English Grammar

Revised Edition
PREFACE

The merits of Kerney's Abridgment of Murray's English Grammar account for the many editions that have been offered to the public. The present retains all these advantages, and adds materially to their number. These improvements can not be appreciated, however, without a comparison of this with the edition immediately preceding.

The former editions defined English Grammar as the "Art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety." As far as it goes, this is correct, but it is not complete, for grammar is not only an art, but a science; that is, it has a definite subject matter, a body of classified knowledge and an efficient method. Moreover, it is believed that the word "propriety," in the old definition, does not suggest to the beginner an idea so distinct as does the more familiar term, correctly. This explanation indicates the nature of some of the improvements.

Other alterations will appear from an examination of the section which treats of Orthography. In that part it will be observed that exercises in "false orthography" have been removed from a miscellaneous Appendix and placed in a division of the Grammar to which logically they belong. This section was further improved by rewriting the table of vowel sounds, after a comparison with our best dictionary, the unfinished work of Murray. The table of consonant sounds was adopted from The English Language, a
scholarly work by Professor Meiklejohn. In brief, this part of the Grammar has been rearranged and made to include the results of the latest research.

In the division on Etymology many changes have been made. Several parts of speech have been defined with more simplicity and greater precision. Except for omitting the solemn style, preferred by the Quaker principles of Murray, the conjugations stand as in the old edition. While we are conscious of a considerable difference in meaning between *I shall be* and *I will be*, we have given, as for generations others have given, what may be called the traditional form, *I shall* or *will be*.

The section on Grammatical Analysis has been considerably enlarged, and two methods have been offered. This, however, should produce no confusion, for they can easily be harmonized by any intelligent teacher. If there is any objection to the method of analysis by *diagram*, that part may be omitted. The importance of analysis being universally recognized, it may be objected that even this more ample treatment is still somewhat meagre. This criticism is of value only in those rare cases in which an instructor is not intelligent enough either to find or invent constructions illustrating those principles that he desires to teach. In so extreme a case no grammar will be of much assistance. Every sentence that has been *parsed* can be *analyzed* also, and these, together with the exercises in *false syntax*, will afford material enough to impart all the essentials of grammar.

Modifications and additions have changed considerably the section on Versification, and, to a slighter
extent, that part which discusses the principles of prose composition.

This little volume is not designed to be comprehensive; still less is its purpose to invade the domain of philology. It includes, however, as much grammatical information as most intelligent people have in solution. Further to perfect the pupil in this science, we would recommend not a supplementary course in a more complete grammar, but scientific instruction in rhetoric, a generous amount of good reading and as much linguistic training as circumstances will permit. It is only by the effort to translate his own language into another that the student will ever acquire a critical knowledge of English. To take up the study of other tongues the careful use of this book will afford a sufficient foundation. It will also serve as an adequate introduction to the study of composition and rhetoric.

C. H. McC.

Washington, D. C.,
January 8, 1911.
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English Grammar is the science that tells us how to speak and write the English language correctly. It considers every part of language from the nature of the alphabet to the principles of sentence construction.

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

PART I.
ORTHOGRAPHY

CHAPTER I.

1. Orthography, the first part of grammar, treats of letters, syllables, separate words and spelling. Language is made up of words, and they are composed of letters.

A letter is a character or mark that stands for one or more of the elementary sounds of language.

The letters of the English language, called the Alphabet, are twenty-six in number.

These letters represent certain articulate sounds, the elements of the language. An articulate sound is a sound of the human voice formed by the organs of speech.

1. What is English Grammar? How is it divided? Of what does Orthography treat? What is a letter? What are they called? What are these letters? What is an articulate sound?
2. Letters are divided into *vowels* and *consonants*.

A vowel, from the old French *vouel*, is an articulate sound that can be perfectly uttered by itself.

The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*. *W* and *y* are consonants when they begin a word or syllable, but in every other situation they are vowels.

A consonant, Lat. *con* with; *sono* sound, is an articulate sound that cannot be perfectly uttered without the aid of a vowel: as *b, d, f, l*. It is clear that *b* and *d* cannot be pronounced without the assistance of the vowel *e*, and that *f* and *l* begin with the short sound of *e*.

2. How are letters divided? What is a vowel? What is said of *w* and *y*? What is a consonant?
Note.—The following is a list of the Roman, Italic and Old English characters. The Old English letters were in use as late as the fifteenth century.

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A perfect alphabet of any language would contain a number of letters, precisely equal to the number of elementary sounds belonging to that language, and each simple sound would be represented by its own distinct character. This, however, is far from being the state of the English alphabet. In our language we have forty-three elementary sounds, and, therefore, should have an alphabet containing forty-three letters. As we have only twenty-six letters, some of them must have more than one simple sound.

The following table represents most of the vowel sounds:

A has eight simple sounds—

1. ā, as in āle, fāte.  5. ā, as in ārm, ālms.
2. ā, as in sen-āte, prefāce. 6. ā, as in āsk, grāss.
3. ā, as in cāre, pārent 7. ā, as in ānul, mad'ām.
4. ā, as in ām, āt. 8. a, as in any=ē.

E has five sounds—

1. The long ē, as in mē, hēre, ēve.
2. The short ē, as in mēt, lēt, ēnd.
3. ē, as in dē-pend', sē-renē'.
4. ē, as in e-ver, cin'-dēr.
5. ē, as in re'cēnt.
6. e, as in sergeant = ā.

I has four sounds—

1. The long ī, as in pīne, īle. 3. ī, as in po-līce.
2. The short ī, as in pīn, sīn. 4. ī, as in sir.

O has seven sounds—

1. ō, as in nōte, bōld. 5. ō, as in sōft, dōg.
2. ō, as in tō-vac'co. 6. ō, as in cōn-nect', cōm-bine'.
3. ō, as in orb, lōrd. 7. o, as in prove.
4. ō, as in ōdd, fōr'-est.

U has seven sounds—

1. ū, as in ūsc, dūty. 5. u, as in busy = ī.
2. ū, as in ūrn. 6. u, as in pull.
3. ū, as in ūp, stūdy. 7. u, as in rude = oo in rood.
4. ū, as in cīr'-cūs.
From an examination of this table, it will be seen that the five vowels alone have thirty-one simple sounds. The sound of *i* in *police*, however, is the same as that of *e* in *me*, and *o* in *prove* is the same as *u* in *rude*. Except the sound of *i* in *pique*, the vowel *y* has all the sounds of *i*.

**CONSONANT SOUNDS.**

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The letters *c, q, x, w* and *y* are superfluous letters; *k* represents many of the sounds of *c*, and *s* represents still other sounds of *c*. The sounds of *x* may be denoted by *gs* or *ks*, etc. This shows that our alphabet is *redundant*; that is, it has some letters that are not needed. As we have not one letter for each of the forty-three elementary sounds, it is also *defective*.

**Note.**—The table of consonant sounds reproduced here is taken from Melklejohn's valuable work, *The English Language*. 
3. CONSONANTS are divided into mutes and semi-vowels. The mutes can not be sounded at all without the aid of a vowel. They are b, p, d, t, k, with c and g hard. The semi-vowels have an imperfect sound of themselves. They are f, l, m, n, r, s, v, z, x, with c and g soft. In the preceding table these are mostly classed as nasals and spirants.

Four of the semi-vowels, namely, l, m, n, r, are also called liquids, from their readily uniting with other consonants, and flowing, as it were, into their sounds. A further subdivision of the consonants is indicated in the table.

4. A diphthong is the union of two vowels, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice: as ea in beat, ou in sound, oi in boil.

A triphthong is the union of three vowels, pronounced in like manner: eau in beauty, iew in view.

A proper diphthong is that in which both the vowels are sounded: as oi in voice, ou in ounce. An improper diphthong has but one of the vowels sounded: ea in eagle, oa in boat.

Note.—A more exact definition of a vowel and a consonant may be given in the following words: A vowel is a simple, articulate sound, perfect in itself, and formed by a continual effusion of the breath, without any alteration in the position of the mouth, or any motion of the organs of speech, from the moment the vocal sound begins until it ends.

A consonant is a simple, articulate sound, imperfect in itself, but which, joined to a vowel, forms a complete sound, by a particular motion of the organs of speech. That w and y are consonants, when used as initials, appears evident from their not admitting the indefinite article an before them; as it would be improper to say, an walnut, an yard; and from their following a vowel, without any difficulty of

3. How are consonants divided? What is said of the mutes, and what are they? What have the semi-vowels, and what are they? How are four of the semi-vowels distinguished, and why?

4. What is a diphthong? What is a triphthong? What is a proper diphthong? What is an improper diphthong?
utterance; as, frosty winter, rosy youth. That they are vowels in other situations is evident from their regularly taking the sound of other vowels; as w has the exact sound of u in saw, few, new, etc., and y that of i in hymn, fly, etc. Consonants are named from the organs of speech chiefly employed in pronouncing them, as labial, dental, guttural or nasal. The labials are those formed by the lips, as p, b, f, v. The dentals are those formed by the teeth, as t, d, s, z and g soft. The guttural are formed from the throat, as k, g, c. The nasal are pronounced through the nose, as m, n. The mutes are divided into pure and impure. The pure are those whose sounds can not be at all prolonged, as k, p, t. The impure are those whose sounds may be continued, though for a very short space, as b, d, g. The semi-vowels may be subdivided into vocal and aspirated. The vocal are those formed by the voice; they are l, m, n, r, v, w, y, z. The aspirated are formed by the breath; they are j, h, s, th and sh. The sound of c is hard before a, o, u, r, t and l, as cart, cottage, curious, craft, cloth, etc., and when it ends a syllable, as victim, etc.; it has the soft sound before e, i and y, as face, civil, cymbal, mercy, etc. G is hard before a, o, u, l and r, as game, gone, gull, glory, grandeur; and also at the end of words, as bag, nag, dog; but it has generally the soft sound before e, i and y, as genius, ginger, Egypt.

EXERCISE.

Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

Vital spark of heavenly flame,
Quit, oh! quit this mortal frame,
Trembling, hoping, lingering, flying,
Oh! the pain, the bliss of dying!

SPELLING must be learned not wholly from rules, though they are of considerable value, but from observation in reading, from the dictionary, and, where spelling is taught formally, from the spelling book.

1. Point out the vowels. Point out the consonants. Point out the words in which w and y are vowels. In what words are they consonants, and why?
2. Point out the mutes. Point out the semi-vowels.
Rules for Spelling and Exercises in False Orthography.

Rule 1.—Monosyllables ending in f, l, or s, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant: as staff, mill, pass, &c. The chief exceptions are of, if, as, is, has, was, gas, yes, his, this, us, clef, sal, bul, pus and thus.

It is no great merit to spel properly; but a great defect to do it incorrectly.

Leaning on the top of his staf, Jacob worshiped his Creator.

We may place too little, as well as too much stres upon dreams.

Our manners should be neither gros, nor excessively ref-ined.

Rule 2.—Monosyllables ending in any consonant but f, l or s, and preceded by a single vowel, never double the final consonant; excepting add, ebb, butt, egg, odd, err, inn, purr, buzz, and several others.

A carr signifies a chariot of war, or a small carriage of burden.

In the names of druggs and plants, the mistake in a word may endanger life.

The finn of a fish is the limb by which he balances his body, and moves in the water.

Many a trapp is laid to ensnare the feet of youth.

Rule 3.—Words ending in y, preceded by a consonant, form the plurals of nouns, the persons of verbs, verbal nouns, past participles, comparatives and superlatives, by changing y into i: as spy, spies; I carry, thou carriest; he carrieth or carries; carrier, carried; happy, happier, happiest.

The present participle in ing retains the y; that i may not be doubled: as carry, carrying; bury, burying, &c.

But y, preceded by a vowel, in such instances as the above, is not changed: as boy, boys; I cloy, he cloys,
cloyed, &c.; except in lay, pay and say; from which are formed laid, paid and said; and their compounds, unpaid, unsaid, &c.

We should subject our fancys to the government of reason.
If thou art seeking for the living amongst the dead, thou wearyest thyself in vain.
If we have denied ourselves sinful pleasures, we shall be great gainers in the end.

Rule 4.—Words ending in y, preceded by a consonant, upon assuming an additional syllable beginning with a consonant, commonly change y into i: as happy, happily, happiness. But when y is preceded by a vowel, it is very rarely changed in the additional syllable: as coy, cooly; boy, boyish, boyhood; annoy, annoyed, annoyance; joy, joyless, joyful, &c.

It is a great blessing to have a sound mind, uninfluenced by fancyful humors.
Common calamities and common blessings fall heavily upon the envious.
The comelyness of youth are modesty and frankness; of age, condescension and dignity.
It is sinful to indulge in vilification.

Rule 5.—Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant when they take another syllable beginning with a vowel: as wit, witty; thin, thinnish; to abet, an abettor; to begin, a beginner.
But if a diphthong precedes, or the accent is on the preceding syllable, the consonant remains single: as to toil, toiling; to offer, an offering; maid, maiden, &c.

When we bring the lawmaker into contempt, we have in effect annulled his laws.
By defering our repentance, we accumulate our sorrows.
The pupils should be permitted to ask questions.
We all have many faillings and lapses to lament.
The Christian Lawgiver has prohibited many things that the heathen philosophers allowed.
Rule 6.—Words which end in double l and take ness, less, ly, or ful, after them, often omit one l, as fulness, skillless, fully, skilful. The best authorities, however, also write fullness and skillful. The final letter must not be trebled in the derivative.

In that art he was not skillless.

To recommend virtue to others, our lights must shine brightly, not dullly.

Rule 7.—Ness, less, ly and ful, added to words ending with silent e, do not cut it off: as paleness, guileless, closely, peaceful, except in a few words: as duly, awful. See also Rule 8.

The warmth of disputation destroys that sedatness of mind which is necessary to discover truth.

In all our reasonings, our minds should be sincerely employed in the pursuit of truth.

The true worship of God is an important and awful service.

Rule 8.—Ment, added to words ending in silent e, generally preserve the e from elision: as abatement, chastisement, incitement, &c. The words lodgment, judgment, abridgment, acknowledgment, are deviations from the rule.

Like other terminations, it changes y into i, when preceded by a consonant: as, accompany, accompaniment; merry, merriment.

The study of the English language is making daily advancement.

A judicious arrangement of studies facilitates improvement.

Rule 9.—Able and ible, when incorporated into words ending with silent e, almost always cut it off: as blame, blamable; cure, curable; sense, sensible, &c.; but if c or g soft comes before e in the original words, the e is then preserved in words compounded with able: as change, changeable; peace, peaceable, &c.
Every person and thing connected with self, is likely to appear good and desireable in our eyes.
The divine laws are not reverseible by those of men.
Gratitude, is a forceible and active principle in generous minds.
Our natural defects of body are not chargable upon us.

Rule 10.—When ing or ish is added to words ending in silent e, the e is almost universally omitted: as place, placing; lodge, lodging; slave, slavish; prude, prudish.

An obligeing and humble disposition is totally unconnected with a servile and cringing humor.
By solaceing the sorrows of others, the heart is improved, at the same time that our duty is performed.
Labor and expense are lost upon a droneish spirit.
The inadvertencies of youth may be excused, but knaveish tricks should meet with severe reproof.

Rule 11.—In composition words often drop those letters which were superfluous in their simples: as handful, withal, also, chilblain, spoonful.

Love worketh no ill to our neighbor, and is the fulfilling of the law.
That which is sometimes expedient, is not allways so.
We may be hurtfull to others as well by our example, as by inflicting personal injuries.
Where diligence opens the door of the understanding, and impartiality keeps it, truth also finds an entrance and a wellcome.

Exercises in False Orthography.

It may be true, but your story is not convinceing.
To be faithful among the faithless, argues great strength of principal.
Wars are regulated robberies and pyracies.
The piramids of Egypt have stood more than three thousand years.
True happyness is an enemy to pomp and noize.
There is an inseperable connection between piety and virtue.
Many actions have a fair complection, which have not sprung from virtue.

Which way soever we turn ourselves, we are encountered with sensible demonstrations of a Diety.

If we forsake the ways of virtue we can not alledge any color of ignorance, or want of instruction.

Man is incompasseed with dangers innumerable.

War is attended with distresful and desolating effects. It is confessedly the scourge of our angry passions.

The earth is the Lord’s and the fullnes thereof.

The greater our incitments to evil, the greater will be our reward.

We should not incourage persons to do what they beleive to be wrong.

Virtue is placed between two extreams which are equally blameable.

We should continually have the gaol in our view, which would direct us in the race.

It can not be said that we are charitable doners, when our gifts proceed from selfish motives.

Straight is the gait and narrow the way that lead to life eternal.

Integrity leads us strait forward, disdaining all doubleings and crooked paths.

Licenciousness and crimes pave the way to ruin.

Words are the countres of wise men, but the money of fools.

Meekness controuls our angry passions; candor, our se vere judgements.

He is not only a descendent from pious ancesters, but an inheriter too of their virtues.

Verbs are often derived from nouns; as, from salt, to salt; also from adjectives and adverbs; as, length, to lengthen, short, to shorten, forward, to forward. Nouns are derived from adjectives; as, from white, whiteness, good, goodness. Adjectives are derived from nouns: as, from health, healthy, joy, joyful, care, careless. Nouns are also derived from other nouns: as, from king, kingdom, law, lawyer, senate, senator. Adverbs are derived from adjectives: as, from slow, slowly, base, basely, able, ably.
Orthography.

EXERCISE.

Lo, the poor Indian! whose untutored 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.

And thou, who, mindful of the unhonor'd dead,
Doest in these lines their artless tale relate,
By night and lonely contemplation led
To wander in the gloomy walks of fate,
Hark! how the sacred calm that breathes around,
Bids every fierce tumultuous passion cease.

Man, earth, healthy, oak, manhood, earthly,
Toil, careless, child, toilsome, joyful, fruit,
Joy, manful, childish, childhood, sin, kind,
Sinful, lover, kindness, white, fruitful, oaken.

1. Point out the words containing but one syllable. What words contain two or more syllables?

2. Point out the monosyllables; the dissyllables; the trisyllables; the polysyllables.

3. Point out the primitive words in the above section. Point out the derivative words. From what are they derived?

CHAPTER II.

SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

1. A Syllable is a sound, either simple or compound, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and constituting a word, or part of a word: as a, an, ant.

Spelling is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters. A word has as many syllables as it has separate sounds.

2. Words are articulate sounds used by common consent as signs of our ideas. By the form of a word is

1. What is a syllable? What is spelling?

2. What are words?
meant the letters of which it is made up. When we change the word *man* to *men*, we are said to change its form.

A word of one syllable is termed a *Monosyllable*; a word of two syllables, a *Dissyllable*; a word of three syllables, a *Trisyllable*; and a word of four or more syllables, a *Polysyllable*.

3. With respect to their form, all words are divided into primitive, derivative and compound. A primitive word is that which can not be reduced to any simpler word in the language: as, *man*, *good*, *content*.

A derivative word is one which may be reduced to another English word of greater simplicity: as, *manly*, *handful*, *goodness*, *contentment*.

A compound word is one that is made up of two or more simple words: as, *mankind*, *knitting-needle*, *overflow*. Words such as *mankind* and *overflow* are sometimes called permanent compounds.

What is a monosyllable? a dissyllable? a trisyllable? a polysyllable?

3. What are all words? What is a primitive word? What is a derivative word?
PART II.

ETYMOLOGY

CHAPTER I.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

1. Etymology is the second part of Grammar, and treats of the different classes of words, their various modifications and their derivation. We have seen that, according to their form, words are divided into simple, derivative and compound. In other words, we have three classes.

According to the nature of their use in sentences, there are in English nine sorts of words or, as they are commonly called, Parts of Speech, namely, the Article, the Substantive or Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction and the Interjection. In the sentence, He is a man, the term man is a primitive word. This considers its form only. In looking at its use, we see that it is a name, and, therefore, is a noun. Later, we shall see that it could have been used as a verb.

1. An Article is a word prefixed to nouns, to point them out and show how far their signification extends: as a field, a house, an eagle, the woman.

2. A Noun is a name: as London, man, virtue.

Note.—Whatever has a name is a noun: a noun, therefore, may be known by asking the question, Is it the name of a thing? The word noun is more appropriate than substantive,
because it is much more general in its application; the latter in its literal sense, signifies something that has *substance*; the words *idea*, *thought*, *spirit*, *angel*, &c., are not properly substantives, because they contain no substance, nothing that we can hear, taste, feel; but they are nouns, because they are names. Any combination of words that stands for a name is also a noun. To skate is good exercise. The words *to skate*, being the name of a sport, are therefore equivalent to a noun.

3. **An Adjective** is a word added to a noun to express its quality: as an *industrious* man, a *virtuous* woman.

*Note.*—An adjective simply expresses quality, and may be known by its making sense with the addition of the word *thing*: as, a *good* thing, a *bad* thing; or of any particular noun: as, a *wise* man, a *humble* mind, or by answering to the question, what is the quality of the noun? as, a *sweet* apple; what is the quality of the apple? the answer is *sweet*.

4. **A Pronoun** is a *relational* word. Pronouns often take the place of infinitives and clauses. Sometimes they stand for nouns; they also ask questions. It is a mistake to suppose that they were invented “to prevent a too frequent repetition of the noun.” *Who* was *it*? In this brief sentence we have two pronouns, but neither is used to prevent a tiresome repetition of any noun. Of all the parts of speech, the Pronouns are fewest in number, being about thirty-six, and the most comprehensive in application.

Some familiar Pronouns are: *I, thou, he, she, it; we, you, they; who, which, what, that, as, etc.* From these forms we can derive others; for example: from *I* we get *my, mine, me*. It is also compounded with *self*. By declining and compounding the simple Pronouns we get many others.

5. **A Verb** is a word by which we make a statement or ask a question.

3. What is an adjective?
4. What is a pronoun?
5. What is a verb?
Note.—A verb may be also thus defined: a word which expresses first, a state of being: as, to be, to live; or secondly, an action performed by some agent: as, "Washington liberated his country;" or thirdly, the receiving of an action: as, "Washington was loved by his countrymen." A verb may be known by asking the question, "does the word express being, action, or the receiving of an action: if so, it is a verb.

6. An Adverb is a part of speech joined to a verb, an adjective, and sometimes another adverb, to express some quality or circumstance respecting it: as, he reads well; a truly good man; he writes very correctly.

Note.—The adverb may be generally known by its answering to the question, how? as, he reads correctly; how does he read? the answer is correctly. The words, here, there, no, not, how, now, often, justly, yes, why, more, most, are adverbs.

7. A Preposition connects a noun or pronoun with some other word. It is prefixed to a noun or pronoun to make a qualifying phrase. It is not enough to say that a Preposition connects words, for conjunctions do that.

Note.—Prepositions may be generally known by making sense with any of the personal pronouns in the objective case, after them, as, "with him, for her, by them, to you, in you, after them, on it, against me," &c. The distinction between the preposition and the conjunction will be felt at once when we place a conjunction where a preposition is required. The youngest pupil will readily see that there is something wrong with the expression, John went and the town. This is the case of a conjunction doing duty for a preposition. Sense is restored by substituting to for and: John went to the town.

8. A Conjunction is a part of speech used to connect words, clauses or sentences. In the sentence, John and James are happy because they are good, it will be noticed that and connects two nouns; also that because connects a dependent clause and a sentence. And, or and nor are

6. What is an adverb?
7. What is a preposition?
8. What is a conjunction?
frequently used to connect single words. *Because, but, lest, though, unless* and *yet* are frequently used.

9. **An Interjection** is a word used to express some passion or emotion of the speaker: as “*O* virtue! how amiable thou art!” “*Alas!* I fear;” “*Ah* me!”

*Note.—* The parts of speech have been variously defined and named by different grammarians. Some have enumerated ten, making the *participle* a distinct part; others eight, excluding the participle, and ranking the adjective under the noun; others again four, and some only two, the noun and the verb. We have followed those authors who appear to have given them the most natural and intelligible distribution.

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**CHAPTER II.**

**THE ARTICLES.**

1. **An Article** is a word prefixed to a noun to point it out and show how far its significance extends. It has something of the force of an adjective: as *a* garden, *an* eagle, *the* woman.

In English there are but two articles, *a* and *the*: *a* becomes *an* before a vowel, and silent *h*: as *an* acorn, *an* hour; but if the *h* be sounded, *a* only is used: as *a* hand, *a* heart, *a* highway. *An* is also used before nouns accented on the second syllable and beginning with a sounded *h*: as *An* heroic man, *An* historical essay.

2. *A* or *an* is styled the indefinite article, because it is used in a vague sense to point out one thing of the kind: as “*Give me a book,*” “*Bring me an apple.*”

9. What is an interjection?

**Questions on the Articles.**—1. What is an article? In English, how many articles? What does *a* become before a vowel or silent *h*? If the *h* is sounded, what is used?

2. What is *a* or *an* styled? What is *the* called? How is a noun without an article taken?
The is called the definite article, because it ascertains what particular thing or things are meant, as: “Give me the book;” “Bring me the apples,” meaning some particular book or apples referred to.

A substantive without an article to limit it is generally taken in its widest sense: as “A candid temper is proper for man,” that is, for all mankind.

**PARSING**

**Parsing** consists in naming the part of speech to which the word belongs, and stating every particular relating to it in its connection with other words in the sentence. Parsing is of two kinds—*Etymological* and *Syntactical*. Etymological parsing consists in showing what part of speech the word is, with its variations. Syntactical parsing shows the agreement one word bears to another in gender, number, person, case and government, and gives the rule of Syntax for the government or position of the word in the sentence.

**Rule for Parsing the ARTICLE**

State whether it is definite or indefinite, and point out the noun to which it belongs.

**EXAMPLES.**

1. *The* Man—*The* is a definite article, and limits the noun “man.”
2. *A* Book—*A* is the indefinite article, limiting “book.”
3. *An* hereditary enemy. *An* is one of the forms of the indefinite article and relates to the noun *enemy*.

**EXERCISES FOR PARSING.**


*Questions on Parsing.*—What is parsing? How many kinds of parsing? What is Etymological parsing? What is Syntactical parsing? How are the articles to be parsed?
CHAPTER III.

THE NOUN.

1. A Substantive or Noun is a name: as city, virtue, fame. Nouns are of two kinds, proper and common. To these divisions some grammarians would add abstract, collective and material.

2. Proper Nouns are names appropriated to individuals: as George, London, Thames. Common Nouns are class names: as animal, man, tree. "Darkness" is an abstract noun; people and army are collective nouns. Examples of material nouns are: marble, coal and gold.

To substantives or nouns belong person, gender, number and case.

Person is that grammatical property which shows whether the speaker is meant, whether it is the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. There are three grammatical persons, viz.: the first person, or the speaker; the second, or the person spoken to, and the third, the person or thing spoken of.

Section II—GENDER

1. In English, Gender is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex. There are four genders, the Masculine, the Feminine, the Common and the Neuter.

Questions on the Nouns.—1. What is a noun? How many kinds of nouns?
2. What are proper nouns? What are common nouns? Name and illustrate three other kinds of nouns. What belongs to substantives?
2. The masculine gender denotes animals of the male kind: as, man, horse, king. The feminine gender signifies animals of the female kind: as, woman, queen, hen. The common gender denotes either males or females, or both: as, children, parents, insects, servants. The neuter gender denotes objects which are neither males nor females: as, field, house, garden.

Some nouns, naturally neuter, are, by a figure of speech, converted into the masculine or feminine gender: as when we say of the sun, he is setting, and of a ship, she sails well. Animals are often regarded as male or female, not because of their sex, but by reason of their general character. Thus we say, the spider weaves her web, the fox made his escape.

Our language has three methods of distinguishing the sexes.

1. By different words: as

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor,</td>
<td>maid.</td>
<td>King,</td>
<td>queen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boar,</td>
<td>sow.</td>
<td>Lad,</td>
<td>lass.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy,</td>
<td>girl.</td>
<td>Lord.</td>
<td>lady.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother,</td>
<td>sister.</td>
<td>Man,</td>
<td>woman.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buck,</td>
<td>doe.</td>
<td>Master,</td>
<td>mistress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bull,</td>
<td>cow.</td>
<td>Milter,</td>
<td>spawner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cock,</td>
<td>hen.</td>
<td>Nephew,</td>
<td>niece.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dog,</td>
<td>bitch, slut.</td>
<td>Ram,</td>
<td>ewe. [singer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drake,</td>
<td>duck</td>
<td>Singer,</td>
<td>songstressor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earl,</td>
<td>countess.</td>
<td>Sloven,</td>
<td>slattern.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father,</td>
<td>mother.</td>
<td>Son,</td>
<td>daughter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friar,</td>
<td>nun.</td>
<td>Stag,</td>
<td>hind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gander,</td>
<td>goose.</td>
<td>Sir,</td>
<td>madam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hart,</td>
<td>roe.</td>
<td>Steer,</td>
<td>helper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse,</td>
<td>mare.</td>
<td>Uncle,</td>
<td>aunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband,</td>
<td>wife.</td>
<td>Wizard.</td>
<td>witch.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. By a difference of termination: as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abbot,</td>
<td>abbess.</td>
<td>Hunter,</td>
<td>huntress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor,</td>
<td>actress.</td>
<td>Inheritor,</td>
<td>inheritress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator, administratrix</td>
<td>Instructor,</td>
<td></td>
<td>instructress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambassador, ambassadress</td>
<td>Lion,</td>
<td>Mayoness</td>
<td>mayoress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arbiter,</td>
<td>arbitress.</td>
<td>Marquis,</td>
<td>marchioness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditor,</td>
<td>authoress.</td>
<td>Mayor,</td>
<td>mayoress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author,</td>
<td>baroness.</td>
<td>Patron,</td>
<td>patroness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baron,</td>
<td>beneffectress.</td>
<td>Peer,</td>
<td>peeress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefactor,</td>
<td>bride.</td>
<td>Priest,</td>
<td>priestess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridegroom,</td>
<td>cateress.</td>
<td>Prince,</td>
<td>princess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caterer,</td>
<td>chantress.</td>
<td>Prior,</td>
<td>prioress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chanter,</td>
<td>conductress.</td>
<td>Prophet,</td>
<td>prophetess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conductor,</td>
<td>countess.</td>
<td>Proprietor,</td>
<td>proprietress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count,</td>
<td>czarina.</td>
<td>Shepherd,</td>
<td>protectress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czar,</td>
<td>deaconess.</td>
<td>Songster,</td>
<td>shepheardess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deacon,</td>
<td>directress.</td>
<td>Sorcerer,</td>
<td>songstress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director,</td>
<td>duchess.</td>
<td>Sultan,</td>
<td>sorrress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elector,</td>
<td>empress.</td>
<td>Testator,</td>
<td>tigress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emperor,</td>
<td>enchantress.</td>
<td>Traitor,</td>
<td>testatrix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enchanter,</td>
<td>executrix.</td>
<td>Tutor,</td>
<td>taitress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executor,</td>
<td>fornicatress.</td>
<td>Tutor,</td>
<td>tutoress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fornicator,</td>
<td>goddess.</td>
<td>Tyrant,</td>
<td>tyrannness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>God,</td>
<td>governess.</td>
<td>Victor,</td>
<td>vactress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governor,</td>
<td>heiress.</td>
<td>Viscount,</td>
<td>viscountess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heir,</td>
<td>heroine.</td>
<td>Votary,</td>
<td>votress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hero,</td>
<td>hostess.</td>
<td>Widower,</td>
<td>widow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. By prefixing a sex-word: as

- Cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow.
- Man-servant, maid-servant.
- He-goat, she-goat.
- He-bear, she-bear.
- Male child, female child.
- Male descendants, female descendants.
Etymology.

Section III—Of NUMBER

The Number of a word shows whether it refers to one object or to more than one. There are two numbers, the singular and the plural.

The singular number expresses but one object: as a chair, a table. The plural number signifies more objects than one: as chairs, tables.

2. Some nouns, from the nature of the things that they express, are used in only the singular form: as wheat, gold, sloth, pride, &c.; others in only the plural form: as bellows, scissors, ashes, &c.; some are the same in both numbers: as deer, sheep, swine.

3. The plural number of nouns is generally formed by adding s to the singular: as dove, doves; face, faces; pen, pens.

But when the singular ends in x, ch, soft, sh, ss or s, the noun takes es in the plural: as box, boxes; church, churches; lash, lashes; kiss, kisses. If the noun ends in ch hard, the plural is formed by adding s: as monarch, monarchs.

4. Nouns ending in f or fe are rendered plural by the change of these terminations into ves: as half, halves; loaf, loaves; knife, knives; except grief, relief and some others which have s; those in ff have s: as muff, muffs.

Nouns which have y in the singular, with no other vowel in the same syllable, change it into ie, and add s in the plural: as beauty, beauties; fly, flies; but the y is not changed when there is another vowel in the syllable: as key, keys; delay, delays.

Note.—Some nouns are rendered plural by the change of a into e: as, man, men, woman, women; others by the change of oo into ee: as, foot, feet, goose, geese, ox and child, oxen and children. The word news is considered singular, and the noun means is used in both numbers.
The following table exhibits the method of forming the plural of those nouns which have been adopted from the Hebrew, Greek and Latin languages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cherub</td>
<td>cherubim</td>
<td>Datum</td>
<td>data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seraph</td>
<td>seraphim</td>
<td>Effluvium</td>
<td>effluvia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antithesis</td>
<td>antitheses</td>
<td>Encomium</td>
<td>encomia, or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automaton</td>
<td>automata</td>
<td></td>
<td>encomiums</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basis</td>
<td>bases</td>
<td>Erratum</td>
<td>errata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis</td>
<td>crises</td>
<td>Genius</td>
<td>genii or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criterion</td>
<td>criteria</td>
<td></td>
<td>geniuses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diacresis</td>
<td>diacreses</td>
<td>Genus</td>
<td>genera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellipsis</td>
<td>ellipses</td>
<td>Index</td>
<td>indices or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis</td>
<td>emphases</td>
<td></td>
<td>indexes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis</td>
<td>hypotheses</td>
<td>Lamina</td>
<td>laminae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metamorphosis</td>
<td>metamorphoses</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phenomenon</td>
<td>phenomena</td>
<td>Magus</td>
<td>magi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td>appendices, or</td>
<td>Memoranda, or</td>
<td>memoranda, or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>appendices</td>
<td>dum</td>
<td>memorandums</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arcanum</td>
<td>arcana</td>
<td>Radius</td>
<td>radii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Axis</td>
<td>axes</td>
<td>Stamen</td>
<td>stamina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calx</td>
<td>calces</td>
<td>Stratum</td>
<td>strata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vortex</td>
<td>vortices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some words derived from the learned languages are confined to the plural: as antipodes, literati, &c.

The following nouns, being in Latin, both singular and plural are used in the same manner when employed in our tongue: hiatus, apparatus, series, species.

Section IV—Of CASE

1. In English, substantives have three cases, the Nominative, the Possessive and the Objective.

The Nominative Case simply expresses the name of a thing; or the subject of a verb: as “The boy plays,” “the girls learn.” The italicized words, “boy” and “girls,” are in the nominative case.
2. The **Possessive Case** expresses the relation of possession, origin or fitness, and may be known by having generally an apostrophe, with the letter s coming after it: as “My father’s house,” “the scholar’s duty,” “Morse’s telegraph,” “men’s neckties.”

When the plural ends in s, the other s is omitted, but the apostrophe is retained: as “On eagles’ wings,” “the drapers’ company.” Sometimes also when the singular ends in ss, the apostrophic s is omitted: as “For goodness’ sake,” “For righteousness’ sake.”

3. The **Objective Case** expresses the object of an action or of a relation, and generally follows a transitive verb or a preposition: as “John assists Charles,” “they live in London.”

Nouns in English are thus declined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Objective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother,</td>
<td>Mother’s,</td>
<td>Mother,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mothers’,</td>
<td>Mothers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man,</td>
<td>Man’s,</td>
<td>Man,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men,</td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.**—The nominative case may be known by asking who, or what performed the action? the answer to the question will be the nominative: as “Charles reads his lesson.” Who reads? The answer is Charles; Charles is therefore in the nominative case. The objective after an active verb may be generally known by asking what was done? the answer is the objective case: as “Charles reads his lesson.” Charles reads what? The answer is lesson; lesson is therefore in the objective case.

**Rule for Parsing a NOUN**

State whether it is proper or common; give its gender, person, number and case; if it be the nominative case, point out the verb to which it is nominative, or tell what kind of nominative it is: if it be in the possessive or objective case, point out the word by which it is gov-
erned, and repeat the rule of Syntax for such government.

EXAMPLES.

John broke the slate.

*John*—is a proper noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number and nominative case to the verb “broke.”

*Broke*—is a verb.

*The*—is the definite article, limiting “slate.”

*Slate*—is a common noun, neuter gender, third person, singular number and objective case, governed by the verb “broke.”

The boy’s hat contains apples.

*The*—the definite article, limiting “hat.”

*Boy’s*—a common noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, in the possessive case, and governs the noun “hat,” according to the Seventh Rule of Syntax.

*Hat*—a common noun, neuter gender, third person, singular number and nominative case.

*Contains*—is a verb.

*Apples*—a common noun, neuter gender, third person, plural number and objective case, object of the active verb “contains,” according to the Fourth Rule of Syntax.

The army marched away.

*The*—the definite article and relates to army.

*Army*—collective noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, nominative case and subject of the verb “marched.” The plural of army is *armies*.

*Marched*—an active verb.

*Away*—an adverb.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

Charles reads his lesson. He goes to London.

The cars have arrived in the city. He runs.

John lost his brother’s cap. The dog barks.
CHAPTER IV.

ADJECTIVES.

1. An Adjective is a word added to a noun to express its quality: as, an industrious man, a benevolent mind. It narrows the range of the noun and increases its meaning.

In English, the adjective is not varied on account of gender, number or case: as a careless boy, careless girls. The only variation that it admits is that of comparison.

Comparison.—There are three degrees of comparison, namely, the Positive, the Comparative and the Superlative. Comparison is a property of adverbs as well as of adjectives. However, all adverbs and adjectives can not be compared.

2. The positive degree expresses the quality of an object, without any increase or diminution: as good, wise, great.

The comparative degree increases or lessens the positive in signification: as wiser, greater, less wise.

The superlative expresses the quality in the highest or the lowest degree: as wisest, greatest, least wise.

3. The comparative is formed by adding r or er to the positive: as wise, wiser; great, greater; and the superlative by adding st or est: as wise, wisest; great, greatest.

The adverbs more and most, placed before adjectives, have the same effect: as more wise, most wise.

Questions on Adjectives.—1. What is an adjective? In English, what is said of the adjective? What variation does it admit?

Questions on Comparison.—2. What is the positive? the comparative? the superlative?

3. How is the comparative formed? How is the superlative formed? What effect have more and most?
4. Monosyllables, for the most part, are compared by er and est; dissyllables, by more and most: as mild, milder, mildest; frugal, more frugal, most frugal.

Some words have an irregular comparison: as good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little, less, least; much, or many, more, most; and a few others.

When an adjective, with the definite article before it, is used without a noun, it is taken as a noun: as The virtuous are always happy. Providence rewards the good and punishes the bad.

Note.—Adjectives are of different kinds or classes, as follows: Common, proper, numeral, participial and pronominal.

Common Adjectives are such as express quality and admit of comparison: as good, wise, great, &c.

Proper Adjectives are those which are derived from proper nouns, and are rarely compared: as English, American, &c.

Numeral Adjectives are those which express number, and are subdivided into Cardinal: as one, two, three, &c.

Ordinal: as first, second, third, &c.; and Multiplicative: as single, double, twofold, &c.

Pronominal Adjectives are those which partake of the nature of a pronoun and adjective, and are more fully discussed under the head of pronouns. When a participle is used as an adjective, it is called a Participial Adjective: as a loving child: a broken window.

Some adjectives are not compared: as square, circular, &c.; and those which in their simple form express the highest or lowest degree: as chief, full, extreme, supreme, &c.

**RULE FOR PARSING AN ADJECTIVE.**

Tell its kind and state its degree of comparison, and point out the word it qualifies.

4. How are monosyllables and dissyllables compared? What words have an irregular comparison? When is an adjective taken as a noun? What is the rule for parsing an adjective?

What is the rule for parsing an adjective?
ETYMOLOGY.

EXAMPLES.

A sweet apple. Henry is older than Charles. William is the smallest boy in school.

A—the indefinite article, limiting “apple.”
Sweet—is a common or descriptive adjective in the positive degree, qualifying “apple.”
Apple—a common noun of the neuter gender, third person, singular number. It has no case because it does not occur in a sentence.

Henry—a proper noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, nominative case and subject of the verb is.
Is—a neuter verb.
Older—is a descriptive adjective of the comparative degree, qualifying “Henry.”
Than—a conjunction.
Charles—a proper noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number and nominative case after the neuter verb “is,” according to the 9th Rule of Syntax. Some authorities would make Charles nominative case to the verb is understood * * * than Charles is.

William—a proper noun, masculine gender, &c., and nominative case to the verb “is.”
Is—a neuter verb.
The—the definite article, limiting “boy.”
Smallest—is an adjective in the superlative degree, qualifying “boy.”
Boy—a common noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, nominative case after the verb “is.”
In—is a preposition.
School—a common noun, neuter gender, third person, singular number, in the objective case, and governed by the preposition “in,” according to 5th Rule of Syntax.

Two English Officers. Cooling Breezes.

Two—a numeral adjective, of the cardinal kind.
English—is a proper adjective, qualifying “officers.”
Officers—a common noun, masculine gender, third person, plural number.

Cooling—a participial adjective, in the positive degree, qualifying “breezes.”
Breezes—a common noun, neuter gender, third person, plural number.
A good and wise man. A happy parent.
An old coat. A mutual agreement.
The sweetest flower and the tallest tree.
The wiser head. The better world. A lofty oak.
A British soldier. The crowning harvest.
An American lady. The fourth child.

CHAPTER V.
PRONOUNS.

1. The Pronoun has already been defined.

There are four kinds of pronouns, namely, the Personal, the Relative, the Interrogative and the Adjective Pronoun.

Section I—Of PERSONAL PRONOUNS

1. The Personal Pronouns are so called because they distinguish the three grammatical persons. They are I, thou, he, she and it, with their declined forms and their compounds.

2. Personal pronouns admit of person, number, gender and case. There are three persons.

Singular.

I is the first person.
Thou is the second person.
He, she or it is the third person.

Plural.

We is the first person.
Ye or you is the second person.
They is the third person.

Questions on Pronouns.—How many kinds of pronouns? 1. Name the personal pronouns?
2. Of what do they admit? How many are the persons, and what are they?
Etymology.

3. Pronouns have two numbers, the singular and the plural: as I, thou, he; we, ye, or you, they. Gender has respect only to the third person singular: as he, she, it. He is masculine, she is feminine and it is neuter.

4. Personal pronouns have three cases, the nominative, the possessive and the objective. The objective case of a pronoun has, in general, a form different from that of the nominative or the possessive. Personal pronouns are thus declined:

First.  Nom.  I.  We.
         Possess.  My or mine.  Our or ours.
         Obj.  Me.  Us.
Second.  Nom.  Thou or you.  Ye or you.
         Possess.  Thy or thine.  Your or yours.
Third.  Mas.  Nom.  He.  They.
         Possess.  His.  Their or theirs.
Third.  Fem.  Nom.  She.  They.
         Possess.  Her or hers.  Their or theirs.
         Possess.  Its.  Their or theirs.

5. Compound Personal Pronouns.—Personal and Possessive Adjective Pronouns, when compounded with the word self, are called Compound Personal Pronouns. They are either reciprocal, when they refer back to the Nominative: as “We hurt ourselves by vain rage;” or “They themselves performed it.”

Questions on Personal Pronouns.—3. How many numbers have pronouns? What is said of gender?
4. How many cases have pronouns? What is said of the objective case?

Questions on Personal Pronouns.—5. What is said of the personal and adjective pronouns?
they are employed to denote emphasis, distinction or contrast: as “I saw the person himself;” “She herself will do it;” “This is the book itself;” and in the plural, “They themselves performed it.”

This class of pronouns may be thus declined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Possess.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Thyself.</td>
<td>Yourselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mas.</td>
<td>Possess.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Himself.</td>
<td>Themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fem.</td>
<td>Possess.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Herself.</td>
<td>Themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Itself.</td>
<td>Themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuter.</td>
<td>Possess.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Itself.</td>
<td>Themselves.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section II—RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. Relative Pronouns are such as relate, in general, to some word or phrase going before, which is thence called the antecedent; they are who, which, what, that and as, with their declined forms and compounds.

What is a compound relative, including both the antecedent and the relative, and is mostly equivalent to that which: as “This is what I wanted,” that is to say, “the thing which I wanted.”

2. Who is applied to persons, which to the lower animals and to inanimate things: as “He is a friend, who is faithful in adversity;” “The bird, which sung so sweetly, is flown;” “This is the tree, which produces no fruit.”

Questions on Relative Pronouns.—1. What are relative pronouns? What is said of the relative what?
That, as a relative, is often used to prevent the too frequent repetition of who and which. It is applied to both persons and things: as “He that acts wisely, deserves praise;” “Modesty is a quality that highly adorns a woman.” Where the antecedent is mixed, the relative that must be used, as in the sentence, “There is the man and the dog that we saw.”

3. Who is of both numbers, and is thus declined:

**Singular and Plural.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Who</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>Whose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Whom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is generally a relative when it follows many, such or same. He followed such a course as ruined him.

The **Interrogative Pronoun** is used to ask a question. Who was at the door? What do they want? Which is yours?

**Section III—ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.**

1. **Adjective Pronouns** are of a mixed nature, having the properties both of pronouns and adjectives.

The adjective pronouns may be subdivided into four classes, namely, the possessive, the distributive, the demonstrative, the indefinite.

The possessive are those which relate to possession or property.

**Questions on Relative Pronouns.**—2. To what are who and which applied? What is said of that?

3. What number is who? Decline it. What are who, which, and what called, when used in asking questions?

**Questions on Adjective Pronouns.**—1. What are adjective pronouns? How are they divided? What are the possessive?
There are seven of them, viz., my, thy, his, her, our, your, their.

Mine and thine, instead of my and thy, were formerly used before a substantive or adjective beginning with a vowel, or a silent h: as, “Blot out all mine iniquities.”

2. The **distributive** are those that denote the persons or things that make up a number, as taken separately and singly. They are each, every, either: as “Each of his brothers is in a favorable situation;” “Every man must account for himself;” “I have not seen either of them.”

3. The **demonstrative** are those that precisely point out the subjects to which they relate: this and that, these and those, are of this class: as “This is true charity, that is only its image.”

*This* refers to the nearest person or thing, and *that*, to the more distant: as “This man is more intelligent than that.” *This* indicates the latter, or last mentioned; *that*, the former, or first mentioned: as “Both wealth and poverty are temptations; that tends to excite pride; this, discontent.”

4. The **indefinite** are those that express their subjects in an indefinite or general manner. The following are of this kind: some, other, any, one, all, such, none.

*Other* is declined in the following manner:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>other.</td>
<td>others.</td>
<td>one.</td>
<td>ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pos.</td>
<td>other's.</td>
<td>others'.</td>
<td>one's.</td>
<td>ones'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>other.</td>
<td>others.</td>
<td>one.</td>
<td>ones.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.*—The word *own* is frequently added to the possessive adjective pronouns, both in the singular and plural; it is used to express emphasis or opposition: as, “I live in my

*Questions on Adjective Pronouns.*—2. What are the distributive pronouns?
3. What are the demonstrative?
4. What are the indefinite? Decline one and other.
own house;" that is, the house belongs to me; it is not a rented house; "It is her own book;" "It is their own fault," &c. These are called compound adjective pronouns.

Rule for Parsing a PRONOUN

State the kind; if personal, tell its gender, number and case and give the reason why it is in such case, &c.

EXAMPLES.

I wrote to him.

*I*—is a personal pronoun, common gender, first person, singular number and nominative case.

*Wrote*—is a verb.

*To*—a preposition. It shows the relation between *wrote* and *him*.

*Him*—is a personal pronoun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by the preposition "to."

The man who sent them.

*The*—definite article, limiting "man."

*Man*—a common noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number and nominative case.

*Who*—a relative pronoun, agreeing with its antecedent *man*, masculine gender, third person, singular number and nominative case to the verb "sent," according to the 12th Rule of Syntax.

*Sent*—is a verb.

*Them*—a personal pronoun, third person, plural number and in the objective case, governed by the transitive verb "sent." Its gender is indetermined or indefinite.

He brought his hat himself.

*He*—is a personal pronoun, masculine gender, third person, singular number and nominative case, subject of the verb "brought."

*Brought*—an active verb.

*His*—is a possessive adjective pronoun, referring to "hat."

*Hat*—is a common noun, neuter gender, third person, singular number, objective case and object of the verb "brought."

*Himself*—a compound personal pronoun, in the nominative case, referring to "he."

What is the rule for parsing a pronoun?
exercises for parsing.

You know we sent it to you. I told her they saw him. They sold it for more than its value.
The man who sold it. The person to whom it was sold.
The book which he had. The lady whose name I forget.
The boy that said it.
Their farm. It is our own business. We ourselves will go.
This man.

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

Section I—The Nature of VERBS

1. A Verb is a word by which we make a statement or ask a question: as I went, who bought it? Verbs are of three kinds, namely, Active, Passive and Neuter; they are also divided into Regular, Irregular and Defective.

2. An Active Verb expresses action, and always implies an agent, and generally an object acted upon: as to love; “I love my parents;” “John recites his lesson.” The active verb is either transitive or intransitive.

An Active-Transitive verb expresses action that passes from the agent over to some other object: as “The tutor instructs his pupils;” “I esteem the man;” “Emily loves her mother.”

An Active-Intransitive verb expresses an action that is confined to the agent, and has no effect upon any external object: as to walk, to run, to fly; “The man walks;” “The boy runs;” “The birds sing.”

The Transitive Verb requires an object to complete its sense: as, John struck the ball. If we say, John

Questions on the verb.—1. What is a verb? How many kinds of verbs and how are they divided?
2. What is an active verb? What is said of the active verb? What does an active-transitive verb express?
struck, we wait for further information. For this reason the transitive verb is sometimes called an incomplete verb. In the sentence, *He runs*, the meaning is complete. No other word is required to make the statement. Hence, the intransitive verb is sometimes called a complete verb.

3. **A Passive Verb** is a transitive verb so used that it represents its subject as acted upon; it always implies an object and an agent: as to be loved; “Emily is loved by her mother;” “the man was discharged.”

A Neuter Verb is one that does not represent its subject as acting. It merely expresses a state of being: as *I am, I sleep, I sit.*

4. **Auxiliary Verbs** are those by the aid of which the other English verbs are principally conjugated; they are *do, be, have, shall, will, may* and *can,* with their variations; and *let,* when used as an auxiliary, and *must,* which have no variation.

5. **A Defective Verb** is one that lacks some of its principal parts, or has no participle: as *beware, ought, quoth.*

6. **A Participle** is a form of the verb that assumes the act or state, and is generally construed like an adjective. The grass is *growing.*

**Rule for Parsing a VERB**

*First state what kind it is, whether active, passive or neuter; transitive or intransitive; regular, irregular or defective.* Then give its number, person, mood and tense; point out the nominative it agrees with, if any, and mention the **RULE** of Syntax for such agreement.

*Questions on the Verb.*—3. What is a passive verb? A neuter verb?

4. Which are the auxiliary verbs, and what are they? What is the rule for parsing a verb?
Rule for Parsing the PARTICIPLE

State its kind, whether present, perfect or compound perfect, name the verb from which it comes and the word to which it refers.

EXAMPLES.

Virtue rewards her followers.

Virtue—is a common noun, feminine gender, third person, singular number and nominative to “rewards.”

Rewards—is an active transitive verb.

Her—is an adjective pronoun, relating to “followers.”

Followers—a common noun, of the common gender, third person, plural number and in the objective case, governed by the active transitive verb “rewards.”

John runs. Sarah is loved. I am writing.

John—a proper noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number and nominative case to the verb runs.

Runs—an active intransitive verb.

Sarah—a proper noun, feminine gender, third person, singular number and nominative case.

Is loved—a regular passive verb.

I—a personal pronoun, first person, singular number and nominative case.

Am—an irregular neuter verb.

Writing—the present participle, from the verb “to write.”

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

Active Transitive Verbs.—Francis loves his parents. He wrote a letter. Charles abuses me.

Active Intransitive Verbs.—The ship sails. The fish swims. The birds fly. The man walks.

Passive Verbs.—Francis is loved. The letter was written. I am assisted.

Neuter Verbs.—He is. They stand. The child sleeps. She sits. They seem.

What is the rule for parsing the participle?
Section II—NUMBER and PERSON

1. Verbs have two numbers, the Singular and the Plural: as “I run, we run.” In each number there are three persons: as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Person</td>
<td>I love.</td>
<td>We love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Person</td>
<td>Thou lovest.</td>
<td>You love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Person</td>
<td>He loves.</td>
<td>They love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—The verb, in the three persons plural, has, in general, the same termination as the first person singular; only the second and third persons singular vary in termination.

Section III—MOODS and PARTICIPLES

1. **Mood**, or **Mode**, is a particular form of the verb showing the manner in which action or state is represented. In other words, mode expresses the manner of making the statement.

   There are five moods, viz.: the Indicative, the Imperative, the Potential, the Subjunctive and the Infinitive.

   2. The Indicative Mood simply indicates or declares a fact: as “He loves; he is loved;” or it asks a question: as “Does he love? Is he loved?”

   The Imperative Mood is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating or permitting: as “Depart thou; mind ye; let us stay; go in peace.”

   The Potential Mood implies possibility or liberty, will or obligation: as “It may rain; he may go or stay; I can ride; he would walk; they should learn.”

Questions on Number.—1. What have the verbs? How many persons?

Questions on Mood.—1. What is mood? What is the number of the moods?

2. What is the indicative mood? The imperative? The potential?
3. The Subjunctive Mood states something as a future contingency, a motive, a wish, a supposition, &c.; and is preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, and attended by another verb: as “I will respect him, though he chide me;” “Were he good, he would be happy;” that is, “if he were good.”

The Infinitive Mood expresses a thing in a general and unlimited manner, without any distinction of number or person: as “to act, to speak, to fear.” The pupil will notice that these infinitives have much of the significance of their corresponding nouns, viz.: action, speech, fear.

The Participle is a certain form of the verb, and derives its name from its having not only the properties of a verb, but also those of an adjective: as “I am desirous of knowing him;” “Admired and applauded, he became vain;” “Having finished his work, he submitted it,” &c.

There are three Participles, the Present or Active, the Perfect or Passive, and the Compound Perfect: as “loving, loved, having loved.”

Note.—In its literal sense, the imperative mood implies a command; it may, however, be employed on occasions of a very different nature, often to express the humblest supplication of an inferior being to one who is infinitely his superior: as, “Give us this day our daily bread; and forgive us our trespasses.”

Participles convey an idea of time, and also signify action; but if, from the participles, we take away the idea of time, they simply express quality, and are called participial adjectives; as, “writing to a friend; moving in haste; heated with wine;” here the words, writing, moving, and heated, are participles, conveying a reference to the time at which actions were performed; but in the following sentences they are adjectives; “writing paper; a moving spectacle; a heated imagination.” Every present participle in English ends in ing: as, reading, doing, flying, &c. All words ending in ing, however, are not participles: as, morning and evening. These words are not derived from verbs, and participles must be.

3. What is the subjunctive?
What is a participle? How many are there?
1. **Tense**, being the forms and meanings of the verb in regard to time, might seem to admit of only the present, past and future, but to mark it more accurately, it is made to consist of six variations, viz.: the *Present*, the *Imperfect*, the *Perfect*, the *Pluperfect*, and the *First* and *Second Future Tenses*.

2. The **Present Tense** represents an action or event as passing at the time in which it is mentioned: as “I rule; I am ruled; I think; I fear.”

The **Imperfect Tense** represents the action or event, either as past and finished, or as remaining unfinished at a certain time past: as “I loved her for her modesty and virtue;” “They were traveling post when he met them.”

3. The **Perfect Tense** not only refers to what is past, but also conveys an allusion to the present time: as “I have seen the person that was recommended to me.”

The **Pluperfect Tense** represents a thing not only as past, but also as prior to some other point of time specified in the sentence: as “I had finished my letter before he arrived.”

4. The first **Future Tense** represents the action as yet to come, either with or without respect to the precise time: as “The sun will rise tomorrow;” “I shall see them again.”

The second Future intimates that the action will be fully accomplished at or before the time of another future action or event: as “I shall have dined at one o’clock;” “The two houses will have finished their business, when the king comes to prorogue them.”

**Note.**—The present tense is sometimes used in reference to persons long since dead, whose writings we still possess: as,

1. What is said of tense, and what are the tenses?
2. What is the present tense? the imperfect?
3. What is the perfect? The pluperfect?
4. What is the future tense? The second future?
"Seneca reasons and moralizes well;" "Job speaks feelingly in his afflictions." The present tense preceded by the words, when, before, as soon as, &c., is sometimes used to point out the relative time of a future action: as, "When he arrives he will hear the news." "He will hear the news before he arrives, or as soon as he arrives. In animated historical narrations, this tense is sometimes used for the imperfect: as, "He enters the territory of his enemies, he fights and conquers, takes an immense booty and returns to enjoy a triumph."

The imperfect and perfect tenses both denote past actions; but they differ from each other, with regard to the time in which the actions were performed. The imperfect denotes the action performed within a period of time which has entirely passed away, without any regard to the length of the period: as, "The ancient philosophers wrote learnedly on many subjects. The philosophers of the last century made great discoveries; I wrote last year; I saw the man last week; he went yesterday."

The perfect tense denotes the action performed within a period of time, of which there is still a portion to pass away: as, "Modern philosophers have written; the philosophers of the present age have made; greater discoveries; I have written this year; I have seen the man this week; he has returned today."

Section V.—The Conjugation of the Verb.

1. The Conjugation of the verb is the regular arrangement of its several numbers, persons, moods and tenses. The conjugation of the active verb is called the Active Voice; and that of the passive verb, the Passive Voice.

Note.—The present and the imperfect tenses, in the active voice, are called simple tenses, because they are seldom compounded with any of the auxiliary verbs, unless for the sake of emphasis; as, "I do love; he did write," &c.

The Signs of the Moods and Tenses.

The auxiliary verbs may be used as signs, to point out the moods and tenses of the principal verbs. The sign of the present tense indicative, when used emphatically, is do, and the imperfect did: as, "I do love; I did write." The sign of

1. What is the conjugation of a verb? What is the conjugation of the active and the passive voice styled? In the Note, what tenses are called simple? What are the signs of moods and tenses?
the perfect is *have*: as, “I have written.” The sign of the pluperfect is *had*: as, “I had written.” The sign of the first future is *shall* or *will*, and the second future *shall* or *will have*: as, “I shall or will write, I shall or will have written.”

The signs of the potential mood, present tense, are *may* or *can*, *shall* or *must*: as, “I may or can write.” The sign of the imperfect is *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*: as, “I might, could, would, or should write.” The sign of the perfect is *may* or *can have*: as, “I may or can have written.” The sign of the pluperfect is *might*, *could*, *would* or *should have*: as, “I might, could, would or should have written.”

The sign of the infinitive mood is *to*: as, *to read, to write;* and the sign of the subjunctive mood is, *if, though, unless* or some other conjunction implying doubt or contingency. By learning the above signs, the pupils may be easily taught to conjugate any verb in the English language.

The auxiliary and active verb *To have* is conjugated in the following manner:

**TO HAVE.**

**INDICATIVE MOOD**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have.</td>
<td>1. We have.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hast.</td>
<td>2. You have.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He, she or it has.</td>
<td>3. They have.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I had.</td>
<td>1. We had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hadst.</td>
<td>2. You had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He, &amp;c., had.</td>
<td>3. They had.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have had.</td>
<td>1. We have had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hast had.</td>
<td>2. You have had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He has had.</td>
<td>3. They have had.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I had had.</td>
<td>1. We had had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hadst had.</td>
<td>2. You had had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He had had.</td>
<td>3. They had had.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

First Future Tense.

Singular.  
1. I shall or will have.  
2. Thou shalt or wilt have.  
3. He shall or will have.

Plural.  
1. We shall or will have.  
2. You shall or will have.  
3. They shall or will have.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.  
1. I shall have had.  
2. Thou wilt have had.  
3. He will have had.

Plural.  
1. We shall have had.  
2. You will have had.  
3. They will have had.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Singular.  
1. Let me have.  
2. Have thou or do thou have.  
3. Let him have.

Plural.  
1. Let us have.  
2. Have you or do you have.  
3. Let them have.

Or, Without the Auxiliaries.

Singular.  
1. Have thou.

Plural.  
2. Have you.

Note.—The imperative mood is not properly entitled to three persons. The command, entreaty or permission expressed by the imperative mood, is always made to the second person, but never to the first or third. The word Let is one of those verbs which have the infinitive mood after them without the sign to; and seems to be equivalent to the word permit or allow: as, “Let me have,” that is “Let me to have,” or, “Permit or allow me to have;” let being in the second person, imperative mood, and have in the infinitive mood, the sign to being understood. After the active verbs bid, dare, let, need, feel, etc., the sign of the infinitive is generally omitted.

POTENTIAL MOOD

Present Tense.

Singular.  
1. I may or can have.  
2. Thou mayst or canst have.  
3. He may or can have.

Plural.  
1. We may or can have.  
2. You may or can have.  
3. They may or can have.
Imperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I might, could, would or should have.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst have.
3. He might, could, would or should have.

Plural.
1. We might, could, would or should have.
2. You might, could, would or should have.
3. They might, could, would or should have.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I may or can have had.
2. Thou mayst or canst have had.
3. He may or can have had.

Plural.
1. We may or can have had.
2. You may or can have had.
3. They may or can have had.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I might, could, would or should have had.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst have had.
3. He might, could, would or should have had.

Plural.
1. We might, could, would or should have had.
2. You might, could, would or should have had.
3. They might, could, would or should have had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense.

Singular.
1. If I have.
2. If thou have.
3. If he have.

Plural.
1. If we have.
2. If you have.
3. If they have.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I had.
2. If thou hadst.
3. If he, &c., had.

Plural.
1. If we had.
2. If you had.
3. If they had.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I have had.
2. If thou hast had.
3. If he has had.

Plural.
1. If we have had.
2. If you have had.
3. If they have had.
### Pluperfect Tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I had had.</td>
<td>1. If we had had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If thou hadst had.</td>
<td>2. If you had had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he had had.</td>
<td>3. If they had had.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### First Future Tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I shall or will have.</td>
<td>1. If we shall or will have.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If thou shalt or wilt have</td>
<td>2. If you shall or will have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he shall or will have.</td>
<td>3. If they shall or will have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Second Future Tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I shall have had.</td>
<td>1. If we shall have had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If thou shalt have had.</td>
<td>2. If you shall have had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he shall have had.</td>
<td>3. If they shall have had.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.**—The indicative mood is converted into the subjunctive, whenever a condition, motion, wish or supposition is implied; so the potential mood may, in the same manner, be turned into the subjunctive: as, “If I could deceive him, I would not,” “though he should increase his wealth,” etc. It is not necessary that the conjunction which accompanies the subjunctive mood, should be always expressed; it is frequently understood: as, “Were I to go, he would not follow;” “Had he known me, he would have treated me differently;” that is, “If I were to go; If he had known,” &c. It should be observed that the present subjunctive often points out the relative time of a future action; “If they arrive to-morrow, I will see them;” “If I send the note this evening, he will receive it.” The auxiliaries should and would are used to express the present and future, as well as the past; so that the precise time of the verb, in the subjunctive mood, must often be determined by the nature and drift of the sentence; as, “It is my desire that he should or would come now or to-morrow;” “It was my desire that he would or should come last week.” See Observation under Rule xvi. of Syntax.

### INFINITIVE MOOD

**Present.** To have.  **Perfect.** To have had.

**Participles**

- **Present or Active.** Having.
- **Perfect or Passive.** Had.
- **Compound Perfect.** Having had.
ETYMOLGY.

The auxiliary and neuter verb To be is conjugated as follows:

TO BE.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense.

Singular.
1. I am.
2. Thou art.
3. He, she or it is.

Plural.
1. We are.
2. You are.
3. They are.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I was.
2. Thou wast.
3. He was.

Plural.
1. We were.
2. You were.
3. They were.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I have been.
2. Thou hast been.
3. He has been.

Plural.
1. We have been.
2. You have been.
3. They have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I had been.
2. Thou hadst been.
3. He had been.

Plural.
1. We had been.
2. You had been.
3. They had been.

First Future Tense.

Singular.
1. I shall or will be.
2. Thou shalt or wilt be.
3. He shall or will be.

Plural.
1. We shall or will be.
2. You shall or will be.
3. They shall or will be.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.
1. I shall have been.
2. Thou wilt have been.
3. He will have been.

Plural.
1. We shall have been.
2. You will have been.
3. They will have been.
**IMPERATIVE MOOD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Let me be.</td>
<td>1. Let us be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Be thou or do thou be.</td>
<td>2. Be you or do you be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Let him be.</td>
<td>3. Let them be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**POTENTIAL MOOD**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I may or can be.</td>
<td>1. We may or can be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou mayst or canst be.</td>
<td>2. You may or can be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He may or can be.</td>
<td>3. They may or can be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I might, could, would or should be.</td>
<td>1. We might, could, would or should be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst be.</td>
<td>2. You might, could, would or should be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He might, could, would or should be.</td>
<td>3. They might, could, would or should be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I may or can have been.</td>
<td>1. We may or can have been.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou mayst or canst have been.</td>
<td>2. You may or can have been.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He may or can have been.</td>
<td>3. They may or can have been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I might, could, would or should have been.</td>
<td>1. We might, could, would or should have been.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst have been.</td>
<td>2. You might, could, would or should have been.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He might, could, would or should have been.</td>
<td>3. They might, could, would or should have been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I be.</td>
<td>1. If we be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If thou be.</td>
<td>2. If you be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he be.</td>
<td>3. If they be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Imperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I were.
2. If thou wert
3. If he were.

Plural.
1. If we were.
2. If you were.
3. If they were.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I have been.
2. If thou hast been.
3. If he hath or has been.

Plural.
1. If we have been.
2. If you have been.
3. If they have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I had been.
2. If thou hadst been.
3. If he had been.

Plural.
1. If we had been.
2. If you had been.
3. If they had been.

First Future Tense.

Singular.
1. If I shall or will be.
2. If thou shalt or wilt be.
3. If he shall or will be.

Plural.
1. If we shall or will be.
2. If you shall or will be.
3. If they shall or will be.

Second Future Tense.

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

Plural.
1. If we shall have been.
2. If you shall have been.
3. If they shall have been.

INFINITIVE MOOD

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

PARTICIPLES

Compound Perfect. Having been.

Section VI—CONJUGATION OF REGULAR VERBS

ACTIVE.

1. Active Verbs are called Regular when they form their imperfect tense of the indicative mood, and their perfect participle, by adding to the verb ed, or d only when the verb ends in e: as,

I favor. I favored. Favored.
I love. I loved. Loved.

When is a verb called regular?
A Regular Active Verb is conjugated in the following manner:

**TO LOVE.**

**INDICATIVE MOOD**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I love.</td>
<td>1. We love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou lovest.</td>
<td>2. You love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He, she or it loves.</td>
<td>3. They love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I loved.</td>
<td>1. We loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou lovedst.</td>
<td>2. You loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He loved.</td>
<td>3. They loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have loved.</td>
<td>1. We have loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hast loved.</td>
<td>2. You have loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He has loved.</td>
<td>3. They have loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I had loved.</td>
<td>1. We had loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hadst loved.</td>
<td>2. You had loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He had loved.</td>
<td>3. They had loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**First Future Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I shall or will love.</td>
<td>1. We shall or will love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou shalt or wilt love.</td>
<td>2. You shall or will love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He shall or will love.</td>
<td>3. They shall or will love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Second Future Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I shall have loved.</td>
<td>1. We shall have loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou wilt have loved.</td>
<td>2. You will have loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He will have loved.</td>
<td>3. They will have loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.*—The following forms are used in present and imperfect tenses, when energy or positiveness is expressed; and when a question is asked.

Conjugate the verb *love.*
**Etymology.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I do love.</td>
<td>1. We do love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou dost love.</td>
<td>2. You do love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He does love.</td>
<td>3. They do love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I did love.</td>
<td>1. We did love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou didst love.</td>
<td>2. You did love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He did love.</td>
<td>3. They did love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Do I love?</td>
<td>1. Do we love?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dost thou love?</td>
<td>2. Do you love?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Does he love?</td>
<td>3. Do they love?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Did I love?</td>
<td>1. Did we love?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Didst thou love?</td>
<td>2. Did you love?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Did he love?</td>
<td>3. Did they love?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative Mood**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Let me love.</td>
<td>1. Let us love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Love thou or do thou love.</td>
<td>2. Love you or do you love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Let him love.</td>
<td>3. Let them love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Or, **Without the Auxiliaries.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Love thou.</td>
<td>2. Love you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Potential Mood**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I may or can love.</td>
<td>1. We may or can love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou mayst or canst love.</td>
<td>2. You may or can love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He may or can love.</td>
<td>3. They may or can love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I might, could, would or should love.</td>
<td>1. We might, could, would or should love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst love.</td>
<td>2. You might, could, would or should love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He might, could, would or should love.</td>
<td>3. They might, could, would or should love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Perfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I may or can have loved.
2. Thou mayst or canst have loved.
3. He may or can have loved.

Plural.
1. We may or can have loved.
2. You may or can have loved.
3. They may or can have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I might, could, would or should have loved.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst have loved.
3. He might, could, would or should have loved.

Plural.
1. We might, could, would or should have loved.
2. You might, could, would or should have loved.
3. They might, could, would or should have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense.

Singular.
1. If I love.
2. If thou love.
3. If he love.

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

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I loved.
2. If thou lovedst.
3. If he loved.

Plural.
1. If we loved.
2. If you loved.
3. If they loved.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I have loved.
2. If thou hadst loved.
3. If he has loved.

Plural.
1. If we have loved.
2. If you have loved.
3. If they have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I had loved.
2. If thou hadst loved.
3. If he had loved.

Plural.
1. If we had loved.
2. If you had loved.
3. If they had loved.

First Future Tense.

Singular.
1. If I shall or will love.
2. If thou shalt or wilt love.
3. If he shall or will love.

Plural.
1. If we shall or will love.
2. If you shall or will love.
3. If they shall or will love.
Second Future Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I shall have loved.</td>
<td>1. If we shall have loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If thou shalt have loved.</td>
<td>2. If you shall have loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he shall have loved.</td>
<td>3. If they shall have loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE MOOD**

*Present.* To love.  
*Perfect.* To have loved.

**PARTICIPLES**

*Present.* Loving.  
*Perfect.* Loved.  
*Compound Perfect.* Having loved.

**Note.**—The active verb may be conjugated differently, by adding its present or active participle to the auxiliary verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses: as, instead of “I teach, thou teachest, he teaches,” &c.; we may say, “I am teaching, thou art teaching, he is teaching, he was teaching, I have been teaching,” &c. The terminations *st* and *eth*, are only used on grave subjects.

**PASSIVE.**

1. **Passive Verbs** are called regular, when they form their perfect participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the verb: as, from the verb “to love,” is formed the passive, “I am loved, I was loved, I shall be loved,” &c.

A passive verb is conjugated by adding the perfect participles to the auxiliary *to be*, through all its changes of number, person, mood and tense, in the following manner.

**TO BE LOVED.**

**INDICATIVE MOOD**

*Present Tense.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am loved.</td>
<td>1. We are loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou art loved.</td>
<td>2. You are loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He is loved.</td>
<td>3. They are loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Imperfect Tense.**

**Singular.**
1. I was loved.
2. Thou wast loved.
3. He was loved.

**Plural.**
1. We were loved.
2. You were loved.
3. They were loved.

**Perfect Tense.**

**Singular.**
1. I have been loved.
2. Thou hast been loved.
3. He has been loved.

**Plural.**
1. We have been loved.
2. You have been loved.
3. They have been loved.

**Pluperfect Tense.**

**Singular.**
1. I had been loved.
2. Thou hadst been loved.
3. He had been loved.

**Plural.**
1. We had been loved.
2. You had been loved.
3. They had been loved.

**First Future Tense.**

**Singular.**
1. I shall or will be loved.
2. Thou shalt or wilt be loved.
3. He shall or will be loved.

**Plural.**
1. We shall or will be loved.
2. You shall or will be loved.
3. They shall or will be loved.

**Second Future Tense.**

**Singular.**
1. I shall have been loved.
2. Thou wilt have been loved.
3. He will have been loved.

**Plural.**
1. We shall have been loved.
2. You will have been loved.
3. They will have been loved.

**IMPERATIVE MOOD**

**Singular.**
1. Let me be loved.
2. Be thou loved or do thou be loved.
3. Let him be loved.

**Plural.**
1. Let us be loved.
2. Be you loved or do you be loved.
3. Let them be loved.

**POTENTIAL MOOD**

**Present Tense.**

**Singular.**
1. I may or can be loved.
2. Thou mayst or canst be loved.
3. He may or can be loved.

**Plural.**
1. We may or can be loved.
2. You may or can be loved.
3. They may or can be loved.

**Questions.**—1. When are passive verbs called regular? How is the passive verb conjugated? Conjugate the verb to be loved.
Etymology.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I might, could, would or should be loved.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst be loved.
3. He might, could, would or should be loved.

Plural.
1. We might, could, would or should be loved.
2. You might, could, would or should be loved.
3. They might, could, would or should be loved.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I may or can have been loved.
2. Thou mayst or canst have been loved.
3. He may or can have been loved.

Plural.
1. We may or can have been loved.
2. You may or can have been loved.
3. They may or can have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. I might, could, would or should have been loved.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst have been loved.
3. He might, could, would or should have been loved.

Plural.
1. We might, could, would or should have been loved.
2. You might, could, would or should have been loved.
3. They might, could, would or should have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense.

Singular.
1. If I be loved.
2. If thou be loved.
3. If he be loved.

Plural.
1. If we be loved.
2. If you be loved.
3. If they be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I were loved.
2. If thou wert loved.
3. If he were loved.

Plural.
1. If we were loved.
2. If you were loved.
3. If they were loved.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.
1. If I have been loved.
2. If thou hast been loved.
3. If he hath or has been loved.

Plural.
1. If we have been loved.
2. If you have been loved.
3. If they have been loved.
English Grammar.

**Pluperfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I had been loved.</td>
<td>1. If we had been loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If thou hadst been loved.</td>
<td>2. If you had been loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he had been loved.</td>
<td>3. If they had been loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**First Future Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I shall or will be loved.</td>
<td>1. If we shall or will be loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If thou shalt or wilt be loved.</td>
<td>2. If you shall or will be loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he shall or will be loved.</td>
<td>3. If they shall or will be loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Second Future Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I shall have been loved.</td>
<td>1. If we shall have been loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If thou shalt have been loved.</td>
<td>2. If you shall have been loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he shall have been loved.</td>
<td>3. If they shall have been loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE MOOD.**

- **Present Tense.**
  - To be loved.

- **Perfect.**
  - To have been loved.

**PARTICIPLES**

- **Present.** Being loved.
- **Perfect or Passive.** Loved.
- **Compound Perfect.** Having been loved.

It will be noticed throughout the conjugation of the preceding verbs that the pronoun ye, second person plural, has been omitted; also that the modern verb in the third person singular has taken the place of the ancient form: as "he has been loved," instead of "he hath been loved." He, she or it loves, instead of loveth. In the Bible and in poetry these forms are used; also among members of the society of Friends or Quakers.

**IRREGULAR VERBS.**

1. **Irregular Verbs** are those which do not form their imperfect tense, and perfect participle, by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the verb: as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfect</th>
<th>Perfect Part</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Begin,</td>
<td>began,</td>
<td>begun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know,</td>
<td>knew,</td>
<td>known.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Irregular Verbs Are of Various Sorts.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>cost</td>
<td>cost</td>
<td>Rid</td>
<td>rid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>Set</td>
<td>set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cast</td>
<td>cast</td>
<td>cast</td>
<td>Shred</td>
<td>shred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hit</td>
<td>hit</td>
<td>hit</td>
<td>Shred</td>
<td>shred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knit</td>
<td>knit</td>
<td>knit</td>
<td>Slit</td>
<td>slit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Let</td>
<td>let</td>
<td>let</td>
<td>Split</td>
<td>split</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put</td>
<td>put</td>
<td>put</td>
<td>Spread</td>
<td>spread</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide</td>
<td>abode</td>
<td>abode</td>
<td>Hold</td>
<td>held</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bend</td>
<td>bent</td>
<td>bent</td>
<td>Keep</td>
<td>kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bereave</td>
<td>bereft</td>
<td>bereft</td>
<td>Lay</td>
<td>laid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beseech</td>
<td>besought</td>
<td>besought</td>
<td>Lead</td>
<td>led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bind</td>
<td>bound</td>
<td>bound</td>
<td>Leave</td>
<td>left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bleed</td>
<td>bled</td>
<td>bled</td>
<td>Yield</td>
<td>lent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breed</td>
<td>bred</td>
<td>bred</td>
<td>Lose</td>
<td>lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bring</td>
<td>brought</td>
<td>brought</td>
<td>Make</td>
<td>made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build</td>
<td>built</td>
<td>built</td>
<td>Meet</td>
<td>met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy</td>
<td>bought</td>
<td>bought</td>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>paid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch</td>
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<td>caught</td>
<td>Rent</td>
<td>rent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cling</td>
<td>clung</td>
<td>clung</td>
<td>Ride</td>
<td>rode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creep</td>
<td>crept</td>
<td>crept</td>
<td>Say</td>
<td>said</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deal</td>
<td>dealt</td>
<td>dealt, r.</td>
<td>Seek</td>
<td>sought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dig</td>
<td>dug</td>
<td>dug, r.</td>
<td>Sell</td>
<td>sold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dwell</td>
<td>dwelt</td>
<td>dwelt, r.</td>
<td>Send</td>
<td>sent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
<td>fed</td>
<td>fed</td>
<td>Shine</td>
<td>shone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel</td>
<td>felt</td>
<td>felt</td>
<td>Shoe</td>
<td>shod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fight</td>
<td>fought</td>
<td>fought</td>
<td>Shoot</td>
<td>shot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find</td>
<td>found</td>
<td>found</td>
<td>Shrink</td>
<td>shrunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flee</td>
<td>fled</td>
<td>fled</td>
<td>Sat</td>
<td>sat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fling</td>
<td>flung</td>
<td>flung</td>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>slept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get</td>
<td>got</td>
<td>got</td>
<td>Sling</td>
<td>slung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gild</td>
<td>gild</td>
<td>gild, r.</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>sped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gird</td>
<td>girt</td>
<td>girt, r.</td>
<td>Spend</td>
<td>spent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grind</td>
<td>ground</td>
<td>ground</td>
<td>Spilt</td>
<td>spilt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>Spin</td>
<td>spun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hang</td>
<td>hung</td>
<td>hung, r.</td>
<td>Stood</td>
<td>stood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hear</td>
<td>heard</td>
<td>heard</td>
<td>Stick</td>
<td>stuck</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question.—What are irregular verbs?
**Present.** | **Imperf.** | **Perf. Part.** | **Present.** | **Imperf.** | **Perf. Part.**
---|---|---|---|---|---
Sting, | stung, | stung. | Tell, | told, | told.
Stink, | stunk, | stunk. | Think, | thought, | thought.
Strike, | struck, | struck or Weep, | stricken. | wept, | wept.
String, | strung, | strung. | Wind, | won, | won.
Sweat, | swet, | swet, | Work, | wrought, | wrought.
Swing, | swung, | swung. | Work, | or worked, or worked. | wrung, wrung.
Teach, | taught, | taught. | Wring, | wrung, | wrung.

1. Such as have the imperfect tense and perfect participle different: as,

|---|---|---|---|---|---|
Am, | was, | been. | Forget, | forgot, | forgotten, |
Arise, | arose, | arisen. | Forsake, | forsok, | forsaken. |
Awake, | awoke, | awaked. | Freeze, | froze, | frozen. |
Bear, | bore, | borne. | Give, | gave, | given. |
Bear, to carry, | bare or | | Go, | went, | gone. |
| | | | Grave, | graved, | graven. |
| | | | Grow, | grew, | grown. |
| | | | Hew, | hewed, | hewn. |
| | | | Hide, | hid, | hidden. |
| | | | | bid, | |
Begin, | began, | begun | Know, | knew, | known. |
Bid, | bid, bade, | bidden, | Lade, | laden, | laden. |
Bite, | bit, | bitten. | Load, | loaded, | loaded. |
Blow, | blew, | blown. | Mow, | mowed, | mown. |
Break, | broke, | broken. | Ring, | rung, | rung. |
Chide, | chid, | chidden, | Rise, | rose, | risen. |
| | | | | ran, | run. |
| | | | | | |
Choose, | chose. | chosen. | Run, | ran, | run. |
Cleave, | clove or | cleft. | Saw, | sawed, | sawn. |
| to split, | or cloven, | See, | seen. |
Clothe, | clothed, | clad, r. | Shake, | shook, | shaken. |
Come, | came, | come. | Shear, | sheared, | shorn. |
Crow, | crew, | crowded, r. | Show, | showed, | shown. |
Dare, | durst, | dared. | Sing, | sung, | sung. |
Dare, to venture, | | | | | |
To Do, | did, | done. | Sink, | sunk, | sunk. |
Draw, | drew, | drawn. | Slay, | slew, | slain. |
Drive, | drove, | driven. | Slide, | slid, | slidden. |
Drink, | drank, | drunk. | Smite, | smote, | smitten. |
Eat, | eat or ate, | eaten. | Sow, | sowed, | sown. |
Fly, | flew, | flown. | | | |
Note.—The verbs marked with the r, may be conjugated regularly or irregularly. The whole number of verbs in the English language is about 4,300, including irregular and defective verbs, which amount to about 177. Because of the inevitable changes of language, these numbers must be slowly changing.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective Verbs are those that are used only in some of their moods and tenses: as, am, was, been; can, could; may, might; shall, should; will, could, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperf.</th>
<th>Perfect Part.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can,</td>
<td>could,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May,</td>
<td>might,</td>
<td>(wanting.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shall,</td>
<td>should,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will,</td>
<td>would,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Must, Perfect.</td>
<td>must,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought,</td>
<td>ought,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quoth,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EXAMPLES IN PARsING, SHOWING NUMBER, PERSON, MOOD AND TENSE OF THE VERB.

The boy killed the bird. John is cruel.

The—definite article, limiting “boy.”

Boy—a common noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number and nominative case to the verb “killed.”

Killed—is a regular, active, transitive verb, indicative mood, imperfect tense, third person, singular number, to agree with its nominative case “boy,” according to 1st Rule of Syntax.

The—definite article, limiting the noun “bird.”

Question.—What are defective verbs?
Bird—a common noun, of the common gender, third person, singular number and in the objective case, governed by the active, transitive verb “killed.”

John—a proper noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, nominative case, &c.

Is—an irregular, neuter verb of the indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number, to agree with its nominative “John,” according to the 1st Rule of Syntax.

Cruel—is an adjective of the positive degree, qualifying “John.”

I saw the old man running.

I—a personal pronoun, first person, singular number and nominative case to the verb “saw.”

Saw—an irregular, active, transitive verb, indicative mood, imperfect tense, first person, singular number, to agree with its nominative “I,” according to Rule 1st, &c.

The—definite article, limiting “man.”

Old—an adjective of the positive degree, qualifying “man.”

Man—a common noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, and in the objective case, governed by the active, transitive verb “saw,” according to Rule 4th, &c.

Running—the present participle, from the verb “to run,” and referring to “man.”

**EXERCISES FOR PARSONG.**

I write. John loves to read. He committed a fault. We completed our journey. They have deceived me. He had resigned the office. I will submit. They will have dined before he arrives. He will have determined. Prepare your lesson. I can forgive. They may offend. You may go. He might overtake us. He would go. They might have sold it. He could have gone. I may be there.
CHAPTER VII.

ADVERBS.

1. An Adverb is a part of speech joined to a verb, an adjective, and sometimes to another adverb, to express some quality or circumstance respecting it: as, "He reads well," "A truly good man;" "He writes very correctly."

Some adverbs are compared by er and est: as, "Soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest;" those ending in ly are compared by more and most: as, wisely, more wisely, most wisely.

Note.—A short expression of two or more words frequently performs the office of an adverb, and is called an adverbial phrase: such as, "In fine, in general, at most, at least, by no means, not at all," &c.

Adverbs may be reduced to the following classes:

3. Of place: as, "Here, there, where, nowhere, anywhere, forward, backward, hence, thence," &c.
6. Of manner or quality: as, "Wisely, justly, quickly, slowly, badly, ably," &c.

Questions on Adverbs.—1. What is an adverb? How are some adverbs compared?
Rule for Parsing the ADVERB

Tell its kind, and point out the word it serves to qualify.

EXAMPLES.

*The bird sings sweetly.*

The — definite article, limiting "bird."

*Bird* — is a common noun, common gender, third person, singular number, and nominative case to the verb "sings."

*Sings* — an irregular, active, intransitive verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number, to agree with its nominative case "bird," according to the 1st Rule of Syntax.

*Sweetly* — is an adverb of manner, or quality, and modifies the verb "sings."

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

I have seen him once, and, perhaps, twice.
Thirdly and lastly, I will conclude.
We often resolve, but seldom perform.
We are wisely and happily directed.
He reads correctly. He will soon go forward.
Yes, truly, he will be there soon, or never.

CHAPTER VIII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A Preposition shows the relation between its object and some other word. Prepositions are, for the most part, placed before nouns and pronouns: as "He went from London to York;" "She is above disguise;" "They are supported by industry."

2. The following is a list of the principal prepositions:

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What is the rule for parsing the adverb?

*Question on Prepositions.*—1. What is a preposition?
ETYMOLOGY.

Rule for Parsing the PREPOSITION
Point out the word it governs.

EXAMPLES.

*Turn to me.*

_Turn_—is a regular, active, intransitive verb, imperative mood, second person, singular or plural, agreeing with _thou_, or _ye_ or _you_ understood.

_To_—is a preposition and shows the relation between the verb _turn_ and the pronoun _me_.

_Me_—a personal pronoun, first person, singular number, and in the objective case, governed by the preposition “to,” according to Rule 5th.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

I went from Boston to Providence.
He fought for glory. She ran into the room.
Without charity he supported himself with credit.

CHAPTER IX.

CONJUNCTIONS.

1. A **Conjunction** is a part of speech used to connect words, clauses or sentences.

Conjunctions are divided into three chief classes, viz.: _coördinate, subordinate_ and _corresponding_.

The **Coördinate Conjunction** connects parts of equal rank, or parts that do not modify each other.

**Subordinate Conjunctions** connect parts that are of unequal rank, or parts of which one modifies the other.

A **Corresponding Conjunction** suggests another conjunction and assists it in connecting the same parts.

_And, but, or_, are the most familiar of the _coördinate conjunctions_.

*Questions on Prepositions.*—What is the rule for parsing the preposition?

*Questions on Conjunctions.*—1. What is a conjunction? How are they divided?
EXAMPLES.
The wind is blowing and the flames are spreading.
He should go, but it is impossible.
Was it thunder, or was it the firing of cannon?

If, that, because and since are the well known subordinate conjunctions.

I shall work for him, if he pay me.

Either—or; neither—nor; though—yet; both—and; as—as; whether—or; if—then, are well known corresponding conjunctions.

EXAMPLES.

Rule for Parsing the CONJUNCTION

State whether it is co-ordinate, subordinate or corresponding, and point out the words or sentences it connects.

EXAMPLES.

John and Charles. He tried, but he failed.

John—is a proper noun, &c.
And—is a co-ordinate conjunction, uniting John and Charles.
The pupil should observe that John and Charles are the same parts of speech.
Charles—a proper noun, &c.
He—is a personal pronoun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, and nominative case.
Tried—a regular, active, intransitive verb, indicative mood, imperfect tense, third person, singular number, to agree with its nominative “he.”
But—is a co-ordinate conjunction and connects the sentences “he tried” and “he failed.” Because it expresses opposition of meaning, it is often called a disjunctive conjunction.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

John and David are good boys.
Though often advised, yet he did not reform.
Neither prosperity nor adversity improved him.
Henry is esteemed, because he is obedient.
I will submit, for it is vain to contend.

What is the rule for parsing the conjunction?
CHAPTER X.

INTERJECTIONS.

1. **Interjections** are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence to express the passion or emotion of the speaker: as, "Oh! I have alienated my friend; Alas! I fear for life."

2. Interjections are of various kinds: First, of **Surprise**: as, Really! sure! strange! Second, of **Grief** or **Earnestness**: as, Ah! alas! O! Third, of **Contempt**: as, Pho! fie! fudge! Fourth, of **Calling**: as, Lo! behold! hark! halloo! ho! Fifth, of **Saluting**: as, Welcome! hail! all hail!

*Note.*—Some grammarians prefer to call these words exclamations.

**Rule for Parsing the INTERJECTION.**

Tell its kind.

**Example.**

*Alas! I fear.*

*Alas*—is an interjection of grief or earnestness.

*I*—a personal pronoun, first person, &c.

*Fear*—is a regular, active, intransitive verb, indicative mood, present tense, first person, singular, &c.

**Exercises for Parsing.**

O Peace! how desirable thou art.
Strange! that he has not come.
Hail! my friend. Behold! I am here.
Hark! the drum beats; and now adieu!

*Questions on Interjections.*—1. What is an Interjection?
2. What are the various kinds?
3. What is the rule for parsing the Interjection?
PART III.

SYNTAX

1. The third part of Grammar is Syntax, which treats of the agreement and construction of words in sentences.

A Sentence is an assemblage of words, making complete sense. Sentences are of three kinds, simple, complex and compound.

A Simple Sentence has in it but one subject and one finite verb: as, “Life is short.”

A Complex Sentence contains an independent and one or more dependent clauses. An independent clause is one that, standing alone, makes complete sense. A dependent clause does not make complete sense when standing alone. The relative pronouns and the subordinate conjunctions play a very important part in the formation of complex sentences.

They who are set to rule over others, must be just. In this complex sentence it is clear that the principal or independent clause is, they must be just. Taken alone, it makes sense. The subordinate, or dependent, clause is, who are set to rule over others.

A Compound Sentence consists of two or more simple sentences bound together: as, “Life is short and art is long.”

A Phrase is two or more words, forming generally a part of a sentence: as, “He endeavored, in a particular manner, to show his friendship.” “It is, by no means, just.”

2. Principal parts of a simple sentence are the subject, the predicate and the object.

Questions on Syntax.—1. What is the third part of grammar, and of what does it treat? What is a sentence? How many kinds of sentences? What is a phrase?
The subject is that which is spoken of; the predicate is what is said of the subject. It must contain a verb. The object is the person or thing affected by the predicate verb.

The nominative denotes the subject, and usually goes before the verb or attribute; and the word or phrase denoting the object follows the verb: as, “A wise man governs his passions.” Here, a wise man is the subject; governs his passions, the predicate, or thing affirmed, and passions, the object. It will be observed that the object is included in the predicate.

Note.—Besides the division of sentences into simple, complex and compound, they are also divided into Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamatory. By the first, something is declared or explained: as, “I write; he is loved;” by the second, a question is asked: as, “Was it John?” by the third, a command is given: as, “Go, thou traitor.” The following is an Exclamatory sentence: “Ah! few shall part where many meet!”

3. Syntax principally consists of two parts, Concord and Government.

Concord is the agreement of one word with another in gender, number, case or person. Government is that power which one part of speech has over another in directing its mood, tense or case.

**METHOD OF ANALYZING SENTENCES.**

**THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.**

*Hard things become easy by use.*

This is a simple declarative sentence. Its logical subject is “hard things;” its grammatical subject is the noun things, which is modified by the adjective hard. The predicate of the sentence is, become easy by use. This consists of the predicate verb become, which is modified by the phrase by use. This phrase is made up of the preposition by and its object use. Easy is the predicate adjective.

*Questions on Syntax.—2. What is the subject? Predicate? The object? What is said of the nominative, &c.? 3. Of what does Syntax consist? What is concord? What is government?*
THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

Many are the trials of the virtuous, but their reward will be great.

This is a compound declarative sentence, consisting of two members. The first member (or clause) is, the trials of the virtuous are many; the second member is, their reward will be great. The connective is the coordinate conjunction but. The trials of the virtuous—logical subject of first member. Trials—grammatical subject, modified by article the and the phrase of the virtuous. This consists of the preposition of and its object virtuous, which is modified by the article the.

Are many—the predicate.
Are—predicate-verb.
Many—predicate-adjective.
But—has already been disposed of.
Their reward—logical subject of second member.
Reward—grammatical subject, modified by the possessive pronoun their.
Will be great—predicate.
Will be—predicate-verb.
Great—predicate-adjective.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

The village lay by a stream, which we crossed.

This is a complex declarative sentence of which the principal clause is, the village lay by a stream; the dependent clause is, which we crossed. The relative which is the connective.

The village—logical subject.
Village—grammatical subject, modified by the article the.
Lay by a stream—predicate.
Lay—predicate-verb. It is modified by the adverbial phrase by a stream. This consists of the preposition by and its object stream, which is modified by the article a. The subject of the dependent clause is we; the predicate is crossed.

We see that the dependent clause is connected with the word stream in the principal clause.

In the manner of the preceding models, analyze the following sentences.
SYNTAX.

SIMPLE.

The garden produced weeds and flowers. No hope for me remains.

Slowly and sadly they climb the distant mountains. Occasionally at Oxford I saw Levana in my dreams.

COMPLEX.

That the earth is round, is now well known. Whether we should go, was next discussed. We found several pieces of flint that the Indians had used. It is evident that he must soon fail.

COMPOUND.

Times change and men change with them. Caesar crossed the Rubicon and Pompey prepared for battle.

Smack went the whip, round went the wheels. What in me is dark, illumine; what is low, raise and support.—This is a compound imperative sentence, consisting of two complex members.

ANALYSIS BY USE OF DIAGRAM.

When Caesar had crossed the Rubicon, Pompey prepared for battle.

To ascertain what kind of a sentence this is, the student should read its two parts separately. When this has been done, he will have little difficulty in determining which clause is grammatically complete by itself. If he read the first, when Caesar had crossed the Rubicon, he will perceive instantly that something is lacking to make it complete. If, then, he try the second, Pompey prepared for battle, he must see at once that this is a complete sentence. The union of an independent and a dependent clause is called a complex sentence, and the structure of that given above may be analyzed in the manner following:

```
Pompey | prepared
       | for battle
       | when
Cæsar | had crossed | Rubicon | the
```
The man who hesitates when danger is at hand, is lost.

The preceding sentence contains two dependent clauses; the subject of the first dependent clause is the relative pronoun who, which is also the connective; the subject of the second clause is danger. In the principal clause the word lost is the predicate-adjective.

'Twas I that led the Highlanders
Through deep Lochaber's snows.

In the principal clause the subject is 't (contraction of it), the predicate-verb, was, and the predicate-nominative I. The pronoun that is both the connective and the subject of the dependent clause. The predicate-verb led is modified by the adverbial phrase through deep Lochaber's snows. This consists of the preposition through and its object snows. This, in turn, is qualified by the proper noun Lochaber's, which is itself modified by the adjective deep.

Before attempting to analyze a sentence like the following, it is better first to arrange it according to rhetorical rules:

They met a boy at the bridge, who showed them the way.
By juxtaposition the pronoun *who* seems to refer to *bridge*. Its real antecedent is apparent when the sentence is reconstructed thus: *at the bridge they met a boy, who showed them the way.*

The dependent clause has for its subject the pronoun *who*, which also connects the principal and the dependent clause. Its predicate-verb is *showed*, and the clause has a direct object (*way*) and an indirect object (*them*).

*Variety's the very spice of life*  
*That gives it all its flavour.*

In this sentence *spice* is the predicate nominative and is modified by the dependent clause. The subject and the connective is *that*; there is a direct and an indirect object.

While grammatical analysis can not be reduced to a piece of mechanism, the use of diagrams has often been found valuable, especially by beginners. If the teacher prefers to ignore this method, he may employ that suggested in the preceding section.
A Verb must agree with its subject in number and person: as, "I learn," "Thou art improved," "The birds sing."

Note 1.—The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, is sometimes put as nominative case to the verb: as, "To see the sun is pleasant;" "A desire to excel others in virtue and learning, is commendable." The infinitive mood may also be taken as the objective case after an active verb: as, "The boys love to play;" "The girls love to work." The infinitive mood in both the above instances has much the nature of a substantive, expressing the action itself which the verb signified; for the sentence, "The boys love to play," is the same as, "The boys love _play_; The girls love _work_," &c.

Note 2.—Every form of the verb, except the infinitive mood or participle, ought to have a nominative case either expressed or implied: as, "Awake, arise;" that is, "Awake _ye_, arise _ye_.

Note 3.—Every nominative case, except the case absolute and when an address is made to a person, should belong to some verb either expressed or implied: as, "Who wrote this book?" "John," that is, "John wrote it."

Note 4.—When a verb comes between two nouns, either of which may be understood as the subject of the affirmation, it may agree with either of them, but most generally with that which stands nearest to it: as, "His meat _was_ locusts and wild honey;" "The wages of sin is death."

Note 5.—When the nominative case has no personal tense of the verb, but is placed before a participle, independent of the rest of the sentence, it is called the case _absolute:_ as, "_Shame_ being lost, all _virtue_ is lost."

Note 6.—The nominative case is generally placed before the verb; but it is sometimes put after the verb in a simple tense, and between the verb or participle in a compound tense. The following are the principal cases, in which the verb precedes the nominative.

First.—When a question is asked, a command given, or a wish expressed: as, "Confidest thou in me? Read thou. Long live the king."

Second.—When a supposition is made without the conjunction _if:_ as, "Were it not for this;" "Had I been there,"

Third.—When the verb is preceded by the adverbs, _here, there, them, thus,_ &c.: as, "Here am I; There was he slain; Then went one of the twelve; Thus ended the affair."
Observations.—The phrases, *as follows, as appears*, &c., are sometimes called impersonal verbs, and should be confined to the singular number, and *such as follow, such as appear, to the plural;* they have the following construction: "*as it follows: as it appears;* the arguments were *such as follow," &c. The expressions, *methinks* and *methought,* seem to be an exception to Rule I: as, "*Methinks I hear;" "Methought that all was lost." The pronoun in the first person singular and in the objective case, is taken as nominative to the verb in the third person singular. These anomalies in the language are few, and seem to wear, in some respects, the character of adverbial phrases.

The pupils may be required to correct the exercises that follow the rules, either in writing or verbally, at the discretion of the teacher; it would, however, be better to allow them, while they are studying the grammar for the first time, to correct the exercises verbally, and afterwards, to furnish a written correction of the same. The numbers to the exercises correspond with the numbers attached to the notes under the respective rule. As the rules of Syntax are generally short, questions on them have been dispensed with.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

The school of experience teach many useful lessons. Disappointments sinks the heart of man, but the renewal of hope give consolation. The fame of this person, and of his actions, were diffused throughout the country. The inquisitive is generally talkative. What signifies good opinions, when our conduct is bad. We may suppose there was more impostors than one. I have considered, what have been said on both sides. If thou would be healthy, live temperately. He canst not blame me.

To live soberly and piously are required of all men. To restrain their passions, are their delight; to conquer evil habits, are their glory. To be temperate in eating and drinking, to take exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind free from tumultuous emotions, is the best preservatives of health. That it is our duty to promote the purity of our minds and bodies, to be just and kind to our fellow creatures, and to be faithful to Him that made us, admit not of any doubt in a rational mind. The industrious love to work. The vain love to be admired. The studious desire to improve.

If the privileges, which he has long enjoyed, should now be wrested from him, would be a flagrant injustice. These articles we imported from China, and are similar to those which we brought from Africa.

Virtue, however it may be neglected for a time, men are so constituted as ultimately to acknowledge genuine merit.
The crown of virtue is peace and honor. His chief occupation and employment, were controversy.

Him being destroyed, the place may be easily taken. The business being concluded, the Senate adjourned. The cloth being removed from the table, he desired the servant to bring in the wine. Charles being absent, Henry was unable to perform the task.

Note.—In the last three sentences no errors will be found. The pupil is only required to point out the case absolute.

RULE II.

Two or more nouns, or a noun and a pronoun, in the singular number, connected by a coördinate conjunction, expressed or understood, must have verbs, nouns and pronouns agreeing with them in the plural number: as, "Socrates and Plato were wise; they were the most eminent philosophers of Greece."

Note 1.—If the singular nouns and pronouns, which are connected by a coördinate conjunction, be of several persons, in making the plural pronoun agree with them in person, the second takes place of the third, and the first of both: as, "Thou and he may share it between you;" "James, and thou and I, are attached to our country."

Note 2.—When a coördinate conjunction connects two or more nouns, which refer to the same person or thing, the verb, noun or pronoun should be in the singular number: as, "That illustrious patriot and statesman is no more, he has passed from the stage of existence."

Observation.—When the nouns are nearly related or hardy distinguishable in sense, and sometimes even when they are very different, some authors have thought it allowable to put the verbs, nouns and pronouns in the singular number: as, "Tranquillity and peace dwells here." They support this construction by saying that the verb may be understood: as, "Tranquillity dwells here and peace dwells here;" but it is evidently contrary to the first principles of grammar to consider two distinct ideas as one.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

The prince and the people was to blame. Virtue, honor, nay, even self-interest, conspires to recommend the measure. Tranquility and peace dwells here. In unity consists the welfare and security of every society. Time and tide waits for no man. Patience and diligence, like faith, removes
mountains. Washington and Jefferson was patriots, they
was devoted to his country.

Thou, the gardener, and the huntsman, may share the
blame between them. Henry, John, and I, are daily em-
ployed at their respective occupations.

RULE III.

When a disjunctive conjunction occurs between two
nouns or pronouns, the verb, noun, or pronoun referring
to them must be in the singular number: as, "Ignorance
or negligence has caused this mistake;" "John, James or
Joseph intends to accompany me."

Note 1.—When singular nouns, or a noun and a pronoun of
different persons, are disjunctively connected, the verb must
agree with that person which is placed nearest to it: as, "I
or thou art to blame;" "Thou or I am in fault."

Note 2.—When a disjunctive occurs between a singular
noun or pronoun, and a plural one, the verb must agree
with the plural noun or pronoun: as, "Neither poverty nor
riches were injurious to them;" "I or they were offended by
it." But the plural noun or pronoun, when it can be con-
veniently done, should be placed next to the verb.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

In many minds there are neither knowledge nor under-
standing. Speaking impatiently, or anything that betrays
inattention or ill-humor, are certainly criminal. When sick-
ness, infirmity or reverse of fortune afflict us, the sincerity
of friendship is proved. Death, or some worse misfortune,
soon separate them.

Either thou or I art mistaken. I or thou am the person.
Thou or he art the man. George or I has written.

Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, was present.
The ship was recovered, but neither the captain nor sailors
was saved. The deceitfulness of riches or the cares of life,
has choked the seeds of virtue in many a promising mind.

RULE IV.

Active-transitive verbs govern the objective case: as,
"Truthennobles her;" "She comforts me;" "He closed
the book;" "Virtue rewards her followers."
Note 1.—Neuter verbs of motion and change are varied like the active, and also admit the passive form, retaining still the neuter signification: as, “I come, Thou comest, He comes. I go. He goes.” &c. Passive form, “I am come, Thou art come, He is come, I am gone, He is gone,” &c.

Note 2.—Some writers use certain neuter verbs as if they were active, putting after them the objective case, agreeably to the French construction of reciprocal verbs; but this custom is so foreign to the English idiom that it ought to be avoided: as, “The king soon found reason to repent him of his design.”

Observation.—Sometimes a part of a sentence is taken as the objective case after an active-transitive verb: as, “Let us consider, how pleasing is the practice of virtue, and how great will be her reward.”

Neuter verbs never act upon, or govern an objective case; but certain active-intransitive verbs admit after them, in a few instances, an object, and may in those cases be taken as active-transitive: as, “To dream a dream; He runs a race; He walks the horse; She danced the child.”

Active-transitive verbs are sometimes improperly made intransitive: as, “He thinks to ingratiate with him by calumniating me,” it should be “to ingratiate himself.”

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, can not relish the simple pleasures of nature. He and they we know. The man, who he raised from obscurity, is dead. Who did they entertain so freely? That is the friend, who you should receive. He invited my brother and I to see him. He who committed the offense, you should correct, and not I, who am innocent. They who he had most injured he had the greatest reason to love.

If such maxims and such practices prevail, what has become of decency and virtue? The whole obligation of that law and covenant was also ceased. The mighty rivals are now at length agreed. He was entered into the connection, before the consequences were considered.

RULE V.

Prepositions govern the objective case: as, “I have heard a good character of her;” “From him that is needy, turn not away.”

Note 1.—The prepositions to, for, and from, are often understood, chiefly before pronouns: as, “Give me the book; Get me the paper;” that is, “to me, for me.”
Note 2.—The preposition is often improperly separated from the relative which it governs: as, "Whom will I give it to?" instead of, "To whom will I give it?"

Participles are sometimes used as prepositions; such as, excepting, respecting, concerning, &c., as, "He said nothing concerning my friend."

Observation.—Different relations, and different senses, must be expressed by different prepositions: Thus we say, "He conversed with a person, upon the subject, in a certain house."

An accurate and appropriate use of prepositions is of great importance.

First. The preposition of is often improperly used for on in, &c.: as, "He is resolved of going to the city;" "on going." "He was dependent of the crown;" "on the crown." "He was eager of recommending it;" "in recommending it."

Second. To and for are often incorrectly used for other prepositions: as, "You have bestowed your favors to the most deserving person;" "upon the most," &c. "He was accused for betraying the interests of the country;" "of betraying," &c. "In compliance to the declaration;" "with the declaration," &c.

Thirdly. With respect to the prepositions, with, on, upon, in, from, &c., they are frequently misapplied: as, "He reconciled himself with the king;" "to the king;" "Had I thought on it, I would have done it;" "thought of it;" "They should be informed in some parts of his character;" "about or concerning some parts." "He took them into his charge," "under his charge." "He should profit from experience;" "by experience." The preposition to is put before nouns of place, when preceded by verbs of motion; as, "I went to the city."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

We are all accountable creatures, each for hiszelf. To who will I give it? It is not with I that he is engaged. They willingly, and of theirselves endeavored to take up the defence. He laid the suspicion upon somebody, I know not who, in the company. He is a friend, who I am highly indebted to. Who do you speak to?

To have a friend whom we heartily wish well to, and whom we are warmly concerned for, is a deplorable state. Whom did you receive it from?

There was no water and he died for thirst. We can fully confide on none but the truly good. I have no occasion of his services. Many have profited from his advice.
Rule VI.

Participles derived from active-transitive verbs govern the objective case: as, "Seeing his friend in distress, he assisted him;" "Having finished the letter, he sent it to the office;" "Having finished his work, he submitted it."

Note 1.—When the perfect participle and imperfect tense are different in form, the latter must not be used for the former: as, it is improper to say, "He begun; He run; They come, Charles done it;" it should be, "He began; He ran; They came; Charles did it."

Note 2.—When a participle, whether simple or compound, is taken as the subject of a verb, or the object of an action, or of a relation, it is called a participial noun, and may be used in the nominative or objective case: as, "Reading is useful;" "He commenced at the beginning;" "Much depends on the rules being observed."

Note 3.—A participial noun may govern the objective case: as, "John was sent to prepare the way by preaching repentance, and by instructing the people;" "Her employment is drawing maps."

Note 4.—When a pronoun precedes the participial noun, the preposition of should follow it: as, "Much depends on their observing of the rule."

Observation.—In some cases, when the participial noun is preceded by the article a, an, or the, it may admit the preposition of after it: as, "This is a betraying of our trust;" "By the observing of the rules, you may avoid mistakes." Participles are sometimes used without reference to any noun: as, "Generally speaking, his conduct was good."

Exercises for Correction.

I could not avoid considering they, in some degree, as enemies to me. Suspecting not only thou, but they also, I have avoided all intercourse.

By being too eager in the pursuit, he run a great risk of being disappointed. He was greatly heated, and drunk with avidity. He begun the work early. They have forgot it. He has mistook his true interest and he now finds himself forsook by former friends. The coat had no seam, but it was wove throughout. The French language is much spoke.

Rule VII.

Part 1.—One substantive governs another signifying a different thing in the possessive case: as, "My father's house;" "Man's happiness;" "Virtue's reward."
Part 2.—Pronouns in the possessive case are governed by the nouns which follow them: as, “Every tree is known by its fruit.”

Note 1.—When several nouns come together in the possessive case, the apostrophe with the letter s, is annexed to the last, and in case of the others is understood: as, John and Eliza’s books;” “This is my father, mother and uncle’s advice.” But if any words intervene, it is proper that the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each: as, “They are John’s, as well as Eliza’s books.”

Note 2.—In poetry the additional s is frequently omitted, but the apostrophe retained: as, “The wrath of Peleus’ son. Sometimes also the apostrophic s is omitted even in prose, particularly when it occasions a hissing sound, or a difficulty of pronunciation: as, for conscience’ sake;” “For goodness’ sake.”

Note 3.—Little explanatory circumstances should not be used between the possessive case and the words which follow it: as, “She extolled her friend’s, as she called him, excellent work;” it ought to be, “She extolled her friend’s excellent work, as she called him;” or better, “the excellent work of her friend.”

Note 4.—When a sentence contains terms signifying a name and an office, that which signifies the name of the person, should be put in the possessive case: as, “I left the parcel at Smith’s the bookseller.”

A phrase in which the words are so closely connected as to admit of no pause before the conclusion, requires the possessive sign at or near the end of the phrase: as, “Whose prerogative is it? It is the king of Great Britain’s;” “The lord mayor of London’s authority.” Nouns in apposition which follow each other in quick succession, have also the possessive sign: as, “The emperor Leopold’s;” “For David my servant’s sake.”

But when a pause is proper, and the governing word not expressed, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to the first, and understood in case of the rest: as, “I reside at Lord Stanford’s, my old patron and benefactor.

But when several subjects are considered as belonging separately to distinct individuals, the names of the individuals should have the sign of the possessive annexed to each of them: as, “These are Henry’s, William’s, and Joseph’s estates.” It is, however, better to say, “The estates belong in common to Henry, William, and Joseph.”

Note 5.—If the application of the possessive case should occasion an unpleasant sound, the particle of, which expresses the same relation, should be used in its place: as,
“The general in the army’s name;” it should be, in the name of the army; “The common’s vote;” “Of the commons;” “The country’s condition;” “Of the country;” “The king in Parliament’s name;” “in the name of Parliament.”

Note 6.—In some cases both the possessive termination and the preposition of may be used: as, “It is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton’s.”

Observation.—The pronoun his, when used apart from the noun to which it relates, is to be considered as the possessive case of the personal pronoun; but when united with a noun, it should be regarded as a possessive adjective pronoun: as, “The book is not mine, but his;” “This composition is his;” “His house, his hat.”

When an entire clause of a sentence, beginning with a present participle, is used as one name, or to express an idea of circumstance, the noun on which it depends may be put in the possessive case: as, “Much will depend on the pupil’s composing, but more on his reading frequently.”

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

My ancestors virtue is not mine. His brothers offence will not condemn him. I will not destroy the city for ten sake’s. A mothers tenderness’ and a fathers care, are natures gifts’ for mans advantage. A mans manner’s frequently influences his fortune.

It was the men’s, women’s, and children’s lot to suffer. Peter’s, John’s, and Andrew’s occupation, was that of fishermen.

And he cast himself down at Jesus feet. Moses rod was turned into a serpent. For Herodias sake, his brother Philip’s wife.

They condemned the prodigal’s, as he was called, extravagant conduct. They obeyed the protector’s, as they styled him, imperious mandates.

I bought the paper at Moore’s the bookseller’s. The silk was purchased at Brown’s, the mercer’s. This palace had been the grand sultan’s Mahomet’s.

The world’s government is not left to chance. She married my son’s wife’s brother. It is not necessary to have the physician’s and surgeon’s advice.

This picture of the king’s does not much resemble him. The estate of the corporation’s is much encumbered.

What can be the cause of Parliament neglecting the business? Much depends on the rule being observed. The time of William making the experiment arrived.
Syntax.

RULE VIII.

One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it, in the infinitive mood: as, "Cease to do evil;" "Learn to do well;" "We ought to love our enemies."

Note 1.—When the infinitive mood is preceded by the verbs bid, dare, need, see, make, hear, feel and let, the sign to is generally omitted: as, "I bade him do it; You dare not strike him; They need not proceed; I saw him do it; I heard him say it; Let Charles read."

Note 2.—The infinitive mood is frequently governed by adjectives, nouns, and participles: as, "He is eager to learn;" "They have a desire to improve;" "Endeavoring to persuade."

Note 3.—The infinitive mood is sometimes made absolute: as, "To confess the truth, I was in fault."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

I dare not to proceed so hastily, lest I should give offence. He bade his friend to receive the favor. We have seen him to go into the house. They heard the bird to sing. Let the boy to read. He made me to do it. I bid him to say it. The multitude wondered when they saw the lame to walk, and the blind to see. Charles saw him to commit the fault. Let the bird to go.

RULE IX.

The verb To be, through all its variations, has the same case after it as before it: as, "I am he;" "Idleness is the parent of many vices;" "We, at first, took it to be her."

Note 1.—When the verb to be is understood, it has also the same case before and after it: as, "He seems the leader of the party;" that is, "to be the leader," &c.

Note 2.—Passive verbs which signify naming, calling, &c., and certain neuter verbs, have the same case before and after them: as, "He was called Caesar;" "She was named Mary;" "The general was saluted emperor;" "Homer is styled the prince of poets;" "He became my friend."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

You may be afraid, it is him, indeed. Be composed, it is me. I would act the same part, if I were him. He so much
resembled my brother, that at first sight, I took it to be he. After all their professions, can it be them. If it were not him, who do you imagine it to have been? Whom do you think he to be?

RULE X.

When two or more nouns come together and signify the same thing, they are put, by apposition, in the same case: as, “Johnson, the Senator, has arrived;” “Cicero, the orator;” “I consulted Williams, the lawyer.”

Note 1.—Nouns which are placed by apposition in the same case always agree in number and person: as, “I, Paul the Apostle, write to you;” “We, the representatives of the people.”

Note 2.—Nouns are frequently put in apposition to pronouns, and sometimes to sentences, or parts of sentences: as, “I, the president of the association.” “Can matter exist and not exist at the same time? an absurdity too gross to be confuted.”

Note 3.—When an address is made, the person or thing addressed is the nominative in apposition to thou, ye or you, generally understood; this is sometimes called the nominative case independent: as, “John, assist me;” that is, “thou John;” “Gentlemen of the jury;” “ye or you, gentlemen;” “Oh, my country.”

Note 4.—Nouns used to describe other nouns, stand in apposition to the nouns they describe: John Hickman, of Baltimore city, sold the book;” “William Henry Harrison was president. Most grammarians would parse John Hickman as a proper noun.

Observation.—Nouns in apposition appear to be thus situated merely for the sake of brevity; the interposition of the relative and the verb, will generally break the construction: as, “George I., king of Great Britain;” that is, “George I., who was king,” &c.; “Cicero, the orator;” “Cicero, who is styled the orator.” The words king and orator, in these sentences, are in the nominative case, according to Rule IX.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Johnson, the senators, will propose the measure. I, James the first, kings of England. I sent it to ye the printer. Taylor, the generals of the army, send this order to Hamilton, the commanders of the fort. I Cæsar, the consuls, issue the proclamation. We, the representative of the people, in congress assembled, assume the responsibility that may follow from this measure.
**Rule XI.**

**Part 1.**—Pronouns must always agree with their antecedents, and nouns for which they stand in gender and number: as, “This is the friend whom I love;” “That is the vice which I hate;” “The king and the queen have put on their robes.

**Part 2.**—The relative is of the same person as the antecedent, and the verb agrees with it accordingly: as, “Thou who loveth wisdom;” “I who speak from experience.”

**Note 1.**—Personal pronouns being used to supply the place of the noun, are not employed in the same part of a sentence as the noun which they represent: as, “The king, he is just;” “I saw her, the queen;” it should be, “The king is just;” “I saw the queen.”

**Note 2.**—The pronoun *that* is frequently applied to persons, as well as to things, but after an adjective in the superlative degree, and the word same, it is generally used in preference to *who* or *which*: as, “Catiline’s followers were the most profligate, *that* could be found in any city;” “He is the same man *that* I saw before.”

There are cases in which we can not conveniently dispense with this relative.

First, after *who*, when used as an interrogative: as, “Who that has any sense of religion, would have argued thus?”

Secondly, when persons make up a part of the antecedent: “The woman, and the estate, *that* became his fortune.” This has already been referred to as a *mixed antecedent*.

**Note 3.**—The pronouns *whichever*, *whosoever*, &c., are elegantly divided by the interposition of the corresponding noun: as, “On which side soever he cast his eyes.”

**Note 4.**—The objective case of the personal pronouns is often improperly put for *these* and *those*: as, “Give me them books,” instead of “*those* books.” The nominative case, however, is generally used in preference to *those*: as, “They who weep,” instead of “*Those* who weep.”

**Note 5.**—The word *what* is sometimes improperly used for *that*: as, “They will not believe, but *what* I have been entirely to blame;” “*but that.*”

**Note 6.**—The relative pronoun *who*, should be confined to the proper names of persons, or to the general terms of men, women, &c., except when a term directly implies persons. The following examples are therefore incorrect: “The fac-
tion who; France who; the court who;" which should be used.

Note 7.—The application of the relative who to very young children seems to carry with it a harshness: as, "The child who." It is still more improperly applied to animals: as, "The fowl whom nature has taught."

Note 8.—When the name of a person is used merely as a name, and does not refer to the person, the relative who ought not to be applied: as, "It is no wonder if such a man did not shine at court; who was but another name for prudence and economy." Better thus, "whose name was," &c. Which is used to distinguish one of two persons: as, "Which of the two?"

Note 9.—The interjections, O! Oh! and Ah! require the objective case of a pronoun in the first person after them: as, "O me! Oh me! Ah me!" But the nominative case of the second person: as, "O thou persecutor! Oh ye hypocrites!"

Note 10.—It is and it was, are often used in a plural construction: as, "It is a few great men, who decide." "It was the heretics, that first began to rail."

Observation.—Every relative ought to have an antecedent to which it refers, expressed or implied: as, who is fatal to others, is so to himself;" that is, "the man who." The relative sometimes refers to the whole or to a part of a sentence: as, "The resolution was offered, and adopted without due consideration, which produced great dissatisfaction."

Whatever relative is used in a series of clauses relating to the same antecedent, the same relative ought generally to be used in them all.

The following sentence is therefore incorrect: as, "It is remarkable that his proposition, against which so much has been said, and that, at first, was so much condemned, has finally triumphed;" it should have been, "and which at first," &c.

The neuter pronoun it, by an idiom peculiar to the English language, is frequently joined in an explanatory sentence, to a noun or pronoun of the masculine or the feminine gender: as, "It was I." "It was a man or a woman." It is often omitted: thus we say, "As appears; as follows;" for, "As it appears," &c.

The neuter pronoun it, is sometimes employed to express:

First, the subject of a discourse or inquiry: as, "It happened on a summer's day." "Who is it that calls me?"

Second, the state or condition of any person or thing: as, "How is it with you?"

Third, the thing that is the cause of any effect or event, or any person considered merely as the cause: as, "We heard
her say, it was not he.” “The truth is, it was I that sent the note.”

Care should be taken in the position of the relative, that no ambiguity may arise in the use of it: as, when we say, “The disciples of Christ whom we imitate,” we mean either the imitation of Christ or his disciples.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

They which seek wisdom will certainly find her. The male among birds seems to discover no beauty, but in the color of its species. Rebecca took goodly raiment which were with her in the house and put them upon Jacob. The wheel killed another man, which is the sixth, which lost their lives by this means. The fair sex, whose task is not to mingle in the labors of public life, has its own part to act.

I do not think that any one should incur censure for being careful of their reputation. Thou who has been a witness of the fact, can give an account of it.

Whoever entertains such an opinion, he judges erroneously. The cares of this world, they often choke the growth of virtue. Disappointments and afflictions, they often improve us.

Moses was the meekest man whom we read of in the Old Testament. Humility is one of the most amiable virtues which we can possess. They are the same persons who assisted us yesterday.

Howsoever beautiful they appear, they have no real merit. On whichever side they are contemplated.

Which of them two persons has most distinguished himself. None suffer injuries more impatiently than those that are most forward in committing them.

He would not be persuaded but what I was in fault.

He instructed and fed the crowds who surrounded him. The court, who gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary. He was the ablest minister, which James possessed. I am happy in the friend which I have long proved.

The child whom you have just seen. He is like a beast of prey, who destroys without pity.

Having once disgusted him, he could never regain the favor of Nero, who was another name of cruelty. Flattery, whose nature is to deceive, should be avoided.

Ah! unhappy thee. Oh! happy we surrounded by so many blessings. Ah I!

It is remarkable his continual endeavors to serve us after our ingratitude toward him.
rule xii.

Part 1.—The relative is the nominative case to the verb, when no nominative comes between it and the verb: as, “The master who taught us;” “The trees which were planted.”

Part 2.—When a nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is governed by some word in its own member of the sentence: as, “He who preserves me, to whom I owe my being, and whom I serve, is eternal.”

Note.—When a question is asked, the noun or pronoun containing the answer must be in the same case as that which contains the question: as, “Whose books are these?” “They are John’s.” “Of whom did he buy them?” Of the bookseller.”

Observation.—When the antecedent and relative both become nominatives, each to different verbs, the relative is nominative to the former, and the antecedent to the latter verb: as, “True philosophy, which is the ornament of our nature, consists in the love of our duty.”

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

We are dependent on each other’s assistance; whom can subsist by himself? If he will not hear his best friend, whom will be sent to admonish him? The persons, who conscience and virtue support, may smile at the caprices of fortune. That is the student, to who I gave the book, and whom I am persuaded deserved it.

rule xiii.

When the relative is preceded by two nominatives of different persons, the relative and the verb may agree in person with either, according to the sense: as, “I am the man who command you;” or, “I am the man who commands you.”

Observation.—When the relative and the verb have been determined to agree with either of the preceding nominatives, that agreement must be preserved throughout the sentence: as, “I am the Lord, who maketh all things; and stretcheth forth the heavens.” &c.
EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

I am the teacher, who adopt that sentiment, and maintains the propriety of such measures. Thou art the man who hast often relieved me, and who has not deserted me in the hour of need. I am the man, who approves, and recommend the measure.

RULE XIV.

A collective noun, or a noun of multitude, may have a verb or pronoun agreeing with it, either in the singular or plural number, according to the unity or plurality of the idea which it conveys: as, "The meeting was large;" "The committee were divided in their opinions;" "The nation is powerful;" "My people do not consider, they have not known me."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

The people rejoices in that, which should give it sorrow. The flock, and not the fleece, are the objects of the shepherd's care. The crowd were great. The British Parliament are composed of a king, lords and commons. When a nation complain, the rulers should listen to their voice. Why do this generation look for greater evidence?

RULE XV.

Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and cases of nouns and pronouns: as, "Candor is to be approved and practiced;" "I respect and revere the man;" "John and Francis were school fellows."

Note.—Conjunctions are sometimes made to connect different moods and tenses of verbs, but in those instances, the nominative should be generally repeated: as, "He is dangerously ill, but he may recover."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Professing my regard, and to act differently, discover a base mind. My brother and him are well. You and us enjoy many privileges. She and him are very unhappily connected. To be moderate in our views, and proceeding moderately in pursuit of them, is the best way to ensure success. Between I and him there are some disparity of years.
RULE XVI.

Part 1.—Some conjunctions require the indicative, and others the subjunctive, mood after them. It is a general rule, that, when any thing contingent or doubtful is implied, the subjunctive should be used: as, “If I were to write, he would not regard it;” “He will not be pardoned unless he repent.”

Part 2.—Conjunctions that are of a positive and absolute nature, require the indicative mood: “As virtue advances, so vice recedes;” “He is healthy, because he is temperate.”

Note 1.—The conjunctions if, though, unless, except, whether, &c., generally require the subjunctive mood after them; also lest and that, when annexed to a command: as, “Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty;” “Take heed that thou speak not to Jacob.”

Note 2.—Both the indicative and subjunctive are sometimes improperly put after the same conjunction, in the same sentence, and under similar circumstances: as, “If there be but one body of legislators, it is no better than a tyranny; if there are two, there will be no casting voice;” it should be, “if there be two,” &c.

Note 3.—An ellipsis, in the conjunctive form of speech, often creates irregularities in the construction of sentences: as, “We shall overtake him though he run;” that is, “though he should run,” &c.

Note 4.—The auxiliary have, in the perfect tense of the subjunctive mood, is sometimes improperly used instead of hast and has: as, “If thou have determined, we must submit;” “Unless he have consented;” it should be, “hast determined; has consented.”

Note 5.—The auxiliaries had, shall and will, are sometimes improperly used in the pluperfect and future tenses of the subjunctive mood, instead of hadst, shalt and wilt: as, “If thou had applied thyself;” “Unless thou shall speak the truth;” “If thou will undertake the business.”

Note 6.—The auxiliaries of the potential mood, when applied to the subjunctive, do not change the termination of the second person singular; we properly say: “If thou mayst or canst go;” “Though thou mightst live,” &c. But the second person singular of the imperfect tense in the subjunctive is sometimes improperly used: as, “If thou loved him truly.” “Though thou did conform.” The verbs should be, “lovest and diest.”
Note 7.—Some conjunctions have corresponding conjunc-
tions belonging to them, either expressed or understood: as,
Though—yet, nevertheless: “Though he was rich, yet he
became poor.”
Whether—or: as, “Whether he will or not, I can not tell.”
Either—or: as, “I will either send it, or bring it myself.”
Neither—nor: as, “Neither he nor I am in fault.”
As—as and as—so: expressing a comparison of equality:
as, “She is as amiable as her sister.” “As the stars, so shall
thy seed be.”
As—so, and so—as: expressing a comparison of quality:
as, “As one dieth, so dieth the other.” “To see thy glory so
as I have seen,” &c.
So—as: with a negative and adjective, expressing a com-
parison of quality: as, “Pompey was not so great a general
as Caesar.”
So—that: expressing a consequence: as, “He was so
fatigued, that he could scarcely move.”
Observation.—Contingency and futurity both concur in the
proper use of the subjunctive mood; therefore, whenever con-
tingency and futurity are not expressed, it is not proper to
turn the verb from its signification of present time, or to
vary its form or termination.

If the person or thing, which forms the subject of dis-
course, be represented in a certain state or condition, or in
the act of performing some action, at the present time, the
verb should be in the indicative mood, although preceded
by a conjunction implying contingency: as, “Though he is
sick, he may recover.” “If he thinks as he speaks, he may
be trusted.”

In the above examples, contingency is expressed without
futurity: in the following, contingency and futurity are
both implied, and the use of the subjunctive is proper: as,
“He will not be pardoned unless he repent.” “If thou injure
another, thou wilt injure thyself. If with but following it,
when futurity is denoted, requires the subjunctive mood: as,
“If he do but touch the hills, they shall smoke.” The parti-
cle as, after the words such and many, has the force of a
relative pronoun: as, “Let such as presume.” “As many as
were ordained.”

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

If he acquires riches, they will corrupt his mind. Though
he urges me yet more earnestly, I shall not comply, unless
he advances more forcible reasons. I shall walk in the
fields to-day unless it rains. As the teacher were present,
the pupils behaved properly. She disapproved the measure, because it were very improper.

I will submit, if he convinces me of my error. Unless I am present, he will not succeed. If John was to accompany me, I would feel safe. Despise no condition of life, lest it happens to be your own. Let him that is sanguine take heed lest he miscarries. Take care that thou breakest not the rules.

If one man prefer a life of industry, it is because he has an idea of comfort in wealth; if another prefers a life of gayety, it is from a like idea concerning pleasure. No man engages in that business, unless he aim at reputation, or hopes for some advantage.

Unless he learns faster, he will be no scholar. Though he falls, he shall not be utterly cast down. On condition that he comes, I will consent to stay. Till repentance composes his mind, he will be a stranger to peace. Though virtue appear severe, she is truly amiable. Unless the account deceive me, my estate is considerably improved.

If thou have promised, be faithful to thy engagements. Though he have proved his right, he will not exact it. Unless he have improved, he is not fit for the office.

Unless thou shall see the propriety of the measure, we shall not desire thy support. Though thou will not acknowledge it, thou canst not deny the fact. If thou had succeeded in the measure.

If thou may share the labor. Unless thou can support the cause, give it up. Though thou might have foreseen the danger, thou couldst not have avoided it. If thou could convince him. If thou did send it.

Neither hunger or cold, could weaken his resolution. He is not as learned as his brother. He was so fatigued, as he could scarcely move. Charles would not eat it, nor suffer John to do so. He is not as eminent and as much esteemed, as he thinks. I will present it myself, or direct it to be given to him. I must be so candid as to own the fault. Be ready to succor such persons who need assistance. Germany ran the same risk as Italy had.

RULE XVII.

Part 1.—Every adjective, and every adjective pronoun belongs to some noun expressed or understood: as, "He is a good, as well as a wise, man;" "Few are happy;" that is, "persons."
Part 2.—Adjective pronouns must agree in number with the nouns to which they relate: as, "This book;" "these books;" "that book;" "those books;" "another road;" "other roads."

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Note 1.—The phrases this means and that means are used only in reference to the singular number: and these means and those means, in the plural: as, "By this means they escaped." "By that means he gained his point." "The pupils were attentive, industrious and obedient; and by these means they acquired knowledge."

Note 2.—When two persons or things are spoken of in a sentence, that refers to the former and this to the latter: as, "Both wealth and poverty are temptations; that, tends to excite pride; this, discontent."

Note 3.—The distributive adjective pronouns, each, every, either, agree with nouns, pronouns and verbs of the singular number only: as, "Each of the workmen received his wages." "Every tree is known by its fruit." "Either of the two is eligible."

ADJECTIVES.

Note 4.—Adjectives are sometimes improperly applied as adverbs: as, "Indifferently honest; excellently well," &c.; for "Indifferently honest; excellently well," and adverbs again are often improperly used for adjectives: as, "The tutor addressed him in terms rather warm, but suitably to his offence;" "suitable."

Note 5.—Double comparisons and superlatives should be avoided: as, "A worse conduct;" "A more serene temper;" "The most strictest sect;" it should be, "worse conduct; more serene; strictest." &c. In Shakespeare, however, we have "the most unkindest cut." The older English authors sometimes violated this rule.

Note 6.—In some cases the adjective should not be separated from the noun to which it belongs: as, "A large enough number;" it should be, "A number large enough."

Note 7.—In English the adjective is usually placed before the noun: as, "A generous man;" but it is sometimes put after the noun.

When something depends upon the adjective, or when it gives a better sound: as, "A man generous to his enemies." "A tree three feet thick."
When the adjective is emphatic: as, "Alexander the Great;" "Louis the Bold."

When several adjectives belong to the same noun: as, "A man, just, wise and charitable."

When the verb to be, in any of its forms, comes between a noun and an adjective, the adjective may either precede or follow the noun: "The man is happy, or happy is the man, who lives virtuously."

When the adjective is preceded by an adverb, or expresses some circumstance of a noun placed after an active verb: as, "A boy regularly studious." "Vanity often renders its possessor despicable."

Observation.—Adjective pronouns in the plural number will sometimes properly associate with a singular noun: as, "Our desire is that you accept the favor." "We received their resignation."

The adjective many, with the indefinite article a after it, is sometimes used with a noun in the singular number: as, "Many a gem," "Many a flower," &c. These phrases refer to many gems and many flowers, considered separately and not collectively.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

These kind of indulgences soften and injure the mind. Instead of improving yourselves, you have been playing this two hours. Those sort of favors did real injury. The board is three foot broad. How many sorrows should we avoid, if we were not industrious to make it.

Charles was extravagant, and by this mean became poor. He obtained his end by that mean. Industry is the mean of obtaining competency.

Religion raises man above himself; irreligion sinks him beneath the brutes; that, binds him down to a poor, pitiable speck of perishable earth; this, opens for him a prospect to the skies.

Each of them, in their turn, receive the benefits to which they are entitled. Every person, whatever be their station, are bound by the duties of morality and religion. Every leaf, and drop of water, teem with life. Neither of those men have an idea, that their opinions are ill-founded. On either sides of the river.

She reads proper, writes neat, and composes accurate. He was extreme prodigal, and his property is now near exhausted. They live conformable to the rules. We may reason very clear. He was exceeding beloved. He came agreeable to his promise, and conducted himself suitable to the occasion. He speaks fluent, and reads excellent. He
Syntax.

lived agreeable to the dictates of reason. The study of Syntax should be previously to that of punctuation.

It is more easier to build two chimnies than to maintain one. The nightingale has the most sweetest voice in the grove. That is the most elegantest tree on the farm. She is more beautifuler than her sister. The Supreme Being is the most wisest and most best of beings.

He spoke in a distinct enough manner to be heard by the whole assembly. Thomas has received a new pair of gloves; he lives with an old rich man. The two first in the row are cherry trees, the two others are pear trees.

RULE XVIII.

Two negatives in the same sentence are equivalent to an affirmative: as, "His language was not ungrammatical;" that is, "it was grammatical." He need not do nothing;" that is, "he should do something."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Neither riches, nor honors, nor no such perishable things, can satisfy the desires of an immortal spirit. There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity. They did not receive no letter. I am resolved not to comply with no proposals they may offer.

RULE XIX.

Part 1.—The indefinite article agrees with nouns in the singular number only, individually or collectively: as, "A Christian;" "An infidel;" "A score;" "A thousand."

Part 2.—The definite article may agree with nouns, either in the singular or plural number: as, "The garden;" "The house;" "The stars."

Note 1.—The articles are often properly omitted: when used, they should be justly applied, according to their distinct nature: as, "Charity is a virtue." "The sea is green." "A lion is bold."

Note 2.—It may, in general, be sufficient to prefix the article to the former of two words, in the same sentence, unless for the sake of emphasis: as, "He sold the house and farm." "It was for the benefit of the widow, and the orphans."

Observation.—A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made, by either the use or omission of the article a: If I
say, "He behaved with a little reverence;" the meaning is positive; if I say, "He behaved with little reverence," the meaning is negative. In common conversation or in familiar style, we frequently omit the articles which might be inserted in writing, especially in a grave style: as, "At worst, time might be gained by this expedient." "At the worst." "Give me here John Baptist's head." "John the Baptist's."

**EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.**


The fire, the air, the earth, and the water, are four elements of the philosophers. The reason was given to man, to control his passions. A man is the noblest work of the creation. Wisest and best men sometimes commit errors.

He bought the house and the garden. He paid for the hat and the coat. The fear of shame and desire of approbation prevent many bad actions. He was influenced by a just and generous principle.

**RULE XX.**

In the use of words and phrases which in point of time relate to each other, a due regard to that relation should be carefully observed: as, "The Lord hath given, and the Lord hath taken away;" it should be, "The Lord gave and the Lord hath taken away."

Note 1.—Verbs that express desire, hope, intention or command, must invariably be followed by the present, and not the perfect of the infinitive mood: as, "It is now a long time since I commanded him to have done it;" it should be, "to do it."

Observation.—When the action or event, signified by the verb in the infinitive mood, is contemporary or future with respect to the verb to which it is chiefly related, the present of the infinitive should be used: as, "Last week I intended to write," but when the action or event is neither contemporary nor future, the perfect infinitive should be employed: as, "It would have afforded me great pleasure, as often as I reflected upon it, to have been the messenger of such intelligence."

If the thing asserted be immutably the same, or supposed to be so, the present tense must be used: as, "Virtue is commendable at any season of life." But if a declaration be made relative to something that is not always the same, or supposed to be so, the past tense should be applied: as, "The judge said that he was in favor of the measure." "Colum-
bus believed that the earth is round. In a sentence like the last, the use of was instead of is would have a peculiar effect. “That the earth was round” might imply that its shape had changed.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

The next New Year’s day, I shall be at school three years. He that was dead, sat up and began to speak. I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular. I have compassion on the multitude, because they continue with me now three days. John will earn his wages, when his service is completed. Be that as it will, he can not justify his conduct. After we visited London, we returned to your peaceful home.

I propose to go to York in a few months, and after I shall finish my business there, to proceed to America. From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of letters. I always intended to have rewarded my son according to his merits. We have done no more than it was our duty to have done.

RULE XXI.

When the qualities of different things are compared, the latter noun or pronoun agrees with the verb, or is governed by the verb or preposition, expressed or understood: as, “Thou art wiser than I,” that is, “than I am;” “They love him more than me,” that is, “more than they love me.”

The relative who seems to form an exception to this rule; it sometimes follows than in the objective case: as, “Alfred, than whom a greater king never reigned.”

The phrase than whom is, however, avoided by the best modern writers. The above sentence might be rendered much better by changing it in the following manner: “A greater king than Alfred never reigned.”

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

They are much greater gainers than me. The undertaking was much better executed by his brother than he. In some respects we have had as many advantages as them; but they have had a greater privilege than us. They know how to write as well as him; but he is a better grammarian than them. Who wrote this? Not me. Who revealed the secrets? Not him.
RULE XXII.

Part 1.—To avoid disagreeable repetitions, and to express our ideas in few words, an ellipsis, or omission of some words, is frequently admitted: as, "He was a learned, wise and good man," instead of "He was a learned man, he was a wise man, he was a good man."

Part 2.—But if the omission of words would obscure the sentence, weaken its force or be attended with any other impropriety, they must be expressed: as, "We are likely to love, who love us;" the word them should be supplied.

Note.—Every compound sentence is more or less elliptical: the following examples will show the ellipses of the different parts of speech:

Of the article: as, "A man, woman, and child;" that is, "A man, a woman, and a child."

Of the noun: as, "The laws of God and man;" that is, "The laws of God and the laws of man."

Of the adjective: as, "A delightful garden and orchard;" that is, "A delightful garden and a delightful orchard."

Of the pronoun: as, "I love and respect him;" that is, "I love him, and I respect him."

Of the verb: as, "The man was old and crafty;" that is, "The man was old, and the man was crafty."

The auxiliaries, do, did, have, had, shall, will, may, might, &c., are frequently used alone to avoid the repetition of the verb: as "He loves intemperance, but I do not;" that is, "I do not love," &c. "We succeeded, but he did not;" that is, "He did not succeed."

Of the adverb: as, "He spoke and acted wisely;" that is, "He spoke wisely, and acted wisely."

Of the preposition: as, "He spoke to every man and woman;" that is, "to every woman." This day last year;" that is, "on this day in last year."

Of the conjunction: as, "I confess the power, wisdom and love of the Creator;" that is, the power and wisdom and love," &c.

Of the interjection: as, "Oh! pity and shame!" that is, Oh pity! Oh shame!"

GENERAL RULES.

Whenever the omission of any part of speech obscures the sentence, or weakens its force, that part of speech should be supplied; and, on the other hand, whenever the
repetition of any part of speech becomes disagreeable or tedious, it should be omitted.

Nouns of time, space, distance, value, dimension, &c., are often governed by some preposition understood: as, “He remained a day;” “for or during a day.” He leaped nine feet;” “over or through the space of nine feet.” “They went that way;” “in that way.” “The book is worth a dollar;” that is, “equal in value to a dollar.” The wall is three feet high;” that is, “the wall is high to three feet,” or feet may be in the nominative case, according to Rule IX.

The repetition of a part of speech for the sake of emphasis is often proper: as, “I have seen him, and I have heard him, too.” In the ellipsis of the adjective it ought to be quite as proper, when joined to the latter substantive as to the former; but it should not be joined to nouns of different numbers: as, “A magnificent house and gardens;” better, “A magnificent house and fine gardens.”

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

I gladly shunned, who gladly fled from me. What is it men mean by distributive justice? His honor, interest and religion are all embarked in this undertaking. The fear of death, nor hope of life, could make him submit to a dishonest action.

RULE XXIII.

Adverbs, though they have no government of case, tense, &c., require an appropriate situation in the sentence; for the most part before adjectives, after verbs, active and neuter, and frequently between the auxiliary and the verb: as, “He made a very sensible discourse; he spoke forcibly, and was attentively heard by the whole assembly.”

Note.—Generally, the adverb never precedes the verb, or is placed between the auxiliary and the verb: as, “I never was there.” “He was never seen to laugh.” Ever is sometimes improperly used for never: as, “I seldom or ever see him;” for, “I seldom or never see him.”

Some adverbs are improperly used for nouns and relative pronouns: as, “In 1687 the company was chartered, since when it began to prosper;” that is, “since which time.” “They framed a protestation, where they repeated all their former claims;” that is, “in which,” &c. “It is worth their while;” that is, “their time and pains.”

The adverbs, here, there, and where are often applied to verbs signifying motion, instead of hither, thither, whither:
as, "He came here hastily;" "They rode there;" "Where are you going?" They would better be: "He came hither;" "They rode thither;" "Whither are you going?" Thus the poet, "Come hither, Evan Cameron, and sit beside my knee." De Quincey, one of our greatest masters of style, uses the older forms, hither, whither and thither. The latter form of expression is, however, nearly obsolete, unless in grave style. The sentences, "He arrived here to-day;" "They went there last week;" "Where will you go?" &c., are used by good modern writers.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

He was pleased not often, because he was vain. William nobly acted. We may happily live, though poor. We may expect reasonably that he will come. It can not be impertinent therefore to remonstrate. We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure. It is impossible continually to be at work. These things should be never separated. So well educated a boy gives great hopes to his friends. They could not persuade him, though they were never so eloquent. He comes never at a proper time.

RULE XXIV.

All the parts of a sentence should correspond to one another; a regular and dependent construction should be carefully preserved throughout. The following sentence is, therefore, inaccurate: "He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Cinthio;" it should be, "He was more beloved than Cinthio, but not so much admired."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Several alterations and additions have been made to the work. The first proposal was essentially different, and inferior to the second. He is more bold and active, but not so wise and studious as his companion. Thou hearest the sound of the wind, but thou canst not tell whence it cometh and whither it goeth. Neither has he, nor any other persons, suspected so much dissimulation. The court of France, or England, was to have been the umpire. In the reign of Henry II., all foreign commodities were plenty in England. There is no talent so useful towards success in business, or which puts men more out of the reach of accidents, than that quality generally possessed by persons of cool temper, and is, in common language, called discretion.
Part IV.

PROSODY

In its narrowest sense, Prosody treats of versification. In a wider sense it includes also a consideration of figures of speech and punctuation. Under Prosody some authors treat Pronunciation.

ACCENT

Accent is the laying of a peculiar stress of the voice on a certain letter or syllable in a word, that it may be better heard than the rest, or distinguished from them: as in the word presume the stress of the voice must be on the letter u. The syllable sume receives the accent.

Note 1.—Every English word of more than one syllable has one of them distinguished from the rest by accent. Words of two syllables have necessarily one of them accented, and but one; unless for the sake of emphasis we sometimes lay an equal stress upon two successive syllables: as, "Direct." For the accent of disyllables, no general rule can be given. Trisyllables and polysyllables generally follow the accent of the words from which they are derived: as, "Love-li-ness;" "con’-tin-en-cy."

Note 2.—Words of three or more syllables in addition to the chief or primary accent often have one or more secondary accents: as, in-dêm-ni-fi-câ-tion, ân-te-cê-dent.

QUANTITY

The quantity of a syllable is the time which is occupied in pronouncing it. It is considered as long or short. Quantity is not the same as accent.

A vowel or a syllable is long when the accent is on the vowel, which occasions it to be slowly joined, in pronun-

Questions.—What is prosody? What is accent? What is secondary accent? What quantity?
A syllable is short when the accent is on the consonant, which occasions the vowel to be quickly joined to the succeeding letter: as, an’t, bon’net, hun’ger.”

A long syllable requires double the time of a short one in pronouncing it: thus, “Mäte” and “Note” should be pronounced as slowly again as “Mät” and “Not.”

**EMPHASIS**

By emphasis is meant a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word or words on which we design to lay particular stress, and to show how it affects the rest of the sentence. Sometimes the emphatic words must be distinguished by a particular tone of voice, as well as by a greater stress.

*Note.*—On the right management of the emphasis depends the life of pronunciation. If no emphasis be placed on any words, not only will discourse be rendered heavy and lifeless, but the meaning will often be left ambiguous. If the emphasis be incorrectly placed, we shall pervert and confound the meaning wholly. To give a common instance: such a simple question as this, “Do you ride to town to-day?” is capable of no fewer than four different interpretations, according as the emphasis is differently placed on the words. If it be pronounced thus: “Do you ride to town to-day?” the answer may naturally be, “No, we send a servant in our stead.” If thus: “Do you ride to town to-day?” answer, “No, we intend to walk.” “Do you ride to town to-day?” “No, we ride into the country.” “Do you ride to town to-day?” “No, but we shall to-morrow.” In like manner, in solemn discourse, the whole force and beauty of an expression often depend on the emphatic word.

**PAUSES**

Pauses or rests, in speaking and reading, are total cessations of the voice during a perceptible and, in many cases, a measurable space of time.

*Questions.*—When is a vowel long? When is a syllable short? What does a long syllable require? What is emphasis? What are pauses?
PROSODY.

TONES

Tones are different from both emphasis and pauses, consisting in the modulation of the voice, the notes or variations of sound which we employ in the expression of our sentiments.

*Note.*—Emphasis affects particular words and phrases with a degree of tone or inflection of the voice, but tones, peculiarly so called, affect sentences, paragraphs, and sometimes even the whole of a discourse.

To show the use and necessity of tones, we need only observe, that the mind, in communicating its ideas, is in a continual state of activity, emotion, or agitation, from the different effects which those ideas produce in the speaker.

VERSIFICATION

Versification is either the *act* or the *art* of making verse. It is sometimes used to denote that peculiar structure of language which distinguishes poetry from prose. At the outset the pupil should be told that all verse is not poetry.

POETRY

Poetry is difficult to define. For centuries literary critics, and even poets themselves, have attempted to tell us what it is, but we are still far from having a perfectly satisfactory definition. We can only do what others have done; that is, state some of its qualities. Poetry is “simple, sensuous and passionate” language. It has imagery and it has musical qualities, but, whatever it possesses, *it must have rhythm*. Without this last quality it cannot be poetry.

RHYTHM

Rhythm is the effect produced by a succession of accented and unaccented syllables.

RHYME

Rhyme is sound correspondence. It may be single, double or triple. *Mind* and *kind* are single rhymes;

*Questions.*—What is tone? What is versification? What is rhythm? What is rhyme?
floating and boating are double rhymes; importunate and unfortunate are triple rhymes.

Note.—Poetical Feet.—A certain number of connected syllables form a foot.

**TRISYLLABLE**

The most familiar of poetical rhythms are:

- An Iambus \( \overline{u} \) — as, ã-lông.
- A Trochee \( \overline{u} \) — "sâil-ing.
- An Anapest \( \overline{u \ u} \) — "côn-trâ-vêne.
- A Dactyl \( \overline{u \ u} \) "wây-wârd-nëss.

Other well known rhythms are:

- The Spondee — as, sêa-sâlt.
- The Pyrrhic \( \overline{u \ u} \) "ôn thê.

Note.—Writers on poetics name several other rhythms: as, the Amphibrach, the Tribrach, etc. Their consideration would be out of place in an elementary work.

A line of poetry is called a Verse. A Stanza is a group of verses. The line or verse is divided into feet. A poetic foot, therefore, is the smallest rhythmical division of a verse or line.

"The sweet|est thing | that ev|er grew
Beside | a hu|man door."

The first verse has four Iambic feet; the second has three.

The Iambic, Trochaic, Dactylic and Anapestic are called the principal feet; as poetical compositions consist chiefly of them, the other feet, called secondary, are introduced to diversify the numbers and to improve the verse. English verse may be divided into several species, according to the number of feet of which it is composed.

What is a verse? A stanza? Name the principal feet?
Iambic.—The Iambic verse consists of several kinds.

1. The first form consists of one Iambus and a short syllable: as,

Disdaining,
Complaining.

2. The second of two Iambuses: as,

To me | the rose,
No longer grows.

Each verse or line is composed of two Iambic feet.

3. The third consists of three Iambuses: as,

In places far | or near,
Or famous, or | obscure.

Each verse has three feet.

4. The fourth consists of four Iambuses: as,

And may | at last | my weary age,
Find out | a peaceful hermitage.

5. The fifth, called the Heroic measure, consists of five: as,

A heap | of dust | alone | remains | of thee;
'Tis all | thou art, | and all | the proud | shall be.

6. The sixth form is called the Alexandrine measure: as,

For thou | art but | of dust, | be humble and | be wise.

7. The seventh form consists of seven Iambuses, generally written in two lines; the first containing four and the second three feet: as,

When all | thy mercies, O | my God!
My rising soul | surveys;
Transported with the view I'm lost,
In wonder, love, and praise.

This is often used in writing ballads.

Trochaic.—The Trochaic verse is also of several kinds.

1. The first consists of one Trochee and a long syllable: as,

Tumult | cease,
Sink to | peace.
2. The second of two, and sometimes a long syllable: as,
   \[
   \text{On the | mountain,} \\
   \text{By a fountain.}
   \]

3. The third, of three, and sometimes with an additional long syllable: as,
   \[
   \text{Restless | mortals | toil for | nought.}
   \]

4. The fourth, of four Trochees: as,
   \[
   \text{Round us | roars the | tempest | louder.}
   \]

5. The fifth, of five; but very seldom used: as,
   \[
   \text{All that | walk on | foot or | ride in | chariots.}
   \]

6. The sixth form consists of six Trochees: as,
   \[
   \text{On a | mountain, | stretch'd be|neath a | hoary | willow.}
   \]

DACTYLIC.—This measure is very uncommon: as,
   \[
   \text{Bird of the | wilderness,} \\
   \text{Blithesome and | cumberless.}
   \]

ANAPESTIC.—Of this measure there are several kinds.
1. The shortest form consists of one Anapest: as,
   \[
   \text{But in vain,} \\
   \text{They complain.}
   \]

2. The second form consists of three: as,
   \[
   \text{O ye woods, | spread your bran|ches apace.}
   \]

3. The third species consists of four Anapests: as,
   \[
   \text{And the sheen | of their spears | was like stars | on the sea,} \\
   \text{When the blue | waves roll night|ly on deep | Galilee.}
   \]

POETIC PAUSES

There are two kinds of pauses in poetry, called the sentential and harmonic. The sentential takes place after the comma, semicolon, &c., as the sense may require; the harmonic, which tends to preserve the melody of the verse, is divided into the final and the cæsural pause. The final pause takes place at the end of nearly every line, although the sense may not require it. Sometimes, indeed, one line flows, without any sort of pause, into another. This is known as the run-on line. The
caesural pause divides the line into equal or unequal parts.

In the following verses we have illustrations of the run-on line:

The day is done, and the darkness
Falls from the wings of night.—Longfellow

* * * approach thy grave
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams.
Bryant.

The caesural pause may occur anywhere within the line, but it is found most commonly about the middle.

Ex.—Warms in the sun || refreshes in the breeze,
Glows in the stars || and blossoms in the trees.
Pope.

PUNCTUATION

1. Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, for the purpose of showing its grammatical construction and assisting in its delivery.

The Comma represents the shortest pause; the Semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the Colon, double that of the semicolon; and the Period, double that of the colon.

The points are marked in the following manner:

The Comma , The Colon :
The Semicolon ; The Period .

COMMA

2. The Comma usually separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense, require a pause between them: as, “Charles is beloved, esteemed and respected.”

Questions.—1. What is punctuation? What does the comma, &c., represent? How are the points marked?
2. What does the comma separate?
RULES FOR THE COMMA

Rule 1.—A simple sentence, in general, requires no point, except a full stop at the end: as, “Virtue refines the affections.” However, when a simple sentence is long, and the nominative separated from the verb by some intervening words, a comma should be inserted immediately before the verb: as, “The good taste of the present age, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language.” This is called close punctuation. In the example given many punctuators would omit the comma.

Rule 2.—When the connection of the different parts of a sentence is interrupted by an imperfect phrase a comma is usually introduced at the beginning and the end of this phrase: as, “I remember, with gratitude, his kindness to me.”

Rule 3.—When two or more parts of speech occur in the same construction, without a conjunction between them, they should be parted by a comma: as, “Truth, justice and mercy dwell here.” “Plain, honest truth, wants no artificial covering.” “David was a brave, wise, just and pious man.” In a letter, we may advise, exhort, comfort, request and discuss.” “He lived esteemed, respected and loved by all.” “He acted prudently, steadily and vigorously.” But when two parts of speech are immediately connected by a conjunction, the comma should not be introduced: as, “How great the contrast between virtue and vice, wisdom and folly.” “He is just and honest.” “Study expands and elevates the mind.”

Rule 4.—Participles, followed by something that depends on them, are generally separated from the rest of the sentence by commas: as, “The king, approving of the plan, put it in execution.”

Rule 5.—When a conjunction is separated from the word to which it belongs, the intervening phrase should have a comma at each extremity: as, “They set out early, and, before evening, arrived at the destined place.”
Rule 6.—Expressions, in direct address, are followed by a comma: as, "My son, give me thy heart;" "I am obliged to you, my friends, for your many favors."

Rule 7.—The case absolute, and the infinitive mood absolute, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas: as, "His father dying, he succeeded to the estate." "To confess the truth, I was much in fault."

Rule 8.—Nouns in apposition, when something is added by way of explanation, should be set off by commas: as, "Paul, the Apostle of the Gentiles;" but if such nouns are single, they are not separated, as "Paul the Apostle," "The Emperor Antoninus."

Rule 9.—Simple members of sentences, connected by comparatives, are generally distinguished by commas, unless the sentences are very short: as, "As the hart panteth after the water, so my soul panteth after thee." "It is better to acquire wisdom than gold."

Rule 10.—A remarkable expression, a short observation, or a quotation, may be properly marked by a comma: as, "He often made use of these words, know thyself." "Plutarch calls lying, the vice of slaves."

Rule 11.—Relative pronouns, being connective words, generally admit a comma before them: as, "He preaches sublimely, who lives virtuously." "This is the tree, which produces no fruit." But if the relative is followed by a phrase, tending to confine the antecedent to some particular sense, the comma should be omitted before the relative: as, "A man who deviates from the truth, will not be credited."

Rule 12.—The verb to be, when followed by the infinitive mood, or the particle that, should have a comma after it: as, "The most prudent course is, to withdraw from the country." "My desire is, that you go immediately."

Rule 13.—When a verb or another part of speech is understood, a comma should be introduced in its place:
as, "From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge."

Rule 14.—The words may, so, hence, again, first, secondly, now, lastly, once more, in short, &c., should be generally separated from the context by commas: as, "He is my friend; formerly, the supporter of my infancy; now, the guardian of my youth."

Rule 15. — The simple sentences, and explanatory phrases that make up a compound sentence, should be generally separated from each other by commas: as, "Very often, while we are complaining of the vanity and evils of human life, we make that vanity, and increase those evils."

Observation.—It is not easy to give rules, that will apply in every case, for the insertion of commas. As they are generally used to bring out the sense, their introduction will greatly depend on the meaning of the sentence.

**SEMICOLON**

The Semicolon is used for dividing compound sentences into two or more parts, not so closely connected as those which are separated by a comma, nor yet so little dependent on each other, as those which are distinguished by a colon: as, "Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom."

Note.—The Semicolon is sometimes used, when the preceding member of the sentence does not of itself give complete sense, but depends on the following clause; and sometimes when the sense of that member would be complete without the concluding one: as, "Homer was the greater genius; Virgil the better artist; in the one we most admire the man; in the other, the work." "Religion does not require that man should retreat from worldly affairs; much less, that he should neglect them."

Question.—For what is the semicolon used?
Punctuation.

Colon

The Colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less closely connected than are those which are separated by a semicolon; but not so independent as are separate, distinct sentences.

Note.—The colon may be used in the following cases:

When a member of a sentence is complete in itself, but followed by some supplemental remark, or further illustration of the subject: as, "Nature felt her inability to extricate herself from the consequences of guilt: the gospel reveals the plan of Divine interposition and aid."

When several semicolons have preceded, and a still greater pause is necessary, in order to make the concluding sentiment: as, "Religion sanctions it; reason approves it; justice demands it: these are considerations, which ought to have the greatest weight in your decision."

The Colon is commonly used when an example, a quotation, &c., is introduced: as, "The Scripture gives us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: 'God is love.'" "He was heard to say: 'I have done with the world.'" And sometimes, when a conjunction is understood: as, "Do not deceive yourselves longer: there is no room for hope."

Period

When a sentence is complete and independent, and not connected in construction with the following sentence, it is marked with a period.

Note.—Some sentences are independent of each other, both in their sense and construction: as, "Fear God. Honor the king. Have charity toward all men." Others are independent only in their grammatical construction: as, "The Supreme Being changes not, either in his desire to promote our happiness, or in the plan of his administration. One light always shines upon us from above. One clear and direct path is pointed out to man."

The period should be used after every abbreviated word: as, "M. S., P. S., N. B., A. D., O. S., N. S.," &c.

Questions.—What is a colon? In what cases is it used? What is a period? When is it used?
Besides the points which mark the pauses in discourse, there are others that denote a different modulation of voice, in correspondence to the sense. These are:

- The Interrogation point ?
- The Exclamation point !
- The Parenthesis () :

as,

"Are you sincere?"
"How excellent is a grateful heart!"
"Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)
"Virtue alone is happiness below."

The following characters are also frequently used in composition:

- An Apostrophe, marked thus ' : as, "tho', judg'd."
- A Caret, marked thus ^ : as, "I ^ diligent."
- A Hyphen, which is thus marked - : as, "Lap-dog, tomorrow."
- The Acute Accent, marked thus ' : as, "Fan'cy."
- The Grave Accent, thus ' : as, "Fa'vor."
- The proper mark to distinguish a long syllable is the Macron - : as, "Rösy," and a short one, this - : as, "Fölly." This last mark is called a Breve.
- A Diaeresis, thus marked ··, shows that two vowels form separate syllables: as, "Creätor."
- A Section is thus marked §.
- A Paragraph, thus ¶.
- A Quotation has two inverted commas at the beginning, and two direct ones at the end, of a phrase or passage: as,

"The proper study of mankind, is man."

Brackets serve to enclose a particular word or sentence. They are marked thus [ ].

An Index or Hand ꞌ points out a remarkable passage.

Name some other marks used in composition.
A Brace } unites three poetical lines; or connects a number of words, in prose, with one common term.

An Asterisk or little star * directs the reader to some note in the margin or at the foot of the page.

An Ellipsis is thus marked ———: as, “K———g,” for King.

An Obelisk, or dagger, which is marked thus †, double Obelisk thus ‡, and Parallels thus ||, together with the letters of the alphabet, and figures, are used as references to footnotes or to marginal notes.

CAPITALS

The following words should begin with capitals:

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, paragraph, &c.
2. The first word after a period, and frequently after the points of interrogation and exclamation.
3. The names of the Deity: as, God, Jehovah, the Supreme Being, &c.
4. Proper names of persons, places, ships, &c.
5. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places: as, Grecian, Roman, English, &c.
6. The first word of an example, and of a quotation in a direct form: as, “Always remember this ancient maxim,” ‘Know thyself.’”
7. The first word of every verse in poetry.
8. The pronoun I, and the interjection O!
9. Words of particular importance: as, the Reformation, the Restoration, the Revolution.
10. Words contracted: as, Mr., Mrs., Dr., Cr., A. D., P. S. Esq., &c.

EXERCISES IN PUNCTUATION

Section I.—Sentences requiring the Comma.

Rule I. Many of the pretended friendships in youth are mere combinations in pleasure. The indulgence of harsh dispositions is the introduction to future misery.
Rule II. Gentleness is in truth the great avenue to mutual enjoyment. Charity like the sun brightens all its objects. Trials in this stage of being are the lot of man.

Rule III. Reason virtue answer one great aim. The husband wife and children suffered extremely. Health peace a moderate fortune and a few friends make up the sum of temporal felicity. Temperance, and industry will gain a competency. A religious sensible and well educated woman. He advised exhorted reasoned and entreated his friend. Virtue supports in adversity moderates in prosperity. He reads, and writes well.

Rule IV. His talents formed for great enterprises could not fail of rendering him conspicuous. All mankind compose one family assembled under the eye of one common father.

Rule V. He may rest assured that by the steady pursuit of virtue we shall obtain our end. If from any external cause a man's mind be disturbed.

Rule VI. Continue my child to practice virtue. To you my respected friends I am much indebted.

Rule VII. Peace of mind being restored we may smile at misfortune. Charles being absent the business was concluded without him. To enjoy present pleasure he sacrificed his future ease. To confess the truth I am to blame.

Rule VIII. Hope the balm of life soothes us under every misfortune. Joseph the patriarch is an illustrious example of chastity and resignation.

Rule IX. The more a man speaks of himself the less he likes to hear others spoken of. Nothing more strongly inculcates resignation than the experience of our own inability to guide ourselves.

Rule X. One of the noblest of the Christian virtues is "to love our enemies." Remember this proverb "Know thyself."

Rule XI. The gentle mind is like the smooth stream which reflects every object in its just proportions. They who raise envy will easily incur censure.

Rule XII. The greatest misery is to be condemned by our own hearts. His highest enjoyment was to relieve the distressed and good. It is a fact that we must die.

Rule XIII. Intemperance leads to want, from want to misery from misery to sickness and from sickness to death.

Rule XIV. Be assured then that order shall prevail. I will proceed secondly to point out our position. Finally, I will repeat what I have already said.

Rule XV. To improve time while we are blessed with health will soothe the bed of sickness. Very often while we are complaining of the vanity and evils of life we make that vanity and increase those evils.
Section II.—Sentences requiring Semicolon and Comma.

The path of truth is plain and safe the path of falsehood is a perplexing maze. The passions are the chief destroyers of our peace the storms and tempests of the moral world. Levity is frequently the forced product of folly or vice cheerfulness the natural offspring of wisdom and virtue.

Section III.—Sentences requiring Colon, &c.

The three great enemies to tranquillity are vice superstition and idleness vice which poisons and disturbs the mind with bad passions superstition which fills it with imaginary terrors idleness which loads it with tediousness and distrust.

A metaphor is a comparison expressed in an abridged form but without any of the words that denote comparison as “To the upright there ariseth light in darkness.”

Section IV.—Sentences requiring the Period, &c.

The absence of evil is real good Worldly pleasures when too eagerly sought after tend to corrupt the heart Feeding the hungry clothing the naked and comforting the afflicted afford true pleasure to the virtuous mind Remember Creator in the days of thy youth I know this my friend that I have committed an error.

Section V.—Sentences requiring Capitals, &c.

History informs us That constantine The great, After his advancement to Sole Dominion of the roman world, openly professed The christian faith. you know, that i wish to cultivate your Acquaintance. solomon, the Son of david, built the Temple of jerusalem; he was the richest Monarch of the jews. To whom was the money paid. regard the World with cautious eye, nor Raise your expectations high. see That the Balanced scales be such You neither fear nor hope too much

Section VI.—Promiscuous examples.

When Socrates was asked what man approached the nearest to perfect happiness he answered That man who has the fewest wants. She who studies her glass neglects her heart. Between Passion and Lying there is not a Fingers breadth.

Addison has remarked with equal Piety and Truth that the Creation is a perpetual Feast to the Mind of a Good Man.
The laurels of the Warrior are dyed in Blood and bedewed with the Tears of the Widow and the Orphan. Between Fame and true Honor a Distinction is to be made. The former is a loud and noisy Applause the latter a more silent and internal homage. Fame floats on the Breadth of the Multitude; Honor rests on the judgment of the Thinking. Fame may give Praise while it withholds esteem. True Honor implies esteem mingled with respect. The one regards particular distinguished Talents; the other looks up to the whole character.

If I am right thy grace impart
Still in the right to stay
If I am wrong O teach my heart
To find that better way

Save me alike from foolish pride
Or impious discontent
At aught thy wisdom has denied
Or aught thy goodness lent

Know then this truth enough for man to know
Virtue alone is happiness below
Tho only point where human bliss stands still
And tastes the good without the fall to ill
Where only merit constant pay receives
Is blest in what it takes and what it gives
The joy unequal'd if its end it gain
And if it lose attended with no pain
Without satiety the e'er so blest
And but more relish'd as the more distress'd

EXERCISES.

Instances of false Syntax.

Though great has been his disobedience and his folly, yet if he sincerely acknowledges his misconduct, he will be forgiven.

On these causes depend all the happiness or misery which exist among men.

The property of James, I mean his books and furniture, were wholly destroyed.

This prodigy of learning, this scholar, critic, and antiquarian, were entirely destitute of breeding and civility.

That writer has given an account of the manner, in which Christianity has formerly been propagated among the heathens.

We adore the Divine Being, he who is from eternity to eternity.
Promiscuous Exercises.

Thou, Lord, who hast permitted affliction to come upon us, shall deliver us from it, in due time.

By these attainments are the master honored, and the scholars encouraged.

The sea appeared to be more than usually agitated.

Not one in fifty of those who call themselves deists understand the nature of the religion they reject.

Time and chance happeneth to all men; but every person do not consider who govern those powerful causes.

The active mind of man never or seldom rests satisfied with their present condition, however prosperous.

Habits must be acquired of temperance and of self-denial, that we may be able to resist pleasure, and to endure pain, when either of them interfere with our duty.

An army present a painful sight to a feeling mind.

The enemies who we have most to fear, are those of our own hearts.

Thou art the Messiah, the Son of God, who was to come into the world, and hast been so long promised and desired.

Thomas disposition is better than his brothers; and he appears to be the happiest man; but some degree of trouble is all mens portion.

Though remorse sleep sometimes during prosperity, it will awake surely in adversity.

It is an invariable law to our present condition, that every pleasure that are pursued to excess, convert themselves into poison.

If a man brings into the solitary retreat of age, a vacant and unimproved mind, where no knowledge dawns, no ideas rise, which within itself has nothing to feed upon, many a heavy and many a comfortless day he must necessarily pass.

I cannot yield to such dishonorable conduct, neither at the present moment of difficulty, nor, I trust, under no circumstances whatever.

There is not, nor ought not to be, such a thing as constructive treason.

He is a new created knight, and his dignity sits awkward on him.

Hatred or revenge are things deserving of censure wherever they are found to exist.

If you please to employ your thoughts on that subject, you would easily conceive our miserable condition.

His speech contains one of the grossest and infamousest calumnies which ever was uttered.

Those two authors have each of them their merit.

James was resolved to not indulge himself in such a cruel amusement.

Calumny and detraction are sparks, which if you do not blow, they will go out of themselves.
That celebrated work was nearly ten years published, before its importance was at all understood.

A great mass of rocks thrown together by the hand of nature, with wildness and confusion, strike the mind with more grandeur than if they were adjusted to one another with the accuratest symmetry.

They that honor me, I will honor, and them that despise me shall be lightly esteemed.

Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense,

Lies in three words, health, peace, and competence.

When we succeed in our plans, its not to be attributed always to ourselves; the aid of others often promote the end, and claim our acknowledgment.

Their intentions were good; but lacking prudence, they missed the mark for which they aimed.

I have not, nor shall I consent to a proposal so unjust.

This treaty was made at earl Moreton the governor's castle.

Be especially careful that thou givest no offence to the aged or helpless.

The business was no sooner opened, but it was cordially acquiesced in.

If he does but approve my endeavors it will be an ample reward.

I intended to have written the letter, before he urged me to it; and, therefore, he has not all the merit of it.

No human happiness is so complete, as does not contain some imperfection.

His father can not hope for this success, unless his son gives better proofs of genius, or applies himself with indefatigable labor.

The house framed a remonstrance, where they spoke with great freedom of the king's prerogative.

This is the person who we are so much obliged to, and who we expected to have seen, when the favor was conferred.

He is a person of great property, but does not possess the esteem of his neighbors.

They were solicitous to ingratiate with those who it was dishonorable to favor.

The great adversity which takes place among men, is not owing to a distinction that nature made in their original powers, as much as to the superior diligence with which some have improved these powers beyond others.

Not a creature is there that moves, nor a vegetable that grows, but what, when minutely examined, furnished materials of pious admiration,
What can be the reason of the committee having delayed this business?
I know not whether Charles was the author, but I understood it to be he.
A good and well cultivated mind is far more preferable than rank or riches.
Neither flatter nor contemn the rich or the great.
You must be sensible that there is, and can be no other person but me, who could give the information desired.
To be patient, resigned, and thankful, under afflictions and disappointments, demonstrate genuine piety. Alvarez was a man of corrupt principles, and of detestable conduct; and, what is still worse, gloried in his shame.
As soon as the sense of the Supreme Being is lost, so soon the great check is taken off which keep under restraint the passions of men. Mean desires, low pleasures, takes place of the greater and the nobler sentiments which reason and religion inspires.
We should be careful not to follow the example of many persons, to censure the opinions, manners, and customs of others, merely because they are foreign to us.
There is, in that seminary, several students considerably skilled in mathematical knowledge.
If Providence clothe the grass of the field, and shelters and adorns the flowers that everywhere grows wild amongst it, will he not clothe and protect his servants and children much more?
Year after year steal something from us; till the decaying fabric totters of itself, and crumbes at length into dust.
I intended to have finished the letter before the bearer called, that he might not have been detained, but I was prevented by company.

EXERCISES.

The same words used as different parts of speech.

_Calm_ was the day, and the scene delightful.
We may expect a _calm_ after a storm.
To prevent passion, is easier than to _calm_ it.

In these three sentences the word _calm_ is _used_ differently. It is the _use_, not the _form_, of a word that puts it into one class or another. In the first, it describes the day, and is, therefore, an _adjective_. In the second, it is a name, and also has an article before it; hence it is a _noun_. In the third, it suggests action; therefore, it is a
verb. Moreover, it has before it the sign of the infinitive. The remaining sentences should be considered in a similar manner.

Though he is out of danger, he is still afraid.
He labored to still the tumult.

The few and the many have their prepossessions.
Few days pass without some clouds.

Much money is corrupting.
Think much, and speak little.
He has seen much of the world, and been much caressed.

His years are more than hers; but he has not more knowledge.
The more we are blessed, the more grateful we should be.
The desire of getting more is rarely satisfied.

He has equal knowledge, but inferior judgment.
She is his inferior in sense, but his equal in prudence.

Damp air is unwholesome.
Guilt often casts a damp over our sprightliest hours.
Soft bodies damp the sound much more than hard ones.

Though she is rich and fair, yet she is not amiable.
They are yet young, and must suspend their judgment yet awhile.

Every thing loves its like.
Behave yourselves like men.
We are too often inclined to like pernicious company.
He may go or stay as he likes.

They strive to learn.
He goes to and fro.
To his wisdom we owe our privileges.
The proportion is ten to one.

He served them with his utmost ability.
When we do our utmost, no more is required.

I will submit, for submission brings peace.
It is for our health to be temperate.
O! for better times.
I have a regard for him.

He is esteemed, both on his own account, and on that of his parents.
Both of them deserve praise.

March brings breezes loud and shrill.
"March on!" commanded the captain.
APPENDIX

RULES FOR ASSISTING YOUNG PERSONS TO WRITE CLEARLY AND ACCURATELY.

PERSPICUITY

Perspicuity, or clearness, is the fundamental quality of style: a quality so essential in every kind of writing that, for the lack of it, nothing can atone. We are pleased with an author who frees us from the fatigue of searching for his meaning; who carries us through his subject without any embarrassment or confusion; whose style flows like a limpid stream, through which we see the very bottom.

CHAPTER I.

Perspicuity and Accuracy of Expression.

These qualities of style require the following properties: Purity, Propriety and Precision.

Section I.—PURITY

Purity of style consists in the use of such words and phrases as belong to the idiom of the language which we speak; in opposition to words and phrases that are taken from other languages, or that are ungrammatical, obsolete, new coined, &c. All such words and phrases as the following should be avoided: Quoth he; I wist not; erstwhile; hauteur, for haughtiness; politiesse, for politeness, &c. In poetic diction some of these terms would be regarded as appropriate, but beginners need not trouble themselves about the vocabulary of poets.
Propriety of language consists in the selection of such words as the best usage has appropriated to those ideas which we intend to express by them. The following are the rules for propriety:

Rule 1.—Avoid low expressions: such as topsy-turvy, hurly-burly, pellmell, currying favor, left to shift for themselves, &c.

Rule 2.—In the same sentence, be careful not to use the same word too frequently, nor in different senses: as, A person may have an air, which proceeds from a knowledge of the matter before him, which may naturally produce some motion of head or body, which might become the bench better than the bar.

The repetition of the pronoun which, throws obscurity over the whole sentence. “Charity expands our hearts in love to God and man: it is by the virtue of charity that the rich are blessed, and the poor supplied.” The word charity is improperly used in two different senses: for the highest benevolence and for almsgiving.

Rule 3.—Avoid the injudicious use of technical terms. Technical terms being used only by a peculiar class, we should never employ them, but when we know they will be understood. To say, “We tack’d to the larboard, and stood off to sea,” would be expressing ourselves very obscurely to those who do not understand terms of seamanship.

Rule 4.—Avoid equivocal or ambiguous words: as, “He aimed at nothing less than the crown.”

This sentence may denote either “Nothing inferior to the crown could satisfy his ambition;” or, “That the obtaining of the crown was the least of his ambitions;” and so for the expression, “I will have mercy, and not sacrifice.”

Rule 5.—Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent words or phrases: as, “This temper of mind keeps our understanding tight about us.”
It is not easy to determine the meaning of this sentence, or whether it has any meaning whatever.

Rule 6.—Avoid all those words and phrases which are not adapted to the ideas you mean to communicate, or which are less significant than others, of those ideas: as, "He feels all the sorrow that can arrive at man;" it should be, "happen to man." "We assent to the beauty of the objects and we acknowledge the truth of the proposition;" better, "We acknowledge the beauty and assent to the truth." "A traveler observes the most striking objects; a general remarks all the motions of the enemy;" better thus, "A general observes; a traveler remarks."

Section III.—PRECISION

Precision in writing consists in retrenching superfluities and in pruning the expression, so as to exhibit neither more nor less than an exact copy of the writer's idea. The following are the most general rules for precision:

Rule 1.—The words used, should exactly express the idea which the author intends to convey.

Rule 2.—They should express that idea fully and completely.

Rule 3.—They should express that idea, and nothing more.

The human mind never can view, clearly and distinctly, more than one object at the same time. If it must look at two or three together, especially objects that bear resemblance, it finds itself confused and embarrassed. It cannot clearly perceive in what they agree and in what they differ. All subjects do not require an equal degree of precision. In those that are familiar, there is no risk of mistaking the sense of the author, though every word is not exact.

A great source of loose style arises from the injudicious use of words which are improperly termed synonymous. They agree in expressing one principal idea; but
they most generally express it with some diversity of circumstance. The following are instances which will show the difference in the meaning of words reputed synonymous.

Custom, Habit.—By custom, we mean the frequent repetition of the same act; by habit, the effect which that repetition produces on the mind or body. By the custom of walking the streets, one acquires the habit of idleness.

Pride, Vanity.—Pride makes us esteem ourselves; vanity makes us desire the esteem of others.

Haughtiness, Disdain.—Haughtiness is founded on the high opinion we entertain of ourselves; disdain, on the low opinion we have of others.

Wisdom, Prudence.—Wisdom leads us to speak and to do what is proper; prudence prevents us from speaking or acting improperly.

Tranquillity, Peace, Calm.—Tranquillity represents a situation free from trouble; peace, the same situation with respect to any cause that might interrupt it; calm, with regard to a disturbed situation going before or following it.

CHAPTER II.

Perspicuity and Accuracy in the construction of Sentences.

In general, sentences should be neither very long, nor very short; long sentences require close attention to make us clearly perceive the connection of the several parts; and short ones have a tendency to break the sense and weaken the connection of thought. A succession of either long or short sentences should be avoided; but by a proper mixture of both, the ear will be gratified, and animation given to style. The things most essential in an accurate and perfect sentence are Clearness, Unity, Strength, and A Judicious Use of the Figures of Speech.
Section I.—CLEARNESS

Whatever leaves the mind in suspense, as to the meaning, should be avoided. Obscurity arises from two causes; either from a wrong choice of words, or from a careless arrangement of them. The following rules may serve, in some degree, to direct the learner with regard to the proper disposition of words in a sentence.

Rule 1.—Let those words or members which are clearly related be placed in the sentence as near to each other as possible, so that their mutual relation may clearly appear.

Rule 2.—Never crowd too many circumstances together, but rather intersperse them in different parts of the sentence, joined with the principal words on which they depend.

Obscurity frequently arises from a wrong position of the adverbs, relative pronouns, and particles that express the connection of different parts of speech, as in the following examples: “The Romans understood liberty at least, as well as we.” These words are capable of two different meanings, according as the emphasis, in reading them, is laid upon liberty, or at least. The construction should be, “The Romans understood liberty as well, at least, as we.” “This kind of wit, among our countrymen, about a century ago, was very much in vogue, who did not use it for any other purpose than purely for the sake of being witty:” it should be, “About a century ago, this sort of wit was very much in vogue among our countrymen, who,” &c. The relative should, generally, be placed immediately after its antecedent.

Much obscurity sometimes arises from the too frequent use of the pronouns: as, “Men look with an evil eye upon the virtues of others, and think that their reputation obscures them, and their commendable qualities stand in their light; and, therefore, they do what they can, to cast a cloud over them, that the bright shining of their virtues may not obscure them. This is altogether careless writing, and should be avoided.
Section II.—THE UNITY OF A SENTENCE

To preserve the unity of a sentence, the following rules should be observed.

Rule 1.—During the course of a sentence, let the scene be changed as little as possible.

We should not be hurried from person to person, or from object to object. There is commonly, in every sentence, some person or thing, which is the governing word; this should be continued, if possible, from the beginning to the end.

Rule 2.—Never crowd into one sentence things that have so little connection that they could bear to be divided into two or three sentences.

The violation of this rule tends so much to obscure the sense, that it is safer to err by too many short sentences, than by one that is overloaded and embarrassed. For instance, an author tells us: “Archbishop Tillotson died in the last year. He was exceedingly beloved by King William and Mary, who nominated Dr. Tennison, Bishop of Lincoln, to succeed him.” Who would expect the latter part of the sentence to follow as a consequence of the former?

Rule 3.—Avoid all unnecessary parentheses.

On some occasions, when the sense is not too long suspended by them, and when they are introduced in the proper place, they may add both to the vivacity and to the energy of the sentence. But for the most part their effect is bad; they are wheels within wheels; sentences in the midst of sentences; a perplexed method of disposing of some thought which the writer, for the lack of judgment, did not introduce in its proper place.

The parenthesis in this sentence is striking and proper:

“And was the ransom paid? It was; and paid
(“What can exalt the bounty more?) for thee.”

But in the following sentence we become sensible of an impropriety in the use of it. “If your hearts secretly reproach you for the wrong choice you have made (as there
Appendix.

is time for repentance and retreat; and a return to wisdom is always honorable), bethink yourselves that the evil is not irreparable.”

The following very general rule may be given for the unity of a sentence:

Make the parts of a sentence correspond to each other; and preserve a regular and dependent construction throughout.

Section III.—THE STRENGTH OF A SENTENCE

By the strength of a sentence is meant, such a disposition and management of the several words and members, as shall bring out the sense to the best advantage, and give to every word, every member, its due weight and force. To promote the strength of a sentence, the following rules should be observed:

Rule 1.—The sentence should be pruned of all redundant words and members. Tautology is sometimes useful, though it is generally useless.

It is a general maxim, that any word which does not add some importance to the meaning of a sentence always injures it. Care should, therefore, be taken to avoid synonymous words, circumlocutions, tautologies and the expression of unnecessary circumstances.

The following sentences are faulty: “In the Attic commonwealth, it was the privilege and birthright of every citizen and poet, to read aloud and in public.” Better thus: “In the Attic commonwealth, it was the privilege of every citizen to read in public.” “They returned back again to the same city from which they came forth;” better, “They returned to the city whence they came.” The words, back, again, same, from and forth, are all unnecessary.

Rule 2.—The second rule is to attend particularly to the use of conjunctions, relatives and all particles employed for transition and connection.

The little words, but, and, if, by, of, or, then, which, whose, &c., are frequently the most important words in a
sentence. They are the joints or hinges upon which the sentence turns, and, of course, much of its strength will depend on these particles. So numerous are the forms in which they are used, that respecting them no particular system of rules can be given. With regard to the particle *and*, however, it may be observed, that the unnecessary repetition of it tends to enfeeble style; and on some occasions, when the connection is clear without it, the expression is more forcible and rapid than if the particle had been used: as, “I came, I saw, I conquered.”

**Rule 3.**—The third rule is, to dispose of the capital word or words so that they may make the greatest impression.

The important words, for the most part, are placed in *the beginning of the sentence*: as, in the following examples: “Silver and gold, I have none; but what I have, I will give you.” “Your fathers, where are they?” It is evident that the first sentence derives much of its force from the unusual arrangement of the words. It is of the nature of an inversion. The place of greatest emphasis in a sentence will be discussed presently. In some instances the beginning is the place of greatest emphasis; in most cases, however, it is the end. The last impression will generally be the strongest.

**Rule 4.**—The fourth rule is, that a weaker assertion or proposition should never come after a stronger one; and that, when a sentence consists of two members, the longer should, generally, be the concluding one.

In general, it is agreeable to find a sentence rising in its progress, and in importance, to the very last word, when this construction can be managed without affectation.

**Rule 5.**—A sentence should never be concluded with an adverb, a preposition, or any inconsiderable word.

The following sentences are, therefore, inaccurate: “Avarice is a crime which wise men are often guilty of;” it should be, of “which wise men,” &c. “He may have been unfortunate in his business, but he failed through
his own neglect, *to say no worse.*" The last phrase, *to say no worse*, has a bad effect at the end of the sentence. Care should be taken not to conclude a sentence with the words, *of, to, with, by, it, about, &c.*

**Rule 6.**—The sixth rule relating to the strength of a sentence, is, that in the members of a sentence, where two things are compared or contrasted; where either a resemblance or an opposition is intended to be expressed; some resemblance in the language and construction should be preserved. For, when the things themselves correspond to each other, we naturally expect to find a similar correspondence in the words.

Thus, when it is said, “The wise man is happy when he gains his own approbation; the fool, when he recommends himself to the applause of those about him;” the opposition would have been more regular, if it had been expressed thus: “The wise man is happy when he gains his own approbation; the fool, when he gains that of others.”

“A friend exaggerates one’s virtues; an enemy inflames his crimes.” Better thus: “A friend exaggerates one’s virtues; an enemy, his crimes.”

**Rule 7.**—Attend to the sound, the harmony and easy flow of the words and members of the sentence.

Sound is a quality much inferior to sense, yet it is one which must not be disregarded. For, as long as sounds are the vehicles or conveyances for our ideas, there will be a very considerable connection between the idea which is conveyed, and the nature of the sound which conveys it. Pleasing ideas, and forcible reasoning, can hardly be transmitted to the mind, by means of harsh and disagreeable sounds.

If we would speak forcibly, we must avoid the use of such words as the following: 1. Such as are composed of words already compounded, the several parts of which are not easily and, therefore, not closely, united: as, "Unsuccessfulness, wrongheadedness, tenderheartedness." 2. Such as have the syllables which immediately follow
the accented syllable crowded with consonants that do not easily coalesce: as, _Questionless, chroniclers, conventiclers._” 3. Such as have too many syllables following the accented syllable: as, “_Primarily, cursorily, summarily, peremptoriness._” 4. Such as have short or unaccented syllables very much alike: as, “_Holily, siltily, lowlily._”

The opening sentence of a paragraph should make a general statement of the nature of the theme to be considered. If this is not done, however, in the first sentence, it should not be too long postponed. This remark applies to only the beginning of a discourse. The student ought first to examine the number of words in a sentence; then the order of the words, the propriety of their use, and finally the distribution of the emphasis. For this purpose a sentence may be regarded as consisting of three parts, viz., a _beginning_, a _middle_ and an _end_. In the opinion of the best rhetoricians, the end of a sentence is the place of greatest emphasis; next in importance is the beginning. The middle is the place that is least emphatic. As every sentence has parts that are important, and other parts of less consequence, the most important idea should be placed at the end; that next in importance should be put at the beginning, and the unimportant ideas in the middle. By an explicit or an implicit reference, every sentence should be connected with every other in the paragraph.

**Section III.—TROPES OR FIGURES OF SPEECH**

The fourth requisite of good composition is a judicious use of the Figures of Speech.

In general, a _Trope_ implies some departure from simplicity of expression; the idea which we mean to convey is expressed in a particular manner, and with some circumstances added, which renders the impression more strong and vivid. When we say, “A good man enjoys comfort in the midst of adversity,” we express our thoughts in the simplest manner; but when we say, “To the upright there ariseth a light in the hour of dark-
ness," the same sentiment is expressed in a figurative style; light is put for comfort, and darkness for adversity.

The principal advantages of the Figures of Speech are the following: *First*, They enrich language, and render it more copious. *Second*, They frequently give us a much clearer and more striking view of the principal object than we could have if it were expressed in simple terms and divested of its accessory idea.

The following are the principal, viz.:

Metaphor, Synechdoche, Hyperbole,
Allegory, Personification, Exclamation,
Comparison, Apostrophe, Irony,
Mentonymy, Antithesis, Climax.

**A Metaphor** is a figure founded entirely on the resemblance which one thing bears to another: as when we say of a great man, "He is the pillar of the State."

The following rules should be observed in the use of the Metaphor:

*Rule 1.*—They should not be used too profusely, and should always be such as accord with the strain of our sentiment.

*Rule 2.*—Care should be taken that the resemblance, which is the foundation of metaphor, be clear and perspicuous, not far-fetched or difficult to discover."

*Rule 3.* — Metaphorical and plain language should never be jumbled together.

*Rule 4.* — Two inconsistent metaphors should never meet in one subject: as,

I bridle in my struggling muse with pain,
That longs to launch into a bolder strain.  
*Addison.*

The muse, figured as a horse, may be bridled; but when we speak of launching, we make it a ship; and by no force of imagination can it be supposed both a horse and a ship at the same moment.
Allegory.—An allegory may be regarded as a metaphor continued through a series of sentences. The rules for the metaphor may, in general, be applied to allegory; indeed, the only material difference between the two figures, is, that a metaphor always explains itself by words that are connected with it in their proper meaning: as, "Achilles was a lion in battle;" here the word lion is sufficiently interpreted by the mention of Achilles.

The Scriptures contain many beautiful examples of allegory; we shall select one from the 79th Psalm, where the people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine:

"Thou hast brought a vineyard out of Egypt; thou hast cast out the Gentiles and planted it. Thou wast the guide of its journey in its sight; thou plantedst the roots thereof, and it filled the land. The shadow of it covered the hills; and the branches thereof the cedars of God. It stretched forth its branches unto the sea, and its boughs unto the river. Why hast thou broken down the hedge thereof, so that all they who pass by the way do pluck it? The boar out of the wood hath laid it waste; and a singular wild beast hath devoured it. Turn again, O God of hosts, look down from heaven, and see, and visit this vineyard."

Simile.—Comparison, or Simile, is the resemblance between two objects formally expressed and generally pursued more fully than the nature of the metaphor admits: as, "True virtue is like gold in the furnace: the more it is heated, the brighter it shines." "As the mountains are about Jerusalem, so the Lord is round about His people."

Metonymy.—Metonymy is the substitution of the name of the cause for the effect, the container for the thing contained, the sign for the thing signified: as, "He read Milton;" that is, "Milton's works." "Gray hairs should be respected;" "gray hairs" are put for "old age." "The kettle boils;" "kettle" for water

Synecdoche.—By Synecdoche is meant the substitution of a part for the whole, or a whole for a part: as, "A fleet of twenty sail." Sail, for ships; and when we use the head for the person; waves for the sea, &c.
Personification.—Personification is that figure by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects: as, “The earth smiles with plenty;” “History informs us;” “The desert shall rejoice and bloom as the rose.”

Apostrophe.—Apostrophe is a turning off from the regular subject to address some absent person or thing: as, “Death is swallowed up in victory. O death! where is thy sting? O grave! where is thy victory?”

Antithesis.—Antithesis is a figure which strengthens the language and heightens the effect by contrasting objects of opposite characters: as, “If you wish to enrich a man, study not to increase his stores, but to diminish his desires.” “Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull.”

Hyperbole.—The Hyperbole consists in magnifying an object beyond its natural bounds: as, when we say, “As swift as the wind;” “As quick as lightning;” “White as snow.”

Hyperboles are of two kinds; either such as are employed in description, or such as are suggested by the warmth of passion. All passions without exception, love, terror, amazement, indignation, and even grief, throw the mind into confusion, exaggerate their objects, and, of course, prompt a hyperbolical style. Hence in Milton the following sentiments of Satan, as strongly as they are described, contain nothing but what is natural and proper, exhibiting the picture of a spirit agitated with rage and despair.

Me, miserable! which way shall I fly
Infinite wrath, and infinite despair?
Which way I fly is Hell, myself am Hell;
And in the lowest depth, a lower deep.
Still threatening to devour me, opens wide,
To which the Hell I suffer seems a Heaven.

The fear of an enemy augments the conceptions of the size of their leader. “I saw their chief,” says the scout of Ossian, “tall as a rock of ice; his spear the blasted fir;
his shield, the rising moon; he sat on the shore, like a cloud of mist on the hill."

**Exclamation.**—Exclamation is an expression of some sentiment produced by strong emotions of the mind: such as those of surprise, admiration, joy, grief, &c.: as, "O wretched man that I am!" "Ah me, miserable!"

**Irony.**—Irony is a figure, which consists in expressing ourselves in a manner contrary to our thoughts, not, however, with a view to deceive, but to add force to our observations: as, when we reprove a person for negligence by saying, "You have taken great care, indeed."

Ironical language has often a very strong effect, particularly when used by way of an exhortation; as, for instance, when a person has set forth the inconsistency of a thing, he concludes with a feigned encouragement to pursue it. Exclamation and Irony are sometimes united: as, in Cicero’s oration for Balbus, where he derides his accuser by saying, "O excellent interpreter of the law! master of antiquity! corrector and amender of our constitution!"

**Climax.**—Climax consists in heightening all the circumstances of an object or action which we desire to place in a strong light.

Cicero gives a lively instance of this figure, when he says: "It is a crime to put a Roman citizen in bonds; it is the height of guilt to scourge him: little less than parricide to put him to death: what name then shall I give to the act of crucifying him?"

There are several other figures, such as *vision*, or imagery, which represent absent objects as actually present; and *interrogation*, when a question is asked, not with the design of gaining information, but for the purpose of defying contradiction to something already stated.

Balaam, addressing himself to Balak, says: "The Lord is not a man, that He should lie; neither is He the son of a man, that He should repent. Hath He said it? and shall He not do it? Hath He spoken it? and shall He not make it good?"
EPISTOLARY WRITING

As epistolary composition, or letter writing, is more generally used in society than any other, it deserves to be studied and practiced with more than ordinary care. Every person claiming the least pretensions to an English education, should be able to write a good letter. It will not, therefore, be deemed inappropriate to introduce here a few observations, that may serve to direct the young in acquiring a graceful and elegant epistolary style.

1. The first and fundamental requisite in epistolary style is, that it should be natural, graceful and concise. The most elegant letters are those in which the language flows easily and without any appearance of study or affectation.

2. The utmost care should be taken, that the orthography be correct. The misspelling of a single word is often sufficient to bring one under the suspicion of being illiterate.

3. Punctuation should never be neglected, even in the shortest note to a friend; and care should be taken that the capital letters be properly used.

4. In addressing a letter, note, &c., the following rules should be carefully observed:

AN ADDRESS TO ONE PERSON

1. An address to a married lady should be Mrs.—as Mrs. J. Smith.

2. An address to an unmarried lady should be Miss—as Miss Brown.

3. An address to a gentleman should be Mr.—as Mr. James Smith.
AN ADDRESS TO TWO OR MORE PERSONS

1. An address to two or more gentlemen of the same name, family, or firm, should be Messrs.—as The Messrs. Bond, Messrs. J. H. Carson & Co. Never abbreviate Mess.

2. When two or more single ladies of the same name are to be addressed, Misses or Miss may be used: as, The Misses Brown or The Miss Browns. On this point authorities are not in entire agreement.

3. In beginning a letter, let the name of your residence and the date be at the top of the paper, and a little to the right; but in a card or note, the residence and date should be placed at the end of the written matter, but at the left of the paper.

4. With us the title Esq., the contraction of Esquire, is usually bestowed upon members of the bar. Judges are addressed as Honorable. The abbreviation Hon. is sufficient. The same title is used in addressing members of either the National or the State Legislatures. Thus, a letter intended for a Representative in Congress may be addressed:

   Hon. John C. Williams,
   House of Representatives,
   Washington, D. C.

or (for a Senator),

   Hon. William J. Brown,
   U. S. Senate Chamber,
   Washington, D. C.

   Mr. and Esquire should not be used at the same time.

MODELS

A letter to an acquaintance on his recovery from a dangerous illness:

   BALTIMORE, January 8, 1850.

   Dear Sir:

   Give me leave to mingle my joy with that of all your friends and relatives, in the recovery of your health, and to join them in thanking God for continuing to your numerous
well-wishers, the benefits of your useful and valuable life. That He may long preserve you in health, and favor all your undertakings, for the good of your worthy family, and the pleasure of your friends and acquaintances, is the hearty prayer of your admirer.

Very truly yours,

CHARLES W. DAVIS.

A devoted friend would have been addressed as, "My dear John." A person whom we know slightly we would address as, "Dear Sir." If the acquaintance was of longer standing, a proper form would be, "My dear Sir." The words kinsman or kinswoman may be substituted for "relative."

Reply to the above:

BALTIMORE, January 10, 1850.

Dear Sir:

Receive my warmest thanks for your kind congratulations. My return to health will be to me a greater source of pleasure, if I can contribute, in any manner, to the happiness of my friends, and particularly to that of you and yours.

With my best wishes for your future happiness and welfare, I remain,

Respectfully yours,

JOHN ABBOT.

Cards and Notes are generally written in the third person—thus:

Mr. Smith presents his respects to Mr. Morgan, and congratulates him on his safe arrival from his long and disastrous voyage. Mr. S. regrets exceedingly that he cannot also include his congratulations for the complete success of the voyage.

Boston, February 19, 1850.

The Reply.

Mr. Morgan acknowledges the receipt of Mr. Smith’s kind note of congratulations, and thanks him for the interest he has manifested on the occasion. Although the voyage has not been so successful as could be wished, still Mr. M. has great reason to be thankful, that it has been of great benefit to his health.

Boston, February 20, 1850.
**Invitation to Dine.**

Mr. Mason requests the pleasure of Mr. Smith's company at dinner, on Wednesday next, at 3 o'clock.

Monday, February 12th.

**Reply.**

Mr. Smith has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of Mr. Mason's note, inviting him to dine on Wednesday next, at three o'clock, and takes great pleasure in accepting the invitation.

**Invitation to an Evening Party.**

Mrs. Hunter requests the pleasure of Mr. and Mrs. Madison's company, on Tuesday evening, 15th instant.

Friday, January 10th.

**Or thus:**

Miss R. would be happy to have the company of Miss K. on Wednesday evening next. Only a small party is expected.

Monday Morning.

**A Note to a Young Lady.**

Mr. H. presents his compliments to Miss C., and requests the pleasure of her company to a Concert, on Friday evening next, at 7 o'clock.

Tuesday Evening, January 10th.

**Reply, Declining the Invitation.**

Miss C. thanks Mr. H. for his politeness; but is sorry she can not accept his offer, being already engaged.

Wednesday Morning.
One copy del. to Cat. Div.

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