger Sir Walter Mauny delivered the terms, consternation and pale dismay were impressed on every countenance. To a long and dead silence, deep sighs and groans succeeded, till Eustace St. Pierre, ascending an eminence, thus addressed the assembly: "My friends, we are brought to great straits this day. Is there any expedient left whereby we may avoid the guilt and infamy of delivering up those who have suffered every misery with you, or the desolation and horror of a sacked city? There is, my friends; there is one expedient left! Is there any here to whom virtue is dearer than life? Let him offer himself an oblation for the safety of his people. He shall not fail of a blessed approbation from that Power who offered up his only Son for the salvation of mankind."

He spoke; but a universal silence ensued. Each man looked around for the example of that virtue and magnanimity which all wished to approve in themselves, though they wanted the resolution. At length St. Pierre resumed: "I doubt not that there are many here more zealous of this martyrdom than I can be; though the station to which I am raised by the captivity of Lord Vienne invests me with the right to be the first in giving up my life for your sakes. I give it freely; I give it cheerfully. Who comes next?" "Your son," exclaimed a youth not yet come to maturity. "Ah! my child!" cried St. Pierre; "I am then twice sacrificed. But no; thy years are few, but full, my son. The victim of virtue has reached the utmost purpose and goal of mortality! Who next, my friends? This is the hour of heroes." "Your kinsman," cried John de Aire. "Your kinsman," cried James Wissant. "Your kinsman," cried Peter Wissant. "Ah!" exclaimed Sir Walter Mauny, bursting into tears, "why was not I a citizen of Calais?" The sixth victim was still wanting, but was quickly supplied by lot from numbers who were now emulous of so ennobling an example.

The keys of the city were then delivered to Sir Walter. He took the six prisoners into his custody; then ordered the gates to be opened, and gave charge to his attendants to conduct the remaining citizens with their families through the camp of the English. Before they departed, however, they desired permission to take the last adieu of their deliverers. What a parting! What a scene! They crowded about St. Pierre and his fellow-prisoners. They embraced; they clung around; they fell prostrate before them; they groaned; they wept aloud; and the joint clamour of their mourning passed the gates of the city, and was heard throughout the English camp.

CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES TO ILLUSTRATE PUNCTUATION.

27TH EXERCISE.

1. Write six sentences in each of which a comma is required.
2. Write six sentences in each of which two commas are required.
3. Write six sentences in each of which three commas are required.
4. Write six sentences in each of which four commas are required.
5. Write six sentences in each of which a semicolon is required.
6. Write six sentences in each of which two semicolons are required.
7. Write six sentences in each of which a colon is required.
8. Write six sentences in each of which a point of interrogation is required.
9. Write six sentences in each of which a point of exclamation is required.
10. Write from memory the Lord's Prayer, inserting the points.

SIMPLE NARRATIVE.

28TH EXERCISE.

FABLES.

Write Fables from the following heads :

1. THE WOLF AND THE LAMB.

The meeting—the stream—the quarrel—the result—the moral.

2. THE FOX AND THE GRAPES.

The vineyard—the grapes—the fox—the disappointment—the moral.

3. THE JACKDAW IN BORROWED FEATHERS.

The discontent—the borrowed feathers—the discovery—the result—the moral.

4. THE FARMER AND HIS SONS.

The death bed—the sons—the treasure—the field—the produce—the profit—the moral.

5. MERCURY AND THE AXE.

The carpenter—the axe—the river—the petition—the honesty—the reward—the second carpenter—the dishonesty—the disappointment—the moral.

29TH EXERCISE.

STORIES.

Write Stories from the following heads :

RESPECT DUE TO OLD AGE.

Athens—the play—the old man—the young Athenians—the invitation—the jest—the ridicule—the retreat—the Lacedemonians—the respect—the compunction—the applause—the exclamation.

1. BRUCE AND THE SPIDER.

The hovel—the Bruce—the spider—the attempts—the failures—the comparison—the success—the determination—the moral.

2. SIR PHILIP SIDNEY AND THE WOUNDED SOLDIER.

The battle—the wound—the removal—the flagon—the soldier—the self-denial—the generosity.

3. MUNGO PARK IN THE DESERT.

The desert—the robbers—the despair—the flower—the reflection—the determination—the relief.

4. CAMILLUS AND THE SCHOOLMASTER.

Camillus—the Falisci—the siege—the treachery of the schoolmaster—the nobleness of the Roman—the rebuke—the punishment—the result.

5. RICHARD AND THE MINSTREL.

Richard I.—the Holy Land—the truce—the return—the disguise—the capture—the imprisonment—the minstrel—the search—the castle—the song—the response—the discovery—the release.

30TH EXERCISE.

NARRATIVES.

Construct simple narratives from the following heads.

1. THE LION.

Where found—appearance—mane—claws—strength—courage—roar—habits—disposition—anecdote.

2. THE ELEPHANT.

Where found—size—appearance—trunk—strength—food—habits—docility—use—anecdote.

3. THE REINDEER.

Where found—size—appearance—horns—hoof—food—use as a horse—cow—sheep—docility—wonderful adaptation to the countries in which found.

4. THE BEAVER.

Where found—size—appearance—tail—feet—teeth—society of beavers—number—habitation—wonderful instinct displayed in its situation—construction—the dam—the different apartments—the store house—value of the beaver.

5. THE EAGLE.

Largest species—where found—length—breadth—beak—talons—eye—nest—food—strength—anecdote.

6. THE OAK.

Countries in which found—height—circumference—age—durability—strength—principal use—the fruit—the bark.

7. DESTRUCTION OF PHARAOH

The escape—the route—the guide—the Red Sea—the encampment—the pursuit—the terror—the miraculous passage—the infatuation—the destruction.

31ST EXERCISE.

SIMPLE NARRATIVES FROM MEMORY.

Give orally, then write, the substance of the following parables.

1. The Ten Virgins. 2. The Good Samaritan. 3. The Prodigal Son. 4. The Rich Man and Lazarus. 5. The Unjust Judge. 6. The Worldly Man. 7. The Unmerciful Servant. 8. The Talents. 9. The Labourers Hired. 10. The Wedding Garment.

Give orally, then write, the substance of the following stories.

1. The Farmer and the Lawyer. 2. The Old Man and his Ass. 3. The Boy who cried "Wolf." 4. The Robber Sparrow and the Boy. 5. Sinbad and the Whale. 6. Alfred and the Cakes. 7. Canute and the Waves. 8. Frederick the Great and the Miller. 9. Mungo Park and the Negress. 10. The Portuguese Brothers.

Give orally, then write, the substance of daily lesson.

Give orally, then write, a short account of yesterday's employment of time.

32ND EXERCISE.

CONSTRUCTION OF SIMPLE NARRATIVE.

Write a short account of the following objects, describing their construction, materials, form, and use.

A Scythe.	A Cart.	A Carriage.	A Railroad.
A Plough.	A Penknife.	A Balloon.	A Watch.
A Harrow.	An Umbrella.	A Steamboat.	A Bridge.

Write a short account of the following operations.

Sowing.	Hay-making.	Brewing.	Book-binding.
Ploughing.	Thrashing.	Baking.	Engraving.
Reaping.	Malting.	Printing.	Dyeing.

Write a short account of the process of making the following substances.

Flour.	Salt.	Paper.	Sealing-wax.
Butter.	Soap.	Ink.	Earthenware.
Cheese.	Glass.	Gas.	Glue.

33RD EXERCISE.

FORMATION OF HEADS FOR SIMPLE NARRATIVE.

Reduce each of the preceding narratives, when written, into heads, suggestive of the contents, thus:—

The Crow and the Pitcher.

A crow, ready to die with thirst, flew with joy to a pitcher which he held at some distance. When he came to it, he found water, indeed, but so near the bottom, that, with all his stooping and straining, he could not reach it. He then endeavoured to overturn the pitcher; but his strength was not sufficient for this. At last observing some pebbles near the place, he cast them one by one into the pitcher, and thus, by degrees, raised up the water to the brim, and satisfied his thirst.

MORAL.—Many things which cannot be effected by strength, may be easily accomplished by a little ingenuity.

Heads.

The crow—the thirst—the pitcher—the disappointment—the attempt—the failure—the contrivance—the success—the moral.
The teacher supply suitable narratives.

34TH EXERCISE.

PARAPHRASE OF POETICAL PASSAGES INTO PROSE NARRATIVE.

Paraphrase the following poetical passages into prose narrative.

The Ant and the Caterpillar.

As an Ant, of his talents superiorly vain,
Was trotting, with consequence, over the plain,
A Worm, in his progress remarkably slow,

Cried: "Bless your good worship wherever you go!
 I hope your great mightiness won't take it ill,
 I pay my respects with a hearty good-will."
 With a look of contempt, and impertinent pride,
 "Begone, you vile reptile!" his antship replied:
 "Go—go, and lament your contemptible state.
 But first, look at me; see my limbs how complete;
 I guide all my motions with freedom and ease,
 Run backward and forward, and turn when I please.
 Of nature (grown weary) you shocking essay!
 I spurn you thus from me—crawl out of my way."

The reptile insulted, and vexed to the soul,
 Crept onwards, and hid himself close in his hole;
 But nature, determined to end his distress,
 Soon sent him abroad in a Butterfly's dress.

Ere long the proud Ant, as repassing the road
 (Fatigued from the harvest, and tugging his load),
 The beau on a violet-bank he beheld,
 Whose vesture in glory a monarch's excelled;
 His plumage expanded—'twas rare to behold
 So lovely a mixture of purple and gold.

The Ant, quite amazed at a figure so gay,
 Bowed low with respect, and was trudging away.
 "Stop friend," says the Butterfly; "don't be surprised:
 I once was the reptile you spurned and despised;
 But now I can mount; in the sunbeams I play,
 While you must for ever drudge on in your way."

The selections in Poetry, page 267 to 282, will
 furnish suitable material for further exercises of this
 kind.

ON FIGURES.

(SEE PAGE 251 to 256.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES ON FIGURES.

What is meant by Figures in the use of Language! How many
 kinds of Figures are there? What is a figure of etymology?
 Enumerate the eight different kinds mentioned. Define and give
 an example of each. What is a figure of Syntax? Enumerate
 the five different kinds mentioned. Define and give an example
 of each. What is meant by a figure of Rhetoric? Enumerate the
 fifteen mentioned. Define and give, select, or refer to an example
 of each. Repeat the eight particulars mentioned under the head
 of Poetic Science, and give an example illustrative of each.

DISTINCTION OF FIGURES.

35TH EXERCISE.

FIGURES OF ARRANGEMENT.

Write from the following paragraph the two examples of Interrogation; the two of Exclamation; of Hyperbaton or Transposition; of Pleonasm of Antithesis, and the example of Climax.

Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth. The prodigal robs his heir; the miser robs himself. Who shall separate us from the love of God? It is highly criminal to bind a Roman citizen; to scourge him is enormous guilt; to kill him is almost parricide; but by what name shall I designate the crucifying of him? Then shook the hills, with thunder riven. Shall a man be more pure than his Maker? He heareth it with his ears, and understaudent it with his heart. How majestic are the starry heavens! The wise man considers what he wants; and the fool what he abounds in. I saw it with these eyes. O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God!

36TH EXERCISE.

FIGURES OF CONVERSION OR TROPES.

Write from the following paragraph the two examples of Simile; the two of Metaphor; of Allegory; of Metonymy; of Synecdoche; of Hyperbole; of Personification; of Apostrophe; of Irony.

The sword has laid waste many a fertile tract of country. Moist, bright, and green, the landscape laughs around. Love swells like the Solway, but ebbs like its tide. Saul hath slain his thousands, and David his ten thousands. I am the true vine. Thou art sounding on, thou mighty sea, for ever and the same! Mine eyes run down rivers of water. Thou that destroyest the temple, and buildest it up in three days, save thyself. The groves poured forth their music. O Jonathan! thou wast slain in thine high places! No useless coffin enclosed his breast. The mountains and the hills shall break forth before you into singing, and all the trees of the field shall clap their hands. The clouds were tinged with gold. The cotton manufacture employs a great number of hands. The righteous shall flourish as the palm tree. No doubt but ye are the people, and wisdom shall die with you. And now also the axe is laid unto the root of the trees: therefore every tree which bringeth not forth good fruit is hewn down and cast into the fire.

37TH EXERCISE.

FIGURES OF ARRANGEMENT.

Write from Scripture three examples of Interrogation; three of Exclamation; of Transposition; of Pleonasm; of Antithesis; of Climax.

38TH EXERCISE.

FIGURES OF CONVERSION OR TROPES.

Write from Scripture, or select from any source three examples of Simile; three of Metaphor; of Allegory; of Metonymy; of Synecdoche; of Hyperbole; of Personification; of Apostrophe; of Irony.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES ON FIGURES.

39TH EXERCISE.

Write a figurative expression for each of the following words.

EXAMPLE: Youth—the morning of life.

Sun.	Thunder.	Sea	Sleep.
Moon.	Lightning.	Night.	Death.
Stars.	Clouds.	Sky.	Grave.

40TH EXERCISE.

Write sentences with a metaphorical application of each of the following words.

EXAMPLE.

PATH—The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

Fruit.	Dark.	Climb.	Quickness.
Pain.	Deep.	Build.	Sweetness.
Pillar.	Strong.	Burn.	Coolness.

41ST EXERCISE.

1. Write the first twelve Similes in the first book of Milton.
2. Write the first twelve examples of Personification in Thomson's Season of Summer.

42ND EXERCISE.

Distinguish the Figures in any passages of Poetry that may be selected, thus :

EXAMPLE.

Sun of the sleepless ! melancholy star !
 Whose tearful beam shines tremulously far ;
 That show'st the darkness thou canst not dispel ;
 How like thou art to joy remembered well !
 So memory gleams, the light of other days,
 That shines, but warms not with its powerless rays :
 A night beam Sorrow watches to behold,
 Distinct, but distant ; clear, but oh ! how cold !

FIGURES.

The first four lines—*apostrophe*. “Sun”—*metaphor*. “Melancholy star”—*personification*. “Tearful beam”—*personification*. “How like thou art to joy remembered well!”—*simile*. “So memory gleams, the light of other days, that shines, but warms not with its powerless rays”—*comparison*. “Gleams”—*metaphor*. “The light of other days”—*metaphor*. “Shines”—*metaphor*. “Shines, but warms not”—*antithesis*. “Rays”—*metaphor*. “Night beam”—*metaphor*. “Sorrow”—*personification*. “Distinct, but distant ; clear, but oh ! how cold !”—*antithesis*.

43RD EXERCISE.

Convert the following figurative expressions into plain language :

Example—He bore away the palm.

Changed—He obtained the prize.

How beautiful is night ! The clouds of adversity soon pass away. Who is like unto thee, O God, in Heaven above, or in the earth beneath ! He was one of the brightest luminaries of the age. Vain is the tree of knowledge without fruits. The waves rose to Heaven. She shed a flood of tears. The Emperor Caligula assumed the purple on the death of Tiberius. Have you read Pope ? Nature in spring is covered with a robe of light green. Night spreads her sable mantle over the earth. The vessel ploughs the deep. Alfred was a shining light in the midst of darkness. The Cross will at last triumph over the Crescent.

ON ILLUSTRATIONS.

44TH EXERCISE.

EMBLEMS.

Write a short illustration of the following emblems :

Winter—Old age.
 River—Human life.
 Sleep—Death.

Flower—Man.
 Light—Knowledge.
 Evening—Autumn.

45TH EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the following Scripture emblems :

1. The Righteous shall flourish as the Palm Tree.
2. The Harvest is the End of the World.
3. The Kingdom of Heaven is like unto a grain of Mustard Seed.
4. I (Christ) am the light of the World.
5. Ye (Christians) are the Salt of the Earth.
6. Wicked men are like the troubled Sea.

46TH EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the following proverbs :

1. Better late than never.
2. Look before you leap.
3. A friend in need is a friend indeed.
4. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
5. Many a slip between the cup and the lip.
6. Empty vessels make the most noise.
7. No rose without a thorn.
8. Strike while the iron is hot.
9. Prevention is better than cure.
10. A small spark makes a great fire.
11. Where there is a will there is a way.
12. The burnt child dreads the fire.

47TH EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the following precepts :

1. Let not the sun go down upon your wrath.
2. Honor yourself, and you will be honored.
3. Do as you would be done by.
4. Avoid extremes.
5. Deliberate slowly, execute promptly.
6. Never put off till to-morrow what can be done to-day.
7. Be just before you are generous.

48TH EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the analogies between the following subjects :

1. A Plant and an Animal.
2. A Bird and a Fish.
3. A Seed and an Egg.
4. A Bee-hive and a Social Community.

49TH EXERCISE.

Write a short illustration of the distinctions between the following subjects :

1. Reason and Interest.
2. A plant and an animal.
3. Courage and Rashness.

50TH EXERCISE

Write a short illustration of the contrast between the following subjects :

1. Peace and War.
2. Civilization and Barbarism.
3. Industry and Idleness.
4. Selfishness and Benevolence.

DESCRIPTIVE EXERCISES.

51st EXERCISE.

Write a short description of the following scenes:

1. The Offering of Isaac. 2. Nature in Autumn. 3. Passage of the Red Sea. 4. A Moonlight Scene. 5. The Destruction of the First Born of Egypt.

52nd EXERCISE.

Write a short outline or description of the subject of each of the following poems:

1. Pope's "Temple of Fame." 2. Goldsmith's "Deserted Village." 3. Scott's "Lady of the Lake." Shakespeare's play of the "Tempest." 5. Milton's "Comus."

EPISTOLARY EXERCISES.

53rd EXERCISE.

Write the following letters:

1. Write to a friend at a distance. 2. To a friend who is going abroad. 3. Write to a friend, giving an account of a summer excursion. 4. Write to a business house, with a view of opening a correspondence. 5. The reply to the last. 6. A letter containing an order for goods. 7. Announcing that certain goods ordered have been shipped. 8. Reply to the last. 9. From a tradesman to another, for money. 10. Application to a merchant, soliciting a situation as clerk.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

54th EXERCISE.

Write a short account of the lives of the following eminent characters:

1. John Milton. 2. Martin Luther. 3. Christopher Columbus. 4. Sir Isaac Newton. 5. John Howard. 6. Oliver Goldsmith. 7. Benjamin Franklin. 8. Queen Elizabeth. 9. Lord Palmerston. 10. Richard Cobden. 11. Prince Albert.

HISTORICAL SKETCHES.

55th EXERCISE.

Write a short account of the following subjects connected with English history:

1. The Wars of the Roses. 2. The Norman Conquest. 3. The Spanish Armada. 4. Civil Wars in the reign of Charles I.

56TH EXERCISE.

Write a short account of the following subjects, connected with Roman and Grecian history :

1. Hannibal's Campaign in Italy. 2. The Jugurthine War. 3. The Reign of Augustus Cæsar. 4. Battle of Marathon. 5. Leonidas at the Pass of Thermopylæ. 6. The Thirty Tyrants. 7. Retreat of the Ten Thousand.

IMAGINATIVE EXERCISES.

57TH EXERCISE.

Write an imaginary speech for each of the following occasions :

1. Pupils on Parting with a Teacher. 2. A Graduate on leaving College. 3. Harold at the Battle of Hastings. 4. Bruce at Bannockburn. 5. To a Missionary on his Departure to labor among the Hæthen.

SUBJECTS FOR REASONING.

58TH EXERCISE.

Write a short statement of the arguments in support of the following conclusions, &c. :

1. The Earth is round. 2. The Christian Sabbath a Divine Institution. 3. Our Duty and Interest are inseparable. 4. Falsehood and Deception incompatible with true greatness of character. 5. It is as much the Duty and Interest of every country to provide and endow Institutions for the superior Education of Girls, as for the superior Education of Boys.

THEMES.

A theme is an exercise in which the subject is treated according to a set of Heads methodically arranged. In this respect it differs from an essay, wherein the writer is at liberty to follow his own inclination as to the arrangement of his ideas.

Some systematic arrangement must be observed, but the nature of the Theme should determine what method in any particular case, would be most suitable. The following methods are given as examples :

FIRST METHOD.

1. Definition. 2. Origin and Cause. 3. Antiquity or Novelty. 4. Universality or Locality. 5. Effect. 6. Contrast. 7. Conclusion.

SECOND METHOD.

1. Introduction. 2. Definition. 3. Nature. 4. Operation and Effects. 5. Examples. 6. Application.

MISCELLANEOUS SUBJECTS FOR THEMES.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. On Attention, | 19. " Greatness, true |
| 2. " Anger, | 20. " Genius, |
| 3. " Biography, | 21. " Habit, |
| 4. " Charity, | 22. Knowledge is power, |
| 5. " Compassion, | 23. Progress of Error, |
| 6. " Conscience, | 24. Progress of Truth, |
| 7. " Carelessness, | 25. Government of the Tongue, |
| 8. " Curiosity, | 26. " of the Temper, |
| 9. " Cheerfulness, | 27. " of the Affections, |
| 10. " Contentment, | 28. Love of Country, |
| 11. " Diligence, | 29. The Power of Association, |
| 12. " Duplicity, | 30. The Immortality of the Son, |
| 13. " Early Rising, | 31. The Uses of Knowledge, |
| 14. " Envy, | 32. Power of Conscience, |
| 15. " Friendship, | 33. The Power of Habit, |
| 16. " Fear, | 34. Life is Short, |
| 17. " Forgiveness, | 35. Miseries of Idleness, |
| 18. " Government, | 36. Never too old to Learn, |

LIST OF BOOKS TO BE CONSULTED BY STUDENTS.

For the guidance of those who wish to follow up the study of the English Language, the following list of Text Books is appended:

Latham's Hand Book of the English Language.
 Fowler's English Grammar (Revised and Enlarged)
 Trench's Study of Words.
 Whateley's English Synonymes.
 Alford's Queen's English.
 Trench's English Past and Present.
 Jamieson's Grammar of Rhetoric, &c.
 Whateley's Rhetoric.
 Craik's History of English Language and Literature.
 Collier's English Literature.
 Kame's Elements of Criticism.
 Alison on Taste.
 Whateley's Lessons in Reasoning.
 Whateley's Logic.
 Thomson's Outlines of the Laws of Thought.
 Anderson's English Composition.
 Vandenhoff's Art of Eloquence.

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