

YORK'S

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

REVISED AND ADAPTED

TO

SOUTHERN SCHOOLS.

NEW YORK

THIRD EDITION.

RALEIGH, N. C.

BRANSON, FARRAR & CO.

CATHERINE STREET.

1864.

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P R E F A C E .



At what age should the study of Grammar be commenced? This and similar questions have frequently been asked the author. But no age, perhaps, can be specified; some are as well, or better prepared to commence the study at eight or nine, than others are at ten or eleven, or even, perhaps, at twelve or thirteen. The author is of the opinion that, with a suitable text-book and instruction, the study should be commenced as soon as the pupils can read intelligibly. This study should be commenced early, for the following reasons:

1.—In order to prevent the formation of erroneous habits of speaking and writing; for every one must be aware of the great difficulty of breaking up erroneous habits, once formed and deeply seated.

2.—Because Grammar, well understood, tends directly to facilitate any or all other studies. As the knowledge of any subject must be acquired through the medium of language, whether written or oral; it follows, therefore, of necessity, that the better this medium is understood, other things being equal, the more thorough and rapid will be the progress in acquiring a knowledge of the various subjects, embracing the educational course.

3.—If this subject be not mastered before the pupils enter College, their knowledge of it is likely to be defective through life, since but little attention is generally paid to the study of English Grammar after they commence the Collegiate course.

One of the leading features in the art of teaching, is, the adaptation of the subject to the various capacities of the pupils. Much time and money have been lost, and, perhaps, pupils injured by entering upon

the study of subjects which are above and beyond the utmost reach of their faculties. Led by this, and similar views, the author has attempted the publication of a Grammar adapted to the capacities of the juvenile mind—which Grammar he denominates “An Introduction to the Illustrative and Constructive Grammar.” The plan of teaching, as unfolded in the latter, is precisely similar to that of the former; hence it will be found to be a convenient and easy introduction to the more voluminous and elaborate treatise embraced in the former work.

The object of the author, in the publication of this, as well as the former work, is to make the study of English Grammar more attractive by making it more thorough and practical. If success should crown his efforts in this respect, he will rest satisfied that he has done a good work—a work that will tell for good upon the present and subsequent generations. With these few prefatory remarks, this little work is submitted to the examination of a candid and discerning public.

THE AUTHOR.

York Collegiate Institute, N. C., October, 1860.

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INTRODUCTION

TO THE

Illustrative and Constructive Grammar.

PART FIRST.

LESSON I.—OF SENTENCES.

What is a Sentence?

A Sentence is such an assemblage of words as asserts a fact; as, The sun shines.

What elements are necessary to assert a fact?

The Subject and Predicate.

What is the Subject of a Sentence?

It is that of which something is said.

What is the Predicate?

It is that which is said of the subject.

Which is the subject in the foregoing sentence, "the sun shines?"

Sun.

Why?

Because something is said of it.

What is said of it?

Shines.

What then is *shines*?

It is the Predicate.

Why?

Because it is said or affirmed of the subject, *sun*.

EXERCISES.

[Point out the Subjects and Predicates in the following sentences:]

Boys play. John reads. Mary studies. Birds sing.
Flowers bloom. Trees grow. Fishes swim in the sea.

LESSON II.

OF SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX SENTENCES.

What is a Simple Sentence?

A Simple sentence has but one subject and predicate, asserting one fact only; as, Rivers flow.

What is a Compound sentence ?

A Compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences, united by a coordinate connective; as, Wheat grows, *and* men reap it.

What do you understand by a co-ordinate connective ?

A *co-ordinate* connective unites two clauses or elements of equal rank in construction.

What is a Complex sentence ?

A Complex sentence must contain at least one leading clause, and one subordinate, or modifying one; as, The boy *who studies*, will improve.

Which is the leading clause in this sentence ?

The boy will improve.

Which is the Subordinate or modifying clause ?

Who studies.

Why is this called the subordinate or modifying clause ?

Because it is not only incapable of making sense of itself, but it also modifies the subject of the leading clause.

EXERCISES.

[Point out the Simple, Compound, and Complex sentences.]

The boy wounded the old bird, and stole the young ones. Flowers grow in the gardens. The bird which sung so sweetly, has flown. John has a new book. When he comes, we shall hear the news. John reads; and James writes.

LESSON III.

OF CLAUSES.

What is a Clause ?

A clause is a subdivision of a sentence, containing a subject and predicate.

How many kinds of clauses are there ?

There are three kinds, viz: the leading, the co-ordinate, and the subordinate, or modifying.

What is the leading clause ?

The leading clause generally stands first in the sentence and contains the principal subject and predicate.

What is the co-ordinate clause ?

The co-ordinate clause is equal in rank to the leading clause, and can make sense independent of it.

What is the *subordinate*, or *modifying* clause ?

The subordinate is inferior in rank to the leading clause, and incapable of making sense without it. The following sentence contains a clause of each kind ; "THE SCRIPTURES CONTAIN THE REVEALED WILL OF GOD ; *they were written at different periods, by holy men* who wrote as they were moved by the Holy Ghost."

You will perceive that the leading clause is in small capitals, the co-ordinate, in italics, and the subordinate, in roman letters.

EXERCISES.

[Point out the different kinds of clauses in the following sentences.]

Henry works ; and John plays. Eliza will improve, if she study. We shall hear the news when the messenger arrives. James is a good boy, and he learns well. The boy who does not study, will not improve.

LESSON IV.

OF AFFIRMATIVE, SUBFIRMATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, EXCLAMATIVE, IMPERATIVE, AND PETITIONATIVE SENTENCES.

What is an Affirmative sentence ?

An Affirmative sentence expresses the highest degree of affirmation or verbal force ; as, Snow is white.

What is a Subfirmative sentence ?

A Subfirmative sentence expresses a less degree of verbal force than the affirmative ; as, The reporter may have been mistaken. If Mary study, she will improve.

What is an Interrogative sentence ?

An Interrogative sentence contains a *question* ; as, Is Henry at home ? Who wrote that ?

How many kinds of Interrogative sentences are there ?

Two, viz : Direct and Indirect.

When is a question Direct ?

When the question is asked with a *verb*, the answer being *yes* or *no* ; as, *Is* he at home ? *No*.

When is it Indirect ?

When the question is asked with an *adverb* or *Interrogative* pronoun ; as, *Where* is thy home ? *Who* art thou ?

What is an Exclamative sentence ?

An Exclamative sentence expresses some feeling or emotion together with the affirmation ; as, How cold and feeble is my love ! O that I had a hiding place !

What is an Imperative sentence ?

An Imperative sentence contains a *command* ; as, " Go ye into all the world."

What is a Petitionative sentence ?

A Petitionative sentence contains a *petition* ; as, " Forgive us our debts."

EXERCISES.

[Point out the different kinds of sentences in the following :]

May I go ? May the Lord prosper your ways ! Boys, attend to your studies. He is at home. Whither shall I fly ? If he study, he will improve. I may have said it. Who can abide his coming. Washington was a patriot.

LESSON V.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

How is the Subject construed in affirmative and Sub-affirmative sentences ?

It is generally construed *before* the *predicate* ; as, *Flowers* bloom. The *husbandman* is happy, if *he* knows his advantages.

How is the Subject construed in Interrogative sentences ?

It is generally construed *after* the *predicate*, or between its parts ; as, Is *Mary* at home ? *Does he* know me ?

How is it construed in Exclamative sentences ?

Generally *after* the *predicate* ; as, How short is *life* !

How is the Subject construed in Imperative and Petitionative sentences ?

It is construed *after* the *predicate* ; as, Go *thou*. Forgive *thou* us our trespasses.

REM. The subject is generally understood in such sentences as the last.

EXERCISES.

[Point out the construction of the Subject in the following sentences.]

Wolves howl in the woods. Dogs bark. If the boys study, they will improve. Has John lost his pencil? Is Mary studious? Obey my precepts. Pity thou me. How poor is gold! How swiftly time glides!

LESSON VI.

OF THE ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

An Element is a constituent part of a sentence.

How many Elements are there?

There are five, classified according to the office they perform in the sentence.

What are they called?

Substantive, Verbal, Adjective, Adverbial, and Connective.

How would you define a Substantive element?

Substantive elements are the names of things, or their substitutes, or whatever can be made the subject of affirmation.

What do Substantive elements embrace?

All nouns and pronouns.

What do you mean by a noun?

A Noun is the *name* of anything; as, Man, Raleigh.

What by a Pronoun?

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as, he, she, it.

What are Verbal elements?

Verbal elements are such as affirm or express action.

What do they embrace?

All verbs and their variations.

What is a verb?

A Verb asserts or affirms; as, The bird *flies*.

LESSON VII.

ELEMENTS CONTINUED.

What are adjective elements?

Adjective elements limit substantive elements; as, *Fair ladies*; men *of business*.

What do Adjective elements embrace?

They embrace all adjectives, articles, and participles.

What is an adjective?

An Adjective is a word added to a noun, to express its quality, or limit its meaning; as, a *studious* boy; *that* book.

What is an Article?

An Article is a word prefixed to nouns to limit their signification; as, *A* man; *the* men.

REMARK.—It will be perceived by the pupils that the article differs but little from the specifying adjective; some authors have, therefore, classified it with the adjective.

What is a Participle?

A participle is a word derived from a verb, and partakes of the nature of a verb, and also of an adjective; as, I see a man *walking*.

REM.—Such phrases and clauses as limit substantive elements, are also included in Adjective elements.

What are Adverbial elements?

Adverbial elements limit the Predicate or some other verbal element.

What do they embrace?

They embrace all adverbs, phrases, and clauses used adverbially.

What is an Adverb?

An Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, participle, adjective, or adverb; as, a *very* good pen writes *extremely well*. The bird was singing *sweetly*.

What are Connective elements?

They are such as unite other elements in current discourse.

What do they embrace?

They embrace conjunctions, prepositions, relative pronouns, and connective adverbs.

What is a Conjunction?

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or clauses of sentences; as, James *and* John are at home.

What is a Preposition?

A Preposition is used to connect words, and show the relation between them; as, Henry went *into* the country.

MODEL.

“The lowering clouds move slowly.”

This is a simple sentence; because it contains a single subject and predicate.

The is an adjective element of the first kind, and limits the element *clouds* by pointing it out definitely.

Lowering is an adjective element of the first kind, and limits *clouds* by pointing out what clouds are meant.

Clouds is a substantive element, and is the *subject* of this proposition; because something is said of it.

Move is a verbal element, and is the *predicate* of this sentence; because it is said of the subject, *action* being predicated.

Slowly is an adverbial element of the first kind, and modifies the predicate *move* by pointing out the manner of its action.

What part of speech is *the*?

It is the Definite Article.

Why?

Because it limits the noun *clouds* to a particular collection of clouds.

What part of speech is *lowering*?

It is an Adjective.

Why?

Because it is added to the noun *clouds*, to express its quality.

What kind of an adjective is it?

It is a qualifying adjective.

Why?

Because it expresses *quality*.

What part of speech is *clouds*?

It is a noun.

Why?

Because it is a *name*.

What sort of a noun is it?

It is a Common Noun.

Why?

Because it is a name common to a whole class of things.

What is *move*?

A verb.

Why?

Because it asserts or affirms.

What is *slowly*?

It is an Adverb.

Why?

Because it is added to the verb *move*, to modify its meaning.

EXERCISES.

[Analyze the following sentences, and point out the parts of speech as exhibited in the above Model.]

Those tall trees wave gracefully. Good men sometimes suffer adversity. Careless boys learn their lessons badly. John sees a man walking slowly. Those mountain tor-

rents run rapidly. Those little birds sing sweetly. The trumpet sounds loudly.

LESSON VIII.

OF ELEMENTS OF THE FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD CLASSES.

What is an element of the First Class?

An element of the First class is a *single* word, used as a constituent part of a sentence.

What is an element of the Second Class?

It is a Phrase, used as an element of the sentence.

What is a Phrase?

A Phrase consists of two or more words closely united, and modifying some other element, but it contains no affirmation.

What is an element of the Third Class?

It is a *subordinate clause*, used as an element of the sentence.

MODEL.

That noble General who had gained so many victories, died at last, in prison.

That is an Adjective element of the First Class, and limits General by pointing it out *definitely*.

Noble is an Adjective element of the First Class, and limits General by expressing its *quality*.

General is a Substantive element, and is the Subject of this proposition; because something is said of it.

Who had gained so many victories, is an Adjective element of the Third Class, and limits General by pointing out what General is meant.

Died is a Verbal element, and is the Predicate of this

sentence ; because it is affirmed of the subject, *action* being predicated.

At last, is an Adverbial element of the Second Class, and modifies the Predicate *died* by pointing out the *time* of the *event*.

In prison, is an Adverbial element of the Second Class, and modifies the Predicate *died* by pointing out the *scene* of its *action*.

EXERCISES.

[Analyze the following sentences, and point out the parts of speech as in the foregoing Lessons]

Mary walked into the country. A beam of tranquility often plays around the heart of a truly pious man. The student who studies his lessons closely, will improve rapidly. A winding stream murmured through the grove.—The sun shines upon the floor. Henry Clay was a distinguished orator. Paul was eminent for his zeal. Children play upon the green grass.

LESSON IX.

OF PRINCIPAL AND SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

What are Principal Elements ?

The Subject and Predicate.

Why ?

Because no sentence can exist without them.

What are Subordinate Elements ?

They are such as limit the subject or predicate, either directly or indirectly.

Why are they called Subordinate ?

Because they are not absolutely necessary to the existence of a sentence ; but are of subordinate use, being employed to express some *circumstance* of a fact.

What is meant by modifying the subject or predicate *indirectly* ?

When an element modifies either the subject or the predicate *through the medium of some other element*, it is said to modify it *indirectly*.

Can you give an example to illustrate this ?

“A very cold day is very unpleasant.”

Very, in this example, modifies *unpleasant directly*, and *day indirectly* ; since *unpleasant* limits *day*, and *very* the adjective *unpleasant*.

To what part of speech, then, does *very* belong ?

In such constructions, it is generally called an Adverb ; but, more properly speaking, it is a Secondary Adjective.

MODEL.

“My gold pen writes extremely well.”

Pen and *writes* are Principal elements ; because they are essential to the existence of the sentence ; all the others are Subordinate. The element *extremely* limits the predicate *writes indirectly* through the medium of the element *well* ; it may, therefore, be called a Secondary Adverb.

EXERCISES.

[You may now discriminate between Principal and Subordinate elements, and point out such elements as limit the Principal ones indirectly, as exhibited in the above Model.]

A wise man is very useful. Eliza is very handsome.—
John is tenacious of his opinions. The sun shines very pleasantly. Mary walks very gracefully. A very good pen writes extremely well. Peter has too much confidence.

LESSON X.

ON THE SUBJECT,—SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX.

Your attention was called to the subject in Lesson 1st; now can you tell me what the subject is?

The Subject is that of which something is said, and appears to be a kind of *foundation* word.

Now tell me what you understand by a simple subject?

The subject is Simple when it consists of a *single word*; as, *John* writes.

When is the subject Compound?

When it consists of one or more elements co-ordinately united; as, *Henry* and *William* obey their teacher.

When is it Complex?

It is Complex when it is limited by an element of the second or third class; as, *The day of vengeance* is at hand.

REM.—The Complex subject is generally called the Logical subject.

EXERCISES.

[Point out the Subjects, and tell whether they are Simple, Compound, or Complex.]

Birds fly in the air. John of Boston has returned.—James and Joseph reside in New York. The boy who studies, will improve. Eliza is handsome. Mary and Martha went to the grave.

LESSON XI.

OF THE PREDICATE—SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX.

As the Predicate is a very important element, we will call your attention to it again.

Can you tell me what the Predicate is?

The Predicate is that which is affirmed or denied of the subject.

Then is anything the Predicate, that can be said of the Subject ?

It is.

A Verb, Adjective, Noun, or Pronoun, can be said of the Subject ; can all these parts of speech be Predicate ?

Certainly ; for, of the subject, may be predicated Action, Quality, or Identity ; as, *Peter walks*, (Action) ; *Solomon was wise*, (Quality) ; *John is a student*, (Identity.)

REM.—The verb “*to be*,” in Logic, is called the Copula, but, in Grammar, it is generally regarded as a part of the Predicate.

When is the predicate simple ?

It is simple when it consists of one element ; as, the bird *flies*.

REM.—The verb, in such examples, is said to include both the Copula and Predicate, and is equivalent to “the bird *is flying*.”

When is the predicate Compound ?

It is compound when it is composed of two or more elements, united by a co-ordinate connective ; as, *Kingdoms rise and fall*.

When is it Complex ?

It is complex when limited by an element of the second or third class ; as, *Isaac walked into the field*.

EXERCISES.

[Point out the Predicates, and tell whether they are Simple, Compound, or Complex, also whether Action, Quality, or Identity is predicated]

The rivers flow. Flowers bloom in the spring. Susan walks and talks. She is wise. Washington was prudent. Henry is a student. James walks through the fields. The girls walk into the garden. David was pious and brave. We shall hear the news when he comes.

LESSON XII.

OF POSSESSIVE AND OBJECTIVE ELEMENTS.

What is the Possessive element?

When one substantive element limits another by denoting Possession, it may be called the *Possessive* element; as, *John's* book.

REM.—Since *John's* limits book by pointing out the thing possessed, it might, properly enough, be called an Adjective element; but, as in parsing, we call *John's* a Noun in the Possessive case, it is better, perhaps, to call it the Possessive element.

What is an Objective element?

When a substantive element limits the predicate or verbal element, it is called the *Objective* element; as, Peter struck *Thomas*.

When the Objective element limits the predicate or verbal element, what does it point out?

It points out the *object* of its *action*. Thomas, for instance, in the foregoing sentence, points out the *object* of the *action*, expressed by the verbal element *struck*.

EXERCISES.

[Point out the Possessive and Objective elements in the following sentences.]

Peter's dog bit John's finger. Mary tore Eliza's book. James hid Susan's bonnet. The boy lost the girl's gloves. Henry wants Sylvester's dog. Peter has lost his book. Jane left her shawl.

LESSON XIII.

OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF ELEMENTS.

What do you understand by the construction of Elements?

The order in which elements are arranged in a sentence, is called Construction.

With what are Adjective elements construed?

With substantive elements.

When Adjective elements of the first class are *assumed* of their supers, where are they construed?

They are generally construed before them; as, a *wise* man. A *beautiful* lady. A *studious* boy.

When such elements are *predicated*, how are they construed?

They are generally construed *after* the *predicate*; as, she is *handsome*. James is *tall*.

Where are adjective elements of the *second* or *third* class construed?

They are generally construed *after* the *substantive* element; as, a lady *of* *prudence*. The boy *who* *studies*.

With what are Adverbial elements construed?

They are construed with *verbal* elements.

Can any precise rule be given for the construction of Adverbial elements of the *first* class?

No. They should, however, be so construed as will best promote the euphony and perspicuity of the sentence.

How are Adverbial elements of the *second* and *third* classes construed?

They are generally construed *after* the *predicate*, or *between its parts*; as, happiness or misery is, *in a great measure*, placed in our own hands. Isaac walked *into the field*.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

[You may now analyze the following sentences as directed in preceding models.]

Henry resides in New York. The young ladies who study their lessons, improve rapidly. Mary is handsome. A wise man is useful. The lowering clouds are moving slowly. She walks in the garden. A man of studious habits grows in knowledge. The sun shines through the window.

LESSON XIV.

OF MONOLOGIC ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

What do you understand by Monologic Analysis of sentences?

It is resolving sentences into clauses and phrases.

What is each element called?

It is called a *member*, or *mono* as denominated by Mr. James Brown of Philadelphia.

What characters are used in this Analysis?

The leading clause is inclosed in brackets, and all others in parentheses, as exhibited in the following example:
[Elijah smote the water] (of Jordan) (with his mantle.)

What can you say of the words of which each member is composed?

They have an inseparable, constructive relation to each other, and, in parsing, they must be disposed of in their own members respectively.

What are such words as give members, called?

They are called *member-givers*.

What are they called in grammar, generally?

They are generally called Conjunctions, Connective Adverbs, Relative Pronouns, and Prepositions; but they might all be included in one general term, *Connectives*.

How may these connectives or *member-givers* be divided?

They may be divided, first, into such as give clauses and phrases.

Which of them give clauses?

Conjunctions, Connective Adverbs, and Relative Pronouns.

Which phrases?

Prepositions.

In what other respects may they be divided?

They may be divided, secondly, into Co-ordinate and subordinate.

How would you define the co-ordinate connectives?

The Co-ordinate connectives are such as unite clauses

or members of equal rank in construction. They are *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, and *yet*.

How would you define the Subordinates?

The subordinate connectives are such as join on members of subordinate rank in construction.

What do they include?

They include *Relative Pronouns*, *Connective Adverbs*, *Prepositions*, and *some Conjunctions*, such as, *if*, *for*, *though*, &c.

REM.—Connectives should always be included in the members which they give; but, as they are connectives, they will, of course, bear some relation to some other members.

EXERCISES.

[Analyze the following sentences as exhibited in the above example?

The sun shines through the window, upon the floor. The day of the Lord is at hand. We shall hear the news when the messenger arrives. The patient had died before the doctor arrived. The young lady who instructs me in grammar, labors faithfully. John has gone into the country. Jesus went unto the mount of Olives. Dagon fell upon his face before the ark of the living God.

REM.—In exercising the class, these or similar sentences should be written upon the black-board or slates.

LESSON XV.

DENDROLOGY, OR CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

What is the literal meaning of Dendrology?

A discourse upon trees.

In what sense is it here employed?

It is here employed in an accommodated sense, to point

out the constructive relation which the members of a sentence bear to each other, as illustrated by the frame-work of a tree.

What part of a sentence is compared to the *Trunk* of a tree?

The *leading* clause, or that part, which, like the *Trunk* of a tree, can stand alone, or make sense of itself.

What elements must the *Trunk* or *leading* clause contain?

It must contain the subject and predicate, and all elements of the first kind which modify them, if any are used.

To what are the *subordinate* members compared?

They are compared to the *Branches* of a tree.

Why?

Because as the *Branches* of a *Tree* depend upon, or are supported by the *Trunk*; so the *Subordinate* members depend upon the *leading* clause, either directly or indirectly in construction, as illustrated in Diagram. (See Lesson XVII.)

LESSON XVI.

DENDROLOGY, OR CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES CONTINUED.

How many Orders of members are there?

There are two, viz: *Trunk* and *Branch*.

What is meant by *Notation*?

By *Notation*, is meant the actual expression of all or only a part of the words of members.

How many *Notations* are there?

Two, viz: *Plenary* and *Implenary*.

When is a member of the *Plenary* *Notation*?

It is *Plenary* when all the words belonging to it, are expressed; as, [Henry went] (into the field.)

When is a member of the Implenary Notation ?

It is Implenary when part of the words belonging to it, are not expressed ; as, [He gave (me) an apple.] That is, He gave an apple *to me*.

What is meant by the Integrity of a member ?

Integrity respects its entireness or unbroken state.

How many integrities are there ?

There are two, viz : Perfect and Imperfect.

What is meant by the Perfect Integrity ?

The Perfect Integrity of a member is the entireness produced by the juxta-position of all its words ; as, [He gave an apple] (*to me*.)

When is a member of the Imperfect Integrity ?

It is of the Imperfect Integrity when it is broken by the intervention of some other member ; as, *The law* (of the Lord) *is perfect*.

What is meant by the Rank of a member ?

The Rank of a member respects the frame-work grade which the sub-members derive from their supers.

What can you say of the number of Ranks ?

The number is indefinite—some sentences having more, and some less.

When is a member of the *first* rank ?

It is of the first rank when construed with the Trunk member or leading clause.

When of the second, third, &c. ?

It is of the second when construed with one of the first ; of the third when construed with one of the second, and so on.

How should the Ranks be distinguished ?

By figures written over the members ; as, 1, 2, 3, &c.

LESSON XVII.

DENDROLOGY OR CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES
CONTINUED.

What does the Position of members respect ?

The position of a member respects the place it occupies with respect to its super-member or members.

How many Positions have members ?

Three, viz: *Juxta*, *Disjuxta*, and *Binal*.

When is a member of the *Juxta-position* ?

It is of the *Juxta-position* when construed next to its super-member ; as, [Martha went] (*to the grave.*)

When of the *Disjuxta-position* ?

It is of the *Disjuxta-position* when it is separated from its super-member ; as, [Martha went] (with Mary) (*to the grave.*)

REM.—The learner will observe that the member, *to the grave*, is construed with the leading clause, *Martha went*, but it is separated from it, by the interposition of the member, *with Mary*.

When is a member of the *Binal-position* ?

It is of the *Binal-position* when it includes both the *juxta* and *disjuxta* positions ; as, [Martha was the sister] (of Mary) ; (*but she was not the sister*) (of Elizabeth.)

REM.—The learner will observe that the member, *but she was not the sister*, is construed with both the members that precede it, and is *juxta* with respect to one, and *disjuxta* with respect to the other ; hence it is said to include both.

What is meant by a *super-member* ?

A *super-member*, in rank, is directly above that member which is annexed to it.

What is a *sub-member* ?

A *sub-member*, in rank, is directly below the member to which it is annexed.

The principles unfolded in the preceding lessons, on Dendrology or Construction, in which the verbal framework of a sentence is compared to the frame-work of a

Tree, may be illustrated by the following sentence and Diagram.

[A certain Emperor (of China), (on his accession) (to the throne) (of his ancestors), commanded a general release] (of all those) (who had been imprisoned) (for debt.)



A certain Emperor commanded a general release, is a member of the Trunk order, Plenary notation, Imperfect integrity, and of the Affirmative kind, because it expresses the highest degree of verbal force.

Of China, is a member of the Branch order, Plenary notation, Perfect integrity, first rank, juxta-position, and reads with the Trunk for its

super; thus, *A certain Emperor of China* commanded a general release.

On his accession, is a member of the Branch order, Plenary notation, Perfect integrity, first rank, *disjuxta-position*, and reads with the Trunk for its *super*. *A certain Emperor* commanded a general release *on his accession*.

To the throne, is a member of the Branch order, Plenary notation, Perfect integrity, *second* rank, juxta-position, and reads with a member of the first rank for its *super*.—*On his accession to the throne*.

Of his ancestors, is a member of the Branch order, Plenary notation, Perfect integrity, *third* rank, and juxta-position, and reads with the second rank for its *super*. *To the throne of his ancestors*.

Of all those persons, is a member of the Branch order, Implenary notation, Perfect integrity, first rank, juxta-position, and reads with the Trunk for its *super*. *A certain Emperor* commanded a general release *of all those persons*.

Who had been imprisoned, is a member of the Branch order. Plenary notation, Perfect integrity, *second* rank, jux-

ta-position, and reads with a member of the first rank for its super. Of all those *who had been imprisoned*.

For debt, is a member of the Branch order, Plenary notation, Perfect integrity, *third* rank, and juxta-position, and reads with the second rank for its *super*. Who had been imprisoned *for debt*.

By inspecting the Diagram, the learner will perceive that branches No. 1 depend *directly* upon the Trunk or leading clause, that branches No. 2 depend directly upon No. 1, and that those of No. 3 depend directly upon No. 2, but that all depend directly or indirectly upon the Trunk or leading member.

Which is the Trunk or leading clause in the foregoing sentence?

A certain Emperor commanded a general release.

Why?

Because, like the Trunk of a Tree, it can stand alone, or make sense of itself.

Why is it of the Plenary notation?

Because each word belonging to it, is expressed.

Why of the Imperfect Integrity?

Because its entireness is broken by the member, *of China*.

Why of the affirmative kind?

Because it expresses the highest degree of verbal force.

Why is *on his accession* of the Branch order?

Because it depends upon the Trunk, and cannot make sense of itself.

Why of the first rank?

Because it depends directly upon the Trunk or leading member for its *super*.

Why of the *disjuxta*-position?

Because it is separated from its super, or the member with which it has a constructive relation.

Why is the member, *to the throne*, of the second rank?

Because it depends upon the *first* for its super.

Why is the member, of his ancestors, of the third rank?

Because it depends upon the second rank for its super.

REM. *To Teachers.* The Teacher may ask similar questions until the young learners become familiar with all the terms used in this nomenclature.

EXERCISES.

[Analyze and Construe the following sentences as exhibited in the foregoing Models.]

[A beam¹ (of tranquility) often plays] (around¹ the heart²) (of the truly pious man). [Martha went] (with¹ Mary), (to the grave²) (of Lazarus). [There was a marriage] (in² Cana) (of² Galilee). [Dagon fell] (upon¹ his face) (before¹ the ark) (of the living God). [*The young lady* (who instructs me) (in² Grammar), *lives*] (in the city¹) (of New York). [Lot fled] (with his two daughters), (to the mountains). [Mary remained] (in the house¹) (with the Jews) (who had visited² her). [Time slept] (on flowers,) (and lent his glasses) (to hope). (On that night,) [sleep departed] (from the king.)

[The Lord, (into his garden,) comes ;]

(The spices yield a rich perfume ;)

(The lillies grow and thrive.)

REM.—After the class has been fully practiced on the above exercises, sentences should be written upon the black-board or slate without the analysis.

LESSON XVIII.

OF ALLIGATION OF SENTENCES.

What is Alligation?

It is the art of combining the words of a sentence, by

lines which indicate the *government, relation, and connection* of the several parts.

How are lines which indicate government drawn ?

They are drawn *over*.

How are all others drawn ?

They are drawn *under*, as shown in the following Diagram :



Line 1 shows Henry governs *went*, and reads with it—Henry went. Line 2 shows *with* connects *went* and *me*, and reads with them—went with me. Line 3 shows that *with* governs *me*, and reads with it—with me. Line 4 shows that *to* connects *went* and *ship*, and reads with them—went to ship. Line 5 shows *to* governs *ship*, and reads with it—to ship. Line 6 shows that *the* belongs to *ship*, and reads with it—the ship.

The object of this exercise is not only to give an ocular illustration of the various grammatical connections and relations which words bear to each other in a sentence, but also to show that words which are grammatically related to each other, make sense when read together.

EXERCISES.

[Write the following and similar sentences on slates or the Black-board, and give the alligation as exhibited in the above Diagram.]

The old fox heard the hunter's horn sounding. Foxes kill women's geese. I see a man walking through the fields. The day glides sweetly o'er our heads. That old man labors in the field. John walked with his sisters to church. Mary studies her lessons well. The moon shines through broken clouds. The lowering clouds are moving slowly. Elizabeth went into the hill-country.

PART SECOND.

LESSON I.

OF LANGUAGE.

What is language?

Language is the medium through which mind travels to mind, and thereby communicates thoughts, feelings, desires, and affections.

Do brutes, in any sense, possess the power of language?

In some sense, they do; since, by various inarticulate sounds, they make known their wants and sufferings.

How many kinds of language are there?

Two, namely, spoken and written.

What are the elements of spoken language?

They are simple sounds, uttered by the human voice.

What are the elements of written language?

They are letters or characters, invented to represent simple sounds.

May not Jesticulation be regarded as a kind of language?

It may; since men, who are barbarians to each other, can understand each other by means of signs or jestures.

Since language is the medium of communicating thoughts, is it not important that it should be understood?

It is; and, hence, arises the necessity of studying thoroughly the Grammar of the language which we employ for such medium of communication of thought.

LESSON II.

OF GRAMMAR.

What is grammar?

Grammar is the science of language, or, more literally, the science of letters, or the science of sounds.

What do letters represent ?

They represent simple sounds.

How many simple sounds are there in the English language ?

Thirty-eight.

How many letters or signs are there to represent those sounds ?

There are but ~~thirty-six~~²⁶ in the English Alphabet.

What necessarily follows from there being more sounds than letters ?

Some letters must represent more sounds than one.

What must necessarily arise from this ?

Much obscurity and many provincialisms.

How many letters should there be in a perfect language ?

As many as there are simple sounds.

How are the letters of the English Alphabet generally divided ?

Into Vowels and Consonants.

How are the Consonants sub-divided ?

Into Mutes and Semi-vowels.

Is this division founded in philosophic truth ?

No ; for every sound may be uttered in its own, individual, and elementary character ; yet, it is said, the Mutes cannot be sounded at all without the aid of a vowel.

What would be a more philosophic and truthful division of the letters of the Alphabet ?

A more truthful division would be into three classes, viz : Vowels or Tonics, Sub-vowels or Sub-tonics, and Atonics or Aspirates, as exhibited in the following Table in which are displayed the thirty-eight elementary sounds, and the manner of representing them :

THIRTY-EIGHT SIMPLE SOUNDS.

15 Vowels.		14 Sub-vowels.		9 Aspirates.	
ā	in ale	b	in bow	p	in pin
ä	“ arm	d	“ duty	t	“ tin
a	“ all	g	“ gay	sh	“ shade
ǎ	“ an	l	“ love	k	“ kite
ē	“ eve	m	“ man	s	“ sin
ě	“ end	n	“ ne	f	“ fume
ī	“ ile	ng	“ song	th	“ thin
ĩ	“ in	r	“ roll	h	“ hat
ō	“ old	th	“ thou	wh	“ what
ö	“ lose	v	“ vow		
õ	“ on	w	“ wo		
ū	“ tube	y	“ yoke		
ũ	“ up	z	“ zone		
u	“ full	z	“ azure		
ou	“ our				

REM.—It will be observed that *j*, *x*, and *ch* are not found in the above table; the reason of this is, they do not represent *simple* sounds, but compound ones. *J* represents the sound of *d* in *day* and of *z* in *azure*; as, Job, John, &c.

REM. TO TEACHERS.—It is not intended that the table of elementary sounds should be committed to memory by the pupils; but the Teacher should utter the sounds accurately in their elementary character, the pupils uttering them after him.

(For further information concerning the simple sounds of the English Language and the Analysis of words, the learner is referred to the Illustrative and Constructive Grammar, Part Second.)

LESSON III.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

What is English Grammar?

It is the science of the English Language.

What does it comprise?

It comprises both a *Science* and an *Art*.

What does it teach as an *Art*?

As an *Art*, it teaches *how* the English Language should be written and spoken.

What as a *Science*?

As a *Science*, it teaches *why* one form of speech should be used rather than another.

What, then, is the difference between *Science* and *Art*?

Science tells *why* a thing is done; *Art* *how* it is done.

What, then, will English Grammar, well understood both as a *Science* and an *Art*, enable one to do?

It will enable one to speak and write the English Language correctly.

LESSON IV.

THE DIVISION OF GRAMMAR.

Into how many parts, is Grammar divided?

Into four, viz: Orthography, Etymology, Syntax and Prosody.

What does Orthography teach ?

The name and power of letters, and the art of spelling.

Where must this art be chiefly acquired ?

From the Spelling-book and Dictionary.

Of what does Etymology treat ?

Of the different parts of speech, their various *inflections*, and the *derivation* of words.

What does Syntax teach ?

It teaches the correct *construction* and *arrangement* of sentences.

Of what does Prosody treat ?

It treats of the just *pronunciation* of *sentences*, and the rules of versification.

LESSON V.

PARTS OF SPEECH OR CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

Into how many Classes, are words naturally divided ?

Into two, namely, Primary and Secondary.

What are Primary words ?

Those that are essential to the language of men, to which all others bear a subordinate relation.

What parts of speech are they ?

The Noun and Verb.

Why are they Primary ?

Because, of these, a complete proposition may be constructed ; as, God is. Time flies.

What are Secondary words ?

They are of subordinate use in language, sustaining a branch relation to the Primary.

How many sorts of words or Parts of Speech are there ?

There are *ten*, viz : the Noun, Verb, Participle, Pronoun,

Article, Adjective, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection or Exclamation.

REM. Grammarians generally name *nine* Parts of Speech, excluding the Participle ; but we see no sufficient reason for this.

What is a Noun ?

It is the *name* of anything ; as, Man, virtue.

What is a Verb ?

A Verb is a word which asserts or affirms, or expresses action ; as, The boy *reads*. The child *plays*.

What is a participle ?

A Participle is a word, derived from a verb, and partakes of the nature of a verb, and also of an adjective ; but depends upon a noun or pronoun in construction ; as, I see a bird *flying*.

What is a Pronoun ?

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, and generally to avoid its repetition ; as, James reads, and *he* will soon read well.

What is an Article ?

An article is a word prefixed to nouns to limit the extent of their signification ; as, A man. *The* boys.

What is an Adjective ?

An adjective is a word joined to a noun to limit its meaning, or express its quality ; as, A *beautiful* lady. *That* river.

What is an Adverb ?

An Adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs ; as, Mary writes *very well*.

What is a Preposition ?

A Preposition is a word generally *placed before* some noun or pronoun which it governs ; it, also, shows the relation which this word bears to some other word which precedes it in construction ; as, Henry went *with* me.

What is a Conjunction ?

A Conjunction is a word which joins together parts of a sentence, or parts of a discourse in a regular construction ; as, John goes to school, *and* learns well.

What is an Interjection or Exclamation ?

An Exclamation generally expresses some emotion of the speaker, but has no dependent construction ; as, "Alas ! and did my Saviour bleed ?"

EXERCISES.

[Point out the different parts of Speech in the following sentences.]

The river flows slowly. The sun shines by day, and the moon gives light by night. Henry lost his hat. Alas ! that man has made a fatal mistake. I see a man walking. John went ; but Peter stayed.

LESSON VI.

OF NOUNS.

What is a Noun ?

A Noun is the name of any thing ; as, Man, Virtue.

How many kinds of nouns are there ?

There are two, viz: Proper and Common.

What is a Proper noun ?

A Proper noun is the name of an individual person or thing ; as, Mary, Delaware.

What is a Common noun ?

A Common noun is a name common to a whole class of persons or things ; as Man, river.

What is a Common noun, comprising several persons or things in *one collective body*, called ?

A Collective noun, or Noun of multitude ; as, Committee, army.

What belong to Nouns?

To nouns belong Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

LESSON VII.

OF GENDER AND PERSON.

What is Gender?

Gender is the distinction of *sex*.

How many sexes are there?

Two, viz: Male and Female.

How many Genders are there?

Since there are but two sexes, strictly speaking, there are but two genders.

How many Genders are thought, by some grammarians, to be convenient in parsing?

Four, viz: Masculine, Feminine, Neuter, and Common.

What does the Masculine Gender denote?

The Masculine Gender includes all *males*; as, Man, horse.

What does the Feminine denote?

The Feminine includes all *females*; as, woman, hen.

What does the Neuter include?

The Neuter includes such as have no sex; as, Chair, river.

How may the Common Gender be defined?

Nouns which are equally applied to both sexes, are called Common Gender; as, Friend, child.

REM.—The application of the Neuter and Common Genders in parsing, is of little or *no* practical utility; since it adds nothing to the sense.

What is Person in grammar?

Person distinguishes the relation of a noun to the speaker.

How many Persons have nouns?

Three, viz : the First, Second, and Third.

What does the First Person denote ?

It denotes the *speaker* ; as *I, John*, saw him.

What the Second Person ?

The Second Person denotes the person or thing *spoken to*, or *addressed* ; as, *James*, I desire *you* to study.

What the Third Person ?

The Third Person denotes the person *spoken of*, or *about* ; as, *Peter* wept bitterly.

LESSON VIII.

OF NUMBER.

What is Number ?

Number is the distinction of *unity* and *plurality*.

How many numbers have nouns ?

Two, viz : the Singular and Plural.

What does the Singular number imply ?

It implies *unity*, or but *one* ; as, *A book*.

What does the Plural number denote ?

It denotes *plurality*, or *more than one* ; as, *Books*.

How is the Plural of nouns formed ?

The Plural is generally formed by annexing *s* or *es* to the singular.

When is *s* only annexed ?

When it will coalesce in sound with the other letters ; as, *Table*, *tables*.

When is *es* annexed ?

When *s* will not coalesce in sound with the preceding letters; as, Branch, *branches*.

Is the Plural of nouns formed in any other way ?

Yes, in various ways.

Mention a few of them.

1. Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a *consonant*, form their plurals by changing *y* into *i*, and annexing *es*; as, Fly, *flies*. Spy, *spies*.

2. Fifteen nouns in *f* or *fe*, viz: beef, calf, elf, half, leaf, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wharf, wolf, life, knife, and wife, form their plurals by changing *f* into *v*, and annexing *es* or *s*; as, Beef, *beeves*. Wife, *wives*; other nouns, in *f* or, *fe*, form their plurals in the regular way; as, Dwarf, *dwarfs*. Handkerchief, *handkerchiefs*.

3. Some nouns are very irregular in the formation of their plurals; as, Man, *men*. Child, *children*, &c.

Do Proper nouns admit of a plural ?

They do not; for, in such case, they would become Common; as, The twelve *Cæsars*. The *Platos* of the age.

LESSON IX.

OF CASE.

What is meant by Case ?

Case, as applied in Grammar, distinguishes the relation of a noun or pronoun to a verb, participle, preposition, or another noun.

How many cases have nouns and pronouns ?

Three, viz: the Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

What relation does the Nominative Case bear to the verb ?

It bears the relation of *subject*; as, *John* walks; it

is, also, said to be in the Nominative when *predicated* of the *subject*; as John is a *student*. It is *I*.

What relation does the Possessive Case show?

It shows the relation of *possession* or *ownership*; as, *Peter's wife's* mother. *Henry's* horse.

REM. Some nouns, having the Possessive *form*, do not imply ownership, they are, strictly speaking, *Specifying Adjectives*; as, Harriet makes *ladies'* bonnets. Johnson sells *boys'* hats.

What relation does the Objective case show?

The Objective case shows the relation of an *object*, and is either the object of an *action*, or of a *relation*; as, Charles struck *John* on the *head*.

When is the Objective case the object of an *action*?

It is the object of an *action* when it is governed by a verb or participle.

When the object of a *relation*?

It is the object of a *relation* when governed by a preposition.

LESSON X.

OF PARSING.

What is Parsing?

In Parsing a word, I first name the part of speech or class of words to which it belongs.

What next?

I next mention the properties or accidents belonging to the word.

What else?

I then state its agreement or government, as the case may be, and quote the rule.

I will now present you with a Model for Parsing.

MODEL.

James loves Mary's sister.

James is a Proper noun, Masculine gender, third person, singular number, and nominative case to the verb *loves*, according to Rule 1. (Repeat Rule.)

Loves is a regular, Transitive verb, Active voice, Indicative mode, Present tense, and of the third person, singular number, agreeing with its nominative *John*, according to rule 6.

Mary's is a proper noun, feminine gender, third person, singular number, and in the possessive case, governed by *sister*, according to Rule 4.

Sister is a common noun, of the feminine gender, third person, singular number, and in the objective case, governed by the verb *loves*, according to Rule 19.

EXERCISES.

Peter's dog bit John's finger. Foxes kill women's geese. El za's cat caught a rat. James lost Henry's ball. Rivers flow. Birds fly. Arthur's dog killed Henry's cat. Rabbits eat people's peas. Thomas hurt Robert's finger. Boys love play.

LESSON XI.

OF VERBS.

What is a Verb?

A Verb is a word which asserts or affirms, or expresses action; as, The river *flows*. He *went to join* the army.

REM.—Perhaps no single definition can fully unfold the varied import of the verb; but, in some sense, it may be said, under all circumstances, to express something of the nature of an affirmation.

How may the Verb be divided?

It may be divided into Transitive and Intransitive, Regular and Irregular, Auxiliary and Defective.

When is a verb Transitive?

When it has the power to affect an object; as, Jane *writes letters*.

Must the *object* of a Transitive verb always be expressed?

No; if the *object* is obvious, it need not always be expressed; as, The boy *reads*, *i. e.* he reads *books* or something else.

How are Transitive verbs distinguished?

By voice.

What is meant by Voice?

Voice has been defined to be the particular mode of inflecting or conjugating the verb, or it may be said to express the condition of its subject as active or passive.

How many Voices have verbs?

Two, viz: Active and Passive.

When is a verb in the Active Voice?

It is in the Active voice, when the nominative performs the action; as, Brutus slew Cæsar. Here *Brutus* the subject, performs the action.

When is a verb in the Passive Voice?

It is in the Passive Voice when the subject *receives* the action; as, *Caesar* was slain by Brutus.

REM.—In this example, Cæsar is the subject of the verb, *was slain*, but is still the object of the *action* expressed by the verb.

When is a verb Intransitive?

It is Intransitive when it has no power to affect an object; as, The bird flies.

Do Intransitive verbs have voice?

They do not; though a few of them admit of the *form* of the Passive voice; as, He *is gone*.

LESSON XII.

OF VERBS CONTINUED.

When is a verb Regular ?

When it forms its Past tense and Perfect participle by annexing *d* or *ed* to the *root* or simplest form of the verb, it is Regular ; as, Love, *loved*, *loved*. Walk, *walked*, *walked*.

REM. 1.—It will readily be seen, that, if the *root* of the verb ends in *e*, *d* only is annexed ; but, if it ends in any other letter, *ed* is annexed.

REM. 2.—Such verbs may be said to be Regular ; because their Past tense and Perfect participle, are formed according to rule.

REM. 3.—Some verbs appear to be Regular when they are not ; such, for instance, as those whose root ends in some other letter besides *e*, yet having their parts formed by annexing *d* only ; as, Hear, *heard*, *heard*.

When are verbs Irregular ?

They are Irregular when the Past tense and Perfect participle are formed by *varying* the *root*, or when they are *monotonous*, admitting of no variation ; as, see, *saw*, *seen*. Set, *set*, *set*.

REM.—In the first example, the root of the verb *see* is varied, *i. e.*, the other parts assume a form different from the root ; but, in the last example, the root is not varied, the parts all having the same form.

What is an Auxiliary verb ?

Such verbs as are used to assist other verbs in forming the modes and tenses, are called *Auxiliaries* ; as, May, can, must, might, could, should, &c.

What is a Defective verb ?

Such a verb as can only be used in *some* of the modes and tenses ; as, Ought, can, &c.

REM.—The learner should bear in mind, though we have mentioned several classes of verbs, yet all verbs whether

Regular or Irregular, Auxiliary or Defective, are either *Transitive* or *Intransitive*.

What belong to verbs?

Mode and Tense, Number and Person.

LESSON XIII.

OF MODES.

What is the Mode of a verb?

Mode is the *manner* of representing *affirmation*.

How many Modes are there?

Five, viz: Indicative, Subjunctive, Potential, Imperative, and Infinitive.

How does the Indicative mode represent affirmation?

Positively and without limitation; as, *She loves*.

How does the Subjunctive represent affirmation?

The Subjunctive mode affirms a thing, subject to some condition; as, *If Eliza study*, she will improve.

How does the Potential represent affirmation?

The Potential mode affirms possibility, liberty, power, will, obligation, or necessity; as, *It may rain*. *He may go*. *He can go*. *He would go*. *He should go*. *He must go*.

For what is the Imperative mode used?

It is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting; as, *Obey my precepts*. *Go in peace*.

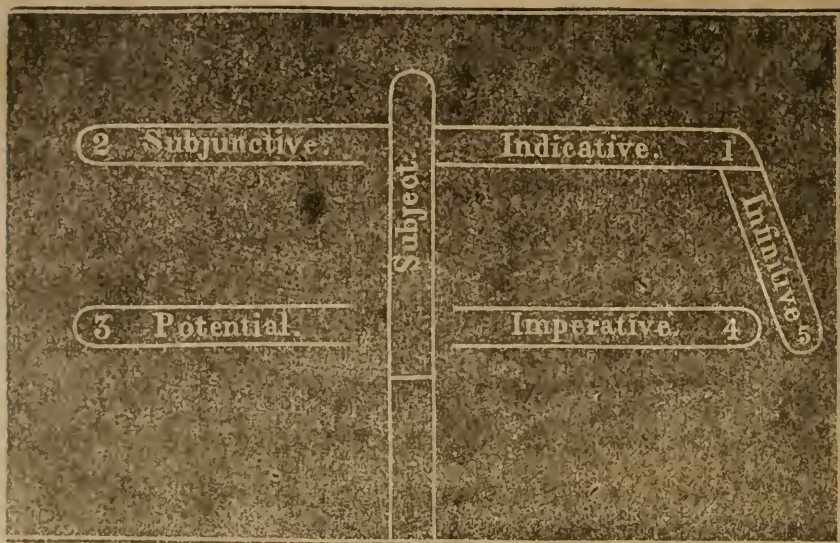
How does the Infinitive represent affirmation?

It does not limit it to any particular subject; as, *Martha went to meet Jesus*.

From what, does the Mode of verbs arise?

From the various ways in which affirmation is made

concerning the subject, as illustrated in the following Diagram :



The perpendicular column represents the subject of affirmation.

Figure 1 represents what is affirmed indicatively ; as the figure is in juxta-position with the subject, it shows that whatever is indicatively predicated, belongs absolutely to the subject ; as, The bird flies. Job was patient.

Figure 2 illustrates the Subjunctive Mode, or what is predicated with some limitation ; as but one of the parallel lines of which the figure is composed, is in juxta-position with the subject, it shows that what is affirmed of the subject, may or may not belong to it ; as, If Cæsar was a tyrant, he deserved death.

Figure 3 illustrates the Potential Mode, or what is affirmed potentially ; as the figure is not in juxta-position with the subject, it shows that whatever is affirmed potentially, does not belong absolutely to the subject, but that only the probability, power, liberty, necessity, &c., of action or quality, is predicated ; as, The bird *can* fly. John *may* be good.

Figure 4 illustrates the Imperative Mode, or what is affirmed imperatively. In this Mode, the subject is commanded to act, or to possess a quality ; it is clear that at the time of command, the action or quality required, does not exist in the subject ; but, as it is presumed that the

speaker has power to enforce obedience, there is a very strong probability, that what is commanded will be performed; the figure, therefore, though not in juxta-position with the subject, is made to approach very near it; as, *Obey my precepts.*

Figure 5 illustrates the Infinitive Mode; as the figure is not connected with the subject, but with the part of the Diagram which represents the predicate, it shows that the Infinitive never makes a direct affirmation concerning the subject, but depends upon some other element in construction; as, *He went to join the army.*

Questions.

What does the perpendicular column of the Diagram represent? What do the other parts represent? The Predicate. What does fig. 1st represent? What fig. 2d, fig. 3d, &c.?

LESSON XIV.

OF TENSE.

What is Tense?

Tense means *time*.

How many Tenses have verbs?

Six, viz: Present, Past, Perfect, Pluperfect, Future, and Future-Perfect.

What does the Present tense denote?

Present time; as, *I write, I am writing now.*

What does the Past tense denote?

Simply *past* time; as, *I wrote yesterday.*

What does the Perfect denote?

The Perfect tense represents an *event* which is *past*, but the *period* of *time* in which it occurred, is connected with the *present*; as, *I have written to-day.*

What does the Pluperfect represent?

It represents time which is not *simply past*, but *prior* to

some other time which is also past; as, I *had written* the letter before the mail arrived.

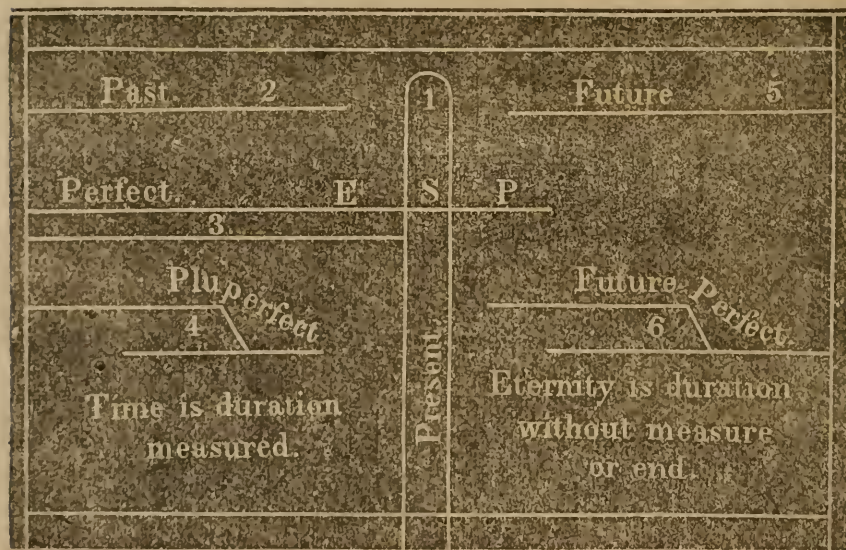
What does the Future tense denote?

Simply *future* time; as, I *shall write* to-morrow.

What does the Future-Perfect tense represent?

It represents an event that will be past at or before some other future time specified; as, I *shall have written* by the appointed time.

You may now examine the following Diagram which illustrates the six Tenses of the verb.



The space included by the vertical lines (1), represents present time.

The space on the left of the vertical lines, represents past time, and that on the right of the vertical lines, represents future time.

Figure 2, which consists of but one line, having no connection with the Present, illustrates the Past tense of the verb.

This tense is properly used in speaking and writing, when both the event and the period of time in which it

occurred, are past ; as, Philosophers *made* great discoveries last century.

“ Figure 3, which consists of two parallel lines, illustrates the Perfect Tense. This tense embraces a period of time which is not only connected with the present, but frequently extends into the future, as shown by the first line in the figure. This period, as a whole, consists of three component parts;—the Event part marked E, is past, the Speaking part, marked S, which is present, is the time occupied in uttering the sentence, and the Post speaking part, marked P, which is future, denotes that portion of the period of time subsequent to the uttering of the sentence. But the period embraced by this Tense of the verb, sometimes only approaches the Present, as shown by the second parallel line ; this is the case when the speaker refers to all the past part of his life ; as, “ *I have never seen trees so tall.*”

This tense is correctly used in speaking and writing, when the period of time in which the event occurred, is connected with the Present ; as, *I have studied hard this week.*

Figure 4, which consists of two lines connected, illustrates the Pluperfect tense.

When two past events are connected in sense, the Pluperfect is correctly employed in the prior past of the two ; as, The thief *had escaped* before the goods were missed. That these two are connected in sense, is obvious ; for, when the *former* is uttered, the mind is so much under the influence of the expectation of the latter, that it is disappointed, if it is withheld. The thief had escaped,—and what else ? before the goods were missed.

Figure 5, which consists of a single line, illustrates the Future tense.

This shows that this tense of the *Verb* denotes future time simply, having no connection with any other event or

time. This tense is correctly used when future time is simply indicated.

Figure 6, which consists of two lines connected, illustrates the Future-Perfect tense.

When two future events are connected in construction, this tense is correctly used in the prior future of these two; as, John *will have completed* his task by the appointed time.

This tense is called Future-Perfect, because the action or event will be completed *at* or *before* the post future event with which it is connected.

QUESTIONS.

What does the space included by the vertical lines, represent? What time does the space on the left of the vertical lines, represent? What does that on the right represent? What does figure 2d represent?

When is the Past tense correctly used?

What is meant by the *event*?

The actual occurrence of the action, as expressed by the word *made* in the example.

What by period of time?

By period of time, is meant that portion of time in which the event occurs; as, "*last century*" in the example referred to.

REM.—The Teacher may ask similar questions on the rest of the Diagram.

LESSON XV.

OF NUMBER AND PERSON OF VERBS.

Are Number and Person dependent or independent properties of the verb?

They are dependent.

Why?

Because the verb depends upon its *nominative* for these properties.

In order, then, to know the number and person of the verb, to what must you look?

To its *nominative*.

In what tense, do the variations of the verb principally take place?

In the Present.

What are these terminations called?

They are called *personal* or *verbal*.

What terminations does a *nominative* of the second person, singular, *solemn* style, require the verb to assume?

T, st, or est; as, Thou art, thou lovest, thou walkest.

Does the *nominative you* of the second person, singular, *familiar* style, require the verb to assume the same terminations?

It does not; for the verb generally assumes the root or plural form; as, John, where *are you*?

Does the verb ever assume the singular form in such instances?

Yes; some good writers use a verb of the singular form, in the Past tense with such a *nominative*; as, "Witness, where *was you* standing during the transaction."

What terminations does a *nominative* of the *third* person, singular, *familiar* style, require the verb to assume?

S or *es*; as, He walks. She goes.

What terminations does the same *nominative*, *solemn* style, require?

Th or *eth*; as, "The Lord loveth the gates of Zion."
"He walketh through dry places."

What does a *plural nominative* of any person require?

It requires the verb to assume the root or *plural* form; as, We love; you love; they love.

What effect does a *nominative* of the first person singular have?

It generally requires the verb to assume a similar form: as, I love.

REM. 1.—When an Auxiliary verb is employed, it is always varied instead of the principal verb; as Thou *canst* do it.

REM. 2.—A nominative of the second person, singular, solemn style, requires a verb in the *past* tense to vary; as, Thou *walkedst*.

REM. 3.—The solemn style is the style used in the Bible, and the familiar style is that used in common conversation.

LESSON XVI.

OF CONJUGATION.

What is meant by the Conjugation of a verb?

It is, literally speaking, yoking the verb with its nominative throughout all its Modes, Tenses, and Voices.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB TO BE.

Root. *Be*.

Principal Parts.

Present, Am or be; Past, Was; Perf. Participle, Been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1st Person, I am.
 2d Person, { Thou art, or
 { You are.
 3d Person, He, she, or it is.

PLURAL.

1st Person, We are.
 2d Person, { Ye are, or
 { You are.
 3d Person, They are.

PAST TENSE.

1st Person, I was.
 2d " { Thou wast, or
 { You were.
 3d " He was.

1st Person, We were.
 2d " { Ye were, or
 { You were.
 3d " They were.

PERFECT TENSE.

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

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

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

FUTURE TENSE.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 I shall or will be, | 1 We shall or will be, |
| 2 { Thou shalt or wilt be, or | 2 { Ye shall or will be, or |
| } You shall or will be. | } You shall or will be, |
| 3 He shall or will be. | 3 They shall or will be. |

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

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

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Indicative or Common Form.

SINGULAR.

- 1 If I am.
- 2 { If thou art, or
- } If you are.
- 3 If He is.

PLURAL.

- 1 If we are.
- 2 { If ye are, or
- } If you are.
- 3 If they are.

Conjunctive Form or Elliptical Future.

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

PAST TENSE.

Common Form.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------|
| 1 If I was. | 1 If we were. |
| 2 { If thou wast, or | 2 { If ye were, or |
| } If you were. | } If you were. |
| 3 If he was. | 3 If they were. |

Hypothetical Form.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 Were I, or if I were. | 1 Were we, or if we were. |
| 2 { Wert thou, or if thou wert, | 2 { Were ye, or if ye were, or |
| } or Were you, or if you were. | } Were you, or if you were. |
| 3 Were he, or if he were. | 3 Were they, or if they were. |

PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 If I have been. | 1 If we have been. |
| 2 { If thou hast been, or | 2 { If ye have been, or |
| } If you have been. | } If you have been. |
| 3 If he hath or has been. | 3 If they have been. |

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 If I had been. | 1 If we had been. |
| 2 { If thou hadst been, or | 2 { If ye had been, or |
| } If you had been. | } If you had been. |
| 3 If he had been. | 3 If they had been. |

FUTURE TENSE.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 If I shall or will be. | 1 If we shall or will be. |
| 2 { If thou shalt or wilt be, or | 2 { If ye shall or will be, or |
| } If you shall or will be. | } If you shall or will be. |
| 3 If he shall or will be. | 3 If they shall or will be. |

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1 If I shall or will have been. | 1 If we shall or will have been. |
| 2 { If thou shalt or wilt have | 2 { If ye shall or will have been, |
| } been, or | } or |
| } If you shall or will have been. | } If you shall or will have been. |
| 3 If he shall or will have been. | 3 If they shall or will have been. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

INDEFINITE TENSE.—[PRESENT.]

SINGULAR.

- 1 I may, can, or must be.
 2 { Thou mayst, canst, or must
 be, or
 { You may, can, or must be.
 3 He may, can, or must be.

PLURAL.

- 1 We may, can, or must be.
 2 { Ye may, can or must be, or
 { You may, can, or must be.
 3 They may, can, or must be.

INDEFINITE TENSE.—[PAST.]

- 1 I might, could, would, or should
 be.
 { Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst,
 or shouldst be, or
 2 { You might, could, would, or
 should be.
 3 He might, could, would, or
 should be.

- 1 We might, could, would, or
 should be.
 { Ye might, could, would, or
 should be, or
 2 { You might, could, would, or
 should be.
 3 They might, could, would, or
 should be.

have - have

PERFECT TENSE.

- 1 I may, can, or must have been.
 { Thou mayst, canst, or must
 have been, or
 2 { You may, can, or must, have
 been.
 3 He may, can, or must have been.

- 1 We may, can, or must have
 been.
 { Ye may, can, or must have
 been, or
 2 { You may, can, or must have
 been.
 3 They may, can, or must have
 been.

have

PLUPERFECT TENSE.*—[PAST TENSE.]

- 1 I might, could, would, or should
 have been.
 { Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst
 or shouldst have been, or
 2 { You might, could, would, or
 should have been.
 3 He might, could, would or should
 have been.

- 1 We might, could, would, or
 should have been.
 { Ye might, could, would, or
 should have been, or
 2 { You might, could, would, or
 should have been.
 3 They might, could, would, or
 should have been.

* This tense expresses nothing more than simply *past* time; consequently it is not embraced in the definition given of the Pluperfect tense. As things ought to be called by their proper names, I would suggest the propriety of calling this tense *Past*.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT* TENSE.—[FUTURE.]

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
2d Pers.	{ Be, or be thou, or Do thou be.	2	{ Be, or be ye or you, or Do ye or you be.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense, To be.

Perfect Tense, To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being.

Perfect, Been.

Pluperfect, Having been.

LESSON XVII.

The Conjugation of the Regular, Transitive Verb,

TO LOVE—IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

Root, *Love*.

Principal Parts, Love, loved, loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1st Person.	I love.
2d “	Thou lovest, or you love.
3d “	He loveth or loves.

* This tense is generally called Present, though, strictly speaking, it is Future; since, if the event were actually occurring at the time of command, it would supersede the necessity of it.

PAST TENSE.

1st Person		I loved.
2d	“	Thou lovedst or you loved.
3d	“	He loved.

PERFECT TENSE.

1st	“	I have loved.
2d	“	Thou hast loved, or you have loved.
3d	“	He hath or has loved.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

1st	“	I had loved.
2d	“	Thou hadst loved, or you had loved.
3d	“	He had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

1st	“	I shall or will love.
2d	“	Thou shalt or wilt love, or you shall or will love.
3d	“	He shall or will love.

FUTURE-PERFECT.

1st	“	I shall or will have loved.
2d	“	Thou shalt or wilt have loved, or you shall or will have loved.
3d	“	He shall or will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Common or Indicative Form.

SINGULAR.

1st	“	If I love.
2d	“	If thou lovest, or you love.
3d	“	If he loveth or loves.

PAST TENSE.

1st Person	If I loved.
2d	If thou lovedst or you loved.
3d	If he loved.

PERFECT TENSE.

1st	If I have loved.
2d	If thou hast loved, or you have loved.
3d	If he hath or has loved.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

1st	If I had loved.
2d	If thou hadst loved, or you had loved.
3d	If he had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

1st	If I shall or will love.
2d	If thou shalt or wilt love, or if you will love.
3d	If he shall or will love.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.]

1st	If I shall or will have loved.
2d	If thou shalt or wilt have loved, or you shall or will have loved.
3d	If he shall or will have loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

INDEFINITE TENSE.—[PRESENT.]

Singular.

1	I may, can, or must love.
2	{ Thou mayst, canst, or must love, or
	{ You may, can, or must love.
3	He may, can, or must love.

INDEFINITE TENSE,—[PAST.]

- 1 I might, could, would or should love.
 2 { Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shou'dst love, or
 { You might, could, would, or should love.
 3 He might, could, would, or should love.

PERFECT TENSE.

- 1 I may, can, or must have loved.
 2 { Thou mayst, canst, or must have loved, or
 { You may, can, or must have loved.
 3 He may, can, or must have loved.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

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

IMPERITIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.—[FUTURE.]

- 2 { Love or love thou or you, or
 { Do thou or you love.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense, To love. Perfect Tense, To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Loving. Perfect, Loved.
 Pluperfect, Having loved.

REM. 1.—Since the verb undergoes no variation to agree with a nominative in the plural, the plural number has been omitted in the above conjugation.

REM. 2.—The Passive voice is formed throughout all

the Modes and Tenses, by prefixing the variations of the verb *To Be* to the Perfect Participle of a Transitive verb; as, I love, Active; I *am loved*, Passive Voice.

LESSON XVIII.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

The Root of the verb, as found in the Infinitive Present, is its simplest form.

How is the Past Tense of Regular verbs in the Indicative and Subjunctive Modes, formed?

By annexing *d* or *ed* to the root; as, Love, *loved*.

How is the Past of Irregular verbs formed?

By varying the form of the root; as, See, *saw*.

How is the Perfect Tense formed?

By prefixing *have* or its variations to the Perfect Participle; as, Have loved, hadst loved, hath or has loved.

How is the Pluperfect Tense formed?

By prefixing *had* to the Perfect Participle; as, Had loved.

How is the Future formed?

By prefixing *shall* or *will* to the root of the verb; as, Shall or will love. Shall or will see.

How is the Future-Perfect formed?

By prefixing *shall* or *will have* to the Perfect Participle; as, Shall or will have loved. Shall or will have seen.

How is the so called Present Potential [Indefinite], formed?

By prefixing *may*, *can*, or *must* to the root of the verb; as, may, can, or must love.

How is the Potential Past [Indefinite], as it is called, formed?

By prefixing *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should* to the root; as, Might, could, would, or should love.

REM.—Both of these tenses should be called *Indefinite*.

How is the Potential Perfect formed?

By prefixing *may, can, or must have* to the Perfect Participle; as, *May, can, or must have loved*.

How is the Potential Pluperfect [Past] formed?

By prefixing *might, could, would, or should have* to the Perfect Participle; as *Might, could, would, or should have loved*.

How is the Present Infinitive formed?

By prefixing *to* to the Root; as, *To love*.

How is the Perfect Infinitive formed?

By prefixing *to have* to the Perfect Participle; as *To have loved*.

LESSON XIX.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Abide	abode	abode
Am or Be	was	been
Awake	awoke, R,*	awaked
Bear, (to bring forth,)	bore	born
Bear, (to carry,)	bore	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent, R,	bent
Bereave	bereft, R,	bereft, R,
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bid, bade,	bidden, bid
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blow

* Those verbs whose Past tense and Perfect Participle are followed by R, have also a regular form; as, *Awake* or *awaked*.

PRESENT.	PAST	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Break	broken	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built, R,	built
Burn	burnt, R,	burnt, R,
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught, R,	caught, R,
Chide	chid	chidden, chid,
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, (to adhere,)	cleaved	cleaved
Cleave, (to split,)	clove, cleft,	cloven
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clad, R,	clad, R,
Come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Crow	crew, R,	crowed
Cut	cut	cut
Dare	durst	dared
Deal	dealt, R,	dealt, R,
Dig	dug, R,	dug, R,
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamt, R,	dreamt, R,
Drink	drank	drunk, drank,
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
Eat	ate, eat,	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Freight	freighted	fraught, R,
Get	got	got, gotten
Gild	gilt, R,	gilt, R,
Gird	girt, R,	girt, R,
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven, R,
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFET PARTICIPLE
Hang	hung	hung
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove, R,	hoven, R,
Hew	hewed	hewn
Hide	hid	hidden, hid,
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt, R,	knelt, R,
Knit	knit, R,	knit, R,
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, (to recline,)	lay	lain
Light	lit, R,	lit, R,
Load	loaded	laden, R,
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown
Pay	paid	paid
Pen, (to enclose,)	pent, R,	pent, R,
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, R,	quit, R,
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	ridden
Ring	rang, rung,	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, R,
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	sod, R,	sodden
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Sit	sat	sat
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape	shaped	shapen, R,

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Shave	shaved	shaven
Shear	she red	shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone	shone
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show	showed	shown
Shred	shred	shred
Shrink	shrank, shrunk,	shrunk
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang, sung,	sung
Sink	sank, sunk,	sunk
Slay	slew,	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit	slit, R,
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow, (to scatter,)	sowed	sown, R,
Speak	spoke	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt, R,	spelt, R,
Spent	spent	spent
Spill	spilt, R,	spilt, R,
Spin	spun	spun
Spit	spit	spit
Spread	spread,	spread
Spring	sprang sprung,	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
String	strung	strung
Stride	strode, strid,	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken,
Strive	strove	striven
Strow, or strew,	strowed or strewed	strown, or srewn
Swear	swore	sworn
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen, R,
Swim	swam, swum,	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	throve	thriven
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Throw	threw	thrown

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Tread	trod	trodden, trod,
Wax	waxed	waxen, R,
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet, R,	wet, R,
Whet	whet, R,	whet, R,
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Work	wrought, R,	wrought, R,
Wring	wrung	wrung
Write	wrote	written.

MODEL.

"Jesus went unto the Mount of Olives."

Went is an Irregular Intransitive verb, of the Indicative Mode, Past tense, and of the third person, singular number, agreeing with its nominative *Jesus*, according to rule 6.

Why is *went* a verb?

Because it asserts or affirms.

Why Irregular?

Because it forms its Past Tense and Perfect Participle, by varying the form of the root.

Why Intransitive?

Because it has no power to affect an object.

Why in the Indicative Mode?

Because it affirms positively and without limitation.

Why in the Past Tense?

Because the period of time in which the event occurred, is wholly past.

Why of the third person, singular?

Because its nominative *Jesus* is of the third person, singular.

EXERCISES.

The sun shines upon the floor. Joseph went with his brother. Thomas has returned. James had lost his book before he left school. Those ladies will return soon. He will have completed his task by the time appointed. If Henry study, he will improve. If thou hadst been here, he would not have gone. He may go, if he will return to-morrow. I may have said it. The work might have been done better. He would not go. He went into the field, to seek treasure. He ought to have gone sooner.—Obey my precepts, if you wish to learn. Take heed to your ways. Walk not in the way of bad men. Keep your heart with all diligence. Tarry not at the wine. He has no time to lose. Have they returned? Can Mary attend the wedding? It is I; be not afraid.

 LESSON XX.

OF PARTICIPLE.

What is a Participle?

A participle is a word derived from a verb, and partakes of the nature of a verb, and also, of an adjective, but depends upon a noun or pronoun in construction.

How do Participles partake of the nature of the verb?

They, like verbs, express action; as, I see a man *walking*.

In what respect, do they partake of the nature of adjectives?

In limiting the noun or pronoun on which they depend. For instance, in the sentence, "I see a man walking," *walking* not only expresses the action of man, but, also, limits man like an adjective.

How many Participles have verbs?

Three, viz: Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect.

How is the Imperfect Participle formed?

By annexing *ing* to the Root of the verb; as, Love, *loving*.

REM.—When the verb ends in *e*, on receiving the suffix *ing*, the *e* is dropped. (See Illustrative and Constructive Grammar, Rules for Spelling.)

Why is the Participle ending in *ing*, called Imperfect?

Because the *action* which it expresses, is *unfinished*.

How is the Perfect Participle formed?

When derived from a regular verb, it is formed by annexing *d* or *ed* to the Root; as, Love, *loved*; but, when derived from an Irregular verb, it is formed by varying the form of the Root; as, See, *seen*.

Why is this Participle called Perfect?

Because it denotes a *finished* state of the *action* or verbal denotement.

How is the Pluperfect Participle formed?

By prefixing *having* to the Perfect Participle; as, seen, *having seen*.

Why is it called Pluperfect.

Because it denotes more than *the* Perfect.

REM.—The Pluperfect Participle not only denotes a finished state of the action or verbal denotement, but, also, as completed before the time indicated by the principal verb of the sentence, with which it is associated; as, He *having written* a letter, mailed it. (For a full display of the Participle, see Illustrative and Constructive Grammar.)

MODEL.

The old fox heard the hunter's horn *sounding*.

Sounding is an Imperfect Participle, derived from the verb *to sound*, and refers to *horn*, according to Rule 18.

Why is *sounding* a Participle?

Because it is derived from a verb, and partakes of the nature of a verb and an adjective.

Why is it Imperfect?

Because the *action* which it expresses, is unfinished, still going on.

Why is it said to refer to *horn*?

Because it depends upon it in construction.

EXERCISES.

I see an eagle flying. The hunters heard the young dog barking. James has completed the task given him. The young ladies, having written the letter, dispatched it. The stranger saw the desert thistle bending there its lonely head. The General having completed the conquest, returned in triumph. Jesus seeing the multitude, went up into a mountain. The house, erected on yonder rising ground, drew me from the road. I see a man beating his horse.

LESSON XXI.

PRONOUNS OR SUBSTITUTES

What is a Pronoun?

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, generally to avoid its repetition; as, Henry is a student, and *he* learns very fast.

Re. — You perceive that *he*, in this sentence, stands for the noun or name *Henry*, and, also, avoids its repetition, thereby making language more concise and elegant.

How may Pronouns be divided?

Into two classes, viz: Personal and Relative, or Connective.

How are Personal pronouns distinguished from the Relative?

Personal pronouns have a *form* to show their own *person*; Relatives have not.

How many Personal pronouns are there?

There are five, viz: *I, thou or you, he she, and it,* and their plurals, *We, ye or you, and they.*

What belong to Pronouns?

As Pronouns stand for nouns, they must have the same properties, viz: Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

Which of the Pronouns are varied to express Gender?

Those of the third person, singular, viz: *He,* masculine; *She,* feminine, and *It,* neuter.

Why are not Pronouns of the first and second persons, varied to express Gender?

Because the speaker and person addressed, are supposed to be present; consequently their Gender known: but, as the third person may be absent or unknown to the person addressed, it is varied to express gender.

How many Persons have pronouns?

Three; first, second, and third; *I* and *we* are first person, *thou or you* and *ye or you* are second, and *he, she, it,* and *they,* third.

What does the person of Pronouns represent or denote?

The first person denotes the *speaker*, the second, the person or thing *spoken to* or addressed, and the third, the persons or things *spoken of* or *about*.

LESSON.

OF DECLENSION.

Do Pronouns have a form to show their case?

Most of them have.

What is this variation of form, to show case, called?

It is called *Declension*.

What does Declension mean?

It means to *bend from, i. e.,* the Possessive and Objective cases generally have *forms* different from the nominative, as illustrated in the following Diagram:

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.		
POSSESSIVE.	NOMINATIVE.	OBJECTIVE.
MY or MINE	<i>Singular.</i> I	ME,
our	<i>Plural.</i> we	us.
SECOND PERSON, FAMILIAR STYLE.		
YOUR	<i>Singular.</i> YOU	YOU
your	<i>Plural.</i> you	you.
SECOND PERSON, SOLEMN STYLE.		
THY or THINE	<i>Singular.</i> THOU	THEE,
your	<i>Plural.</i> ye	you.
THIRD PERSON—MASCULINE.		
HIS	<i>Singular.</i> HE	HIM,
Their	<i>Plural.</i> They	Them.
THIRD PERSON—FEMININE.		
HER	<i>Singular.</i> SHE	HER,
Their	<i>Plural.</i> They	Them.
THIRD PERSON—NEUTER.		
ITS	<i>Singular.</i> IT	IT,
Their	<i>Plural.</i> They	Them.

By examining the Diagram, it will be perceived that the Nominative is written in the middle column, the Possessive on the left, and the Objective on the right. The Possessive and Objective cases are written at the ends of lines, forming right angles with the middle column, showing that the *most* of them have a *form*, and *all* of them a *meaning* different from the Nominative.

In declining, as exhibited in the Diagram, the pupils will take it up in the following order: Nominative I; Passive my or mine; Objective me, &c.

MODEL.

“Henry is a good student, and *he* learns very fast.”

He is a Personal Pronoun, Masculine Gender, third person, singular, agreeing with its antecedent *Henry*, according to rule 12, (repeat); and in the nominative case to the verb *learns* according to Rule 1. (Repeat Rule.)

Why is *he* a Pronoun?

Because it is used instead of a noun.

Why a Personal pronoun?

Because it has a form to show its person.

Why of the Masculine gender, third person, singular?

Because its antecedent *Henry* is.

Why in the Nominative case?

Because it is the subject of the verb in its own member.

EXERCISES.

Mary walked with her sister. I saw a man walking with his brother. My friends visit me very often. Charles has lost his knife. Thou hast seen my friend. Blot out all mine iniquities. We leave your forests of beasts. You are happy; because you are good. I will fear no evil: for thou art with me.

LESSON XXIII.

OF RELATIVE OR CONNECTIVE PRONOUNS.

What are Relative Pronouns ?

They relate to some word or phrase going before, called the antecedent ; as, The boy *who* studies, will improve.

Do not many of the Personal pronouns, also, relate to antecedents ?

They do.

Then, in what respect, do Relative pronouns differ from Personal ?

They have no form to show their person, and they connect clauses like connective adverbs ; and this is the reason they are sometimes called *Connective* pronouns.

What words are used as Relatives ?

Who, which, and that.

To what is *who* applied ?

Who is applied to persons and rational beings ; as, The boy *who* studies, will improve.

To what is *which* applied ?

Which is now applied to brutes and things ; as, The bird *which* sung so sweetly, has flown.

To what is *that* applied ?

That is applied to any thing whether rational or irrational, animate or inanimate ; as, *They that* sow in tears, shall reap in joy. The *things that* I hate, ye do.

Which of the Relatives are declinable ?

Who and *what*, are sometimes called its compounds, *whoever, whosoever, &c.* ; as, Nominative *Who*, Possessive *Whose*, Objective *Whom*.

Are *which* and *that* declinable ?

They are not, except *whose* is sometimes used as the possessive case of *which* instead of the phrase "*of which* ;" as, "The fruit of that forbidden tree, *whose* mortal taste brought death, &c," *i. e.*, the mortal taste *of which* brought death.

LESSON XXIV.

OF WHOEVER, WHICHEVER, WHAT.

What are such words as *whoever*, *whichever*, and *what* generally called?

They are generally called Compound Relative Pronouns.

Is this an appropriate name?

We think not; since *whoever* and *whosoever* refer, like other Relatives, to some antecedent expressed or understood, but generally understood, since their antecedents are very indefinite; as, "*whosoever* will be a friend of the world, is an enemy of God," *i. e.*, *He* is an enemy of God, *whosoever* will be a friend of the world. And, as to *what*, *whatever*, and *whichever*, they are specifying adjectives, or substitutes, belonging to some noun expressed or understood; as, I like *what* you dislike, *i. e.*, I like *what thing* you dislike. *Whatever* is, is right, *i. e.*, [*Whatever thing* (*which* is), is right.] Eliza may take *whichever* pattern pleases her best, *i. e.*, [Eliza may take *whichever* pattern] (*which* pleases her best), *which* being understood.

What are those pronouns, used in asking questions, called?

They are generally called Interrogative pronouns; they are *who*, *what*, and *which*.

REM.—Of these, *who* only is properly an Interrogative pronoun; since *which* and *what* belong to some noun, expressed or understood; as, *which way* shall I fly? What is that? *i. e.*, *what person or thing* is that? *What book* have you?

REM. 1—Since Relative pronouns have no form to show their gender, person, and number, you must look to their antecedents, in order to know these properties.

REM. 2—Interrogatives are said to agree in case with their subsequent; as, *Who* wrote that? *John*.

MODEL I.

The boy *who* studies his lessons, will improve.

Who is a Relative pronoun, of the masculine gender, third person, singular, agreeing with its antecedent *boy*, according to Rule 12, and nominative case to *studies*, according to Rule 1.

Why is *who* a Pronoun?

Because it is used instead of a noun.

Why a Relative?

Because it not only relates to an antecedent, but it has no form to show its Gender, Person, or Number:

EXERCISES.

The young lady who instructs me, labors faithfully.— This is the tree which produces no fruit. They that sow in tears, shall reap in joy. The boy whom I teach, learns well. The hat which Henry lost, has been found.

MODEL 2.

I heard *what* was said.

What is a specifying adjective, and belongs to *thing* "noeton" [understood]; or thus, *what* is a substitute for *what thing*, and in the objective case, governed by *heard*, according to Rule 19.

REM.— *Which*, in this and all similar constructions, is *noeton* [understood]. The sentence, rendered plenary, will read thus, [I heard what thing] (*which* was said.)

EXERCISES.

Henry took what he wanted. Mary took what Eliza left. I heard what was alleged on both sides. Whatever purifies the heart, also fortifies it. George may pursue whatever science suits his taste. Whatever is true in science, is useful in the arts.

MODEL 3.

Who art thou? The minister.

Who is an Interrogative pronoun, agreeing in gender, person, and number with its subsequent *minister*, and is in the nominative case, *predicated* of the subject *thou*, according to Rule 2.

REM.—If the subsequent is not expressed, or the answer to the question not given, the gender, person, and number of the Interrogative cannot be determined.

EXERCISES.

Who hid John's hat? With whom did you walk? Who wrote that? Which route did he take? What book have you? A Poem. What have I done? What think ye of Christ?

LESSON XXV.

OF THE ARTICLE.

What is an Article?

An Article is a word prefixed to nouns, to limit the extent of their signification; as, *Thou art the man.*

How many Articles are there?

Two, *A* or *an* and *The*.

What is *The* called?

It is called the *Definite* article, and belongs to nouns of both numbers.

What is *A* or *An* called?

A or *An* is called the *Indefinite* article, and belongs to nouns of the singular number.

When should *an* be used?

It should be used before words commencing with a *vowel sound*, and, also, before words commencing with *h*, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, *An acorn*; *an hour*; *an historic account.*

REM.—Though *h* is used in the word *hour*, yet it has no sound; consequently the first sound is a *vowel* sound.

When should *A* be used?

It should be used before all words commencing with a consonant sound, except those commencing with *h*, accented on the second syllable; as, *A man. A useful book.*

REM.—Though the word *useful* commences with the vowel *u*, yet the first sound heard, is that of the consonant *y*.

Since the Article belongs to nouns, might it not be called a Specifying Adjective?

It might be so called; and those who prefer parsing it as such, are sustained by good authority.

Do Articles belong to any other words besides nouns?

In some peculiar constructions, the *definite* article is said to belong to adverbs and adjectives in the comparative and superlative degrees; as, *The more* I examine it, *the better* I like it. *The deeper* the well, *the colder*, the water.

REM.—*The*, in such constructions, is not, philosophically speaking, an article, but an adverb or secondary adjective. (See Illustrative and Constructive Grammar.)

MODEL.

Solomon was *a* wise man.

A is the Indefinite Article, and belongs to the noun *man*, according to Rule 13.

Why is *a* an Article?

Because it limits a noun.

Why is it the Indefinite Article?

Because it limits the noun with respect to number, or points it out indefinitely.

Why is *a* used in this example, instead of *an*?

Because it is placed before a word commencing with a consonant sound.

EXERCISES.

Washington was a man of prudence. The boy learns well. The girl has a useful book. That book is a Poem. He is fond of an English author. The day glides sweetly. She is a beautiful lady.

LESSON XXVI.

OF ADJECTIVES OR ATTRIBUTES.

What is an Adjective?

An Adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, to express its quality, or limit its meaning; as, *A good man. That book.*

Into how many classes, then, may Adjectives be divided?

They may be divided into two, viz: Qualifying and Specifying.

What are Qualifying Adjectives?

Qualifying Adjectives express the quality of the nouns or pronouns to which they are joined; as, *Young ladies. Tall trees.*

Do Qualifying Adjectives limit the meaning of nouns as well as express their quality?

They do; for *young* and *tall*, in the above examples, limit *ladies* and *trees* to a less number than simply *ladies* and *trees*; since *all* ladies are not *young*, nor are *all* trees *tall*. (See Illustrative and Constructive Grammar.)

Are Adjectives varied?

They are varied only to express the degrees of comparison.

How many Degrees of Comparison are there?

Adjectives generally have three Degrees of Comparison, viz: Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

What does the Positive degree express?

It expresses an *indirect comparison*; as, when we say

“that man is tall,” we can only know this by comparing him with the general height of men, and finding that he exceeds it.

What does the Comparative degree express?

It expresses a *direct comparison* between *two* objects or classes of objects; as, James is *taller* than Henry. Eve was *fairer* than any of her daughters.

What does the Superlative express?

It expresses a direct comparison of *several* objects; as, That is the *tallest* tree in the forest.

LESSON XXVII.

FORMATION OF THE DEGREES.

How are the Comparative and Superlative degrees of Monosyllabic adjectives generally formed?

They are formed by annexing *r* or *er* to the Positive, to form the Comparative, and *st* or *est* to the Positive, to form the Superlative; as, Positive, *wise*: Com. *wiser*; Sup. *wisest*.

Do any other adjectives admit of these terminations?

Yes, such *dissyllabic* adjectives as end in *y* or *le*, and, also, such as have the accent on the second syllable, admit similar terminations; as, Holy, *holier*, *holiest*. Able, *abler*, *ablest*. Polite, *politer*, *politest*.

How are other adjectives generally compared?

By prefixing *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* to the Positive; as, Beautiful, *more* beautiful, *most* beautiful. Beautiful, *less* beautiful, and *least* beautiful.

Do adjectives ever admit of more than three degrees of comparison?

Such adjectives as are expressive of color and taste, generally admit of four degrees; viz: *Imperfect*, *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*; as, Imperfect, *Brownish*, brown, *browner*, *brownest*.

REM.—The Imperfect degree expresses a degree of quality *inferior* to the Positive.

The Degrees of Comparison are illustrated by the following Diagram.

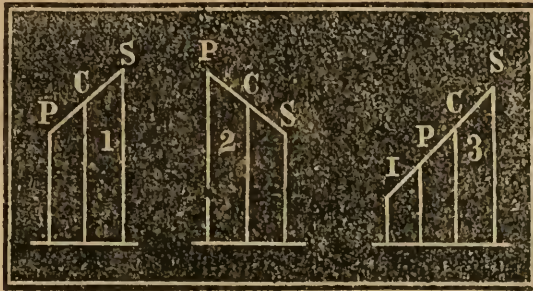


Figure 1 illustrates the increase of the Positive, or Comparison *ascending*; as, Positive, *Wise*; Comparative, *wiser*; Superlative, *wisest*.

Figure 2 illustrates diminution of the Positive, or Comparison *descending*; as, P. *Wise*; C. *less wise*; S. *least wise*.

Figure 3 illustrates the comparison of such adjectives as have *four* degrees; as Imperfect, *Greenish*; P. *green*; C. *greener*; S. *greenest*.

It will be perceived by inspecting the Diagram, that the Superlative expresses the highest or lowest degree of quality; the lines S**** S, in Figures 1 and 2, make these extremes.

REM. 1—Some adjectives are *Secondary* or *Helping*, and qualify other adjectives; as, *Pale red lining*. A *very* old man,

REM. 2—Some adjectives are *irregular* in forming the degrees of comparison; as, *Good, better, best*.

MODEL.

A *prudent* man foreseeth the evil.

Prudent is a Qualifying Adjective, in the Positive de-

gree, and belongs to *man*, according to Rule 15. Compared, Positive *prudent*, Com. *more prudent*, Sup. *most prudent*.

Why is *prudent* an Adjective?

Because it is added to a noun.

Why Qualifying?

Because it expresses the *quality* of the noun *man* to which it is attached.

Why in the Positive degree?

Because it expresses an *indirect* comparison.

EXERCISES.

[You may now parse and compare all the adjectives in the following sentences, as exhibited in the above Model.]

Washington was a prudent man. A good man is a great man. Solomon was the wisest man. Old age should be respected. Martha is more beautiful than her sister. Peter is taller than James. He bought a piece of dark brown cloth. A very industrious man acquires property. A very good pen writes well.

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LESSON XXVIII.

SPECIFYING OR LIMITING ADJECTIVES.

How do *Specifying* Adjectives point out nouns?

They point out nouns by some *distinct specification*, but do not express quality; as, *Every* man. *Some* women.

Do *Specifying* Adjectives ever belong to nouns?

They do, though not frequently; as, "A good understanding have *all they* that fear the Lord."

Are *Specifying* Adjectives ever used as *Substitutes*?

They are frequently so used; as, He came unto his *own*, but his *own* received him not, *i. e.* he came unto his *own* nation, &c.

Into how many classes may Specifying Adjectives be divided?

Into seven; viz:

- 1st. Distributive; as, *Each, every, either, neither.*
- 2d. Demonstrative; as, *This, that, these, those, yonder.*
- 3d. Indefinite; as, *All, such, some.*
- 4th. Interrogative; as, *What, which.*
- 5th. Numeral; as, *One, two, twenty, &c.*
- 6th. Ordinal; as, *First, second, third, &c.*
- 7th. Circumstantial; as, *An Arabian horse. A desert Whistle, &c.* (See Illustrative and Constructive Grammar.)

MODEL.

“*Every* man helps a little.”

Every is a Specifying Adjective, and belongs to man, according to Rule 15.

Why is *every* an Adjective?

Because it is *addeç* to a noun.

Why Specifying or limiting?

Because it limits the meaning of the noun without expressing quality.

EXERCISES.

Some men are not wise. All men are mortal. Each individual fills a space in creation. Three ladies walked into the garden. Adam was the first man. Those young ladies are handsome. This man is unhappy. That day was hot. All great men are not wise. Some men labor, others do not. All we, like sheep, have gone astray. He has an Arabian horse. Demosthenes was an Athenian Orator. Jefferson was an American citizen.

LESSON XXIX.

ADVERBS OR MODIFIERS.

What is an Adverb, or Modifier?

An adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of

verbs, participles, adjectives or other adverbs; as, *She walks gracefully.* I see a cloud *moving SLOWLY.* A *VERY good* pen writes *EXTREMELY well.*

REM.—It would be better, perhaps, to call those Adverbs which modify Adjectives, *Secondary* or *Helping Adjectives*; since they limit nouns or pronouns *indirectly* through the medium of the Adjectives which they limit directly. We would, also, suggest the propriety of calling such Adverbs as modify other Adverbs, *Secondary* or *Helping Adverbs.*

Into how many classes, may Adverbs be divided?

Though Adverbs express a great variety of meaning and shades of meaning, yet the principal Adverbs may be included in four classes; viz: *Time, place, cause,* and *manner.*

To what questions, do Adverbs of *place* answer?

To the questions *where, whither, whence*; as, *Where, there, above,* &c.

To what questions, do Adverbs of *time* answer?

To the questions *when, how long, how often*; as, *Then, yesterday, often,* &c.

To what questions, do Adverbs of *cause* answer?

They answer to the questions *why, wherefore*; as, *Why, wherefore, therefore,* &c.

To what question, do Adverbs of *manner* answer?

They answer to the question *how*; as, *Elegantly, faithfully, fairly,* &c.

MODEL.

The day glides *sweetly.*

Sweetly is an Adverb, and modifies the verb *glides*, according to Rule 25.

Why is *Sweetly* an adverb?

Because it modifies the meaning of the verb *glides.*

In modifying the meaning of the verb *glides*, what does it point out?

It points out the *manner* of its *action*.

To what class, then, does it belong?

It belongs to the class of *Manner*.

EXERCISES.

The river flows rapidly. The bird flies swiftly. He is there. Where is Thomas? Why do you delay? The lowering clouds move slowly. We shall get the mail tomorrow. When shall I hear from you? He is not at home. The weather is very cold. She writes exceedingly well. Surely he will return soon.

LESSON XXX. X X X

OF PREPOSITIONS.

What is a Preposition?

A *Preposition* is a word used to connect words, and show the relation between them; as, He went *to* New York.

REM.—*To*, in this sentence, connects *went* and *New York*, and it, also, shows the *relation* which *New York* bears to *went*. The connective quality will readily be perceived by omitting the preposition; thus, He went New York. Here the total want of connection is obvious.

Since Prepositions connect words, and show the relation between them, how many terms must every Preposition have?

Two, viz: *Antecedent* and *Subsequent*.

How would you define the *Antecedent* term?

The *Antecedent* term is so called, because it *precedes* the Preposition in the natural order of construction.

What is the *Subsequent* term?

The subsequent term *follows* the Preposition in the natural order of construction.

What parts of speech may be used as the Antecedent term?

A noun or pronoun, verb, participle, adjective, and even an adverb.

What may be used as the Subsequent?

A noun, pronoun, participle, or part of a sentence.

REM.—When a Participle is used as a Subsequent term of a Preposition, it partakes of the meaning of a noun, and is frequently called by grammarians a Participial noun; as, He earns a livelihood by *writing*.

In what case, is the Subsequent term of every Preposition?

It is in the *objective* case, and governed by the Preposition.

In order to ascertain what words are connected by Prepositions, you must make the sense your guide,—guided by this, you will generally be able to determine what words are Prepositions, and what they connect, without the aid of a List of Prepositions.

MODEL.

Lot fled *with* his two daughters, *from* Sodom *to* the mountains.

From is a Preposition, and connects *fled* and *Sodom*, and shows the relation between them, according to Rule XXX.

REM.—*With* and *to*, in the above example, are, also, Prepositions, having the same Antecedent term *fled*; hence it will be perceived that several Prepositions may have the same Antecedent term.

Why is *from* a Preposition?

Because it connects words, and shows the relation between them.

EXERCISES.

There was a marriage in Cana of Galilee. The sun shines through the window upon the floor. Birds fly in the air. A green, narrow vale appeared before us; its

winding stream murmured through the grove; the dark hosts of Rothmar stood on its banks, with their glittering spears. She sits at the window. Her ways are ways of pleasantness.

LESSON XXXI.

OF CONJUNCTIONS OR CONNECTIVES.

What is a Conjunction, or Connective?

A *Conjunction* is a word, used to connect phrases and clauses of sentences, and, also, words of the same construction, thereby enabling the speaker or writer to continue discourse at pleasure; as, Wheat grows in the field, *and* men reap it. Martha *and* Mary were sisters.

Are Conjunctions ever used after a full point, or period?

They are sometimes; thereby manifesting some relation between sentences in the general tenor of discourse.

How are Conjunctions generally divided?

They are generally divided into Copulative and Disjunctive.

Is this division important?

It is not; but is, perhaps, worse than useless. (See Illustrative and Constructive Grammar; also, Dr. Webster's Improved Grammar.)

Name the principal Conjunctions, used in connecting discourse?

They are *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, *yet*, *than*, *if*, *though*, *lest*, *unless*, &c.

(For the classification of Connectives, see Elements of sentences, Part First.)

MODEL.

God created the heavens *and* the earth.

And is a Conjunction, and connects *heavens* and *earth*, according to Rule 22.

REM.—In parsing Conjunctions which connect phrases and clauses, no rule need be applied.

EXERCISES.

Clay and Webster were distinguished Senators. Time slept on flowers, and lent his glasses to hope. The wicked is driven away in his wickedness; but the righteous hath hope in his death. Mary and Eliza play. James will improve, if he study. Obey my precepts, unless you wish to injure yourselves. Ignorance or negligence has caused this mistake.

LESSON XXXI.

OF INTERJECTIONS OR EXCLAMATIONS.

When is an *Exclamation* [Interjection]?

An *Exclamation* is any sudden expression of joy, grief, disgust, calling, &c.; as, *O joyful sound of gospel grace! Alas! I fear for life! Turn from your evil ways, O house of Israel! &c.*

REM. 1—Considering the etymological import of the term Interjection, it will, perhaps, be conceded by all that the name is inappropriate; since but comparatively few of the words called Interjections, are *thrown between* the parts of a sentence; the term *Exclamation* is, therefore, to be preferred. This is recommended by Dr. Webster and other able philologists.

REM. 2—Since Exclamations have no dependent construction, they can have no government, nor scarcely can they be said to belong to written language.

MODEL.

Alas! and did my Saviour bleed?

Alas is an Exclamation [Interjection]; it is an expres-

sion of grief; it has no dependent construction in the sentence, according to Rule XXXI.

EXERCISES.

Oh! what a fall was there. Lo! from their seats, the mountains leap. Alas! I fear for life. Ah! whither shall I fly? What! take my money, and my life too! Fie! how angry he is.

LESSON XXXIII.

OF THE CASES INDEPENDENT, ABSOLUTE, AND APPPOSITION.

When is a noun or pronoun said to be in the Nominative case *Independent*?

It is said to be in the *Case Independent* when directly addressed; as, *James*, I desire you to study.

When is a noun or pronoun said to be in the Nominative Case Absolute?

When a noun or pronoun is placed before a participle, having no verb to agree with it, it is in the nominative case Absolute; as, *The sun* having risen, we pursued our journey.

When is a noun or pronoun said to be in Apposition?

When a noun or pronoun is appended to another noun or pronoun for explanation or emphasis, it is said to be in Apposition with it; as, *Paul*, the great *Apostle*, was eminent for his Christian zeal.

REM.—As the case in Apposition must always agree in case with the principal word, it must be construed in the same member; as, [*Daniel Webster*, the distinguished *Statesman* and *Orator*, now reposes] (in the silent grave.)

MODEL I.

Boys, study your lessons.

Boys is a common noun, masculine gender, second person, plural, and is in the Nominative case Independent, according to Rule 27.

MODEL 2.

I being in great haste, he consented.

I is a personal pronoun, of the first person, singular, and in the nominative case Absolute, according to Rule 28.

MODEL 3.

John, the beloved *Disciple*, was banished.

Disciple is a common noun, of the masculine gender, third person, singular, and is in the nominative case, put by Apposition with *John*, according to Rule 3.

EXERCISES.

Young man, you have ruined yourself, and injured your friend. Horace, thou learnest many lessons. The General being slain, the army was routed. The moon having risen, we resumed our march. The Butterfly, child of the summer, flutters in the sun. She descending, the ladder fell. Make not my Father's house, a house of merchandise. Ye fields of light, celestial plains, ye scenes divinely fair, proclaim your Maker's wondrous power.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

[You may now Analyze, Construe, and Parse the following sentences which contain all the Parts of speech; you may, also, assign the reason for the punctuation, and quote the rules.]

Eliza went with Mary to the well for water. The All wise Creator bestowed the power of speech upon man for the best purpose. Pale Cynthia declining clips the horizon. Man beholds the twinkling stars adorning night's blue arch. Rothmar sunk beneath my sword. Thou who

hast been a witness of the fact, canst state it. The rain having ceased, the dark clouds rolled away. Beneath the pale beams of the moon, the Indian lover sat, and, in piteous tones, bewailed her sad condition. If youth be trifled away without improvement, manhood will be contemptible, and old age, miserable. The sun shines upon all men who will receive his rays which he sends from the heavens. John the Baptist came, preaching in the wilderness of Judea. Jesus departed, and went into the parts of Galilee.

There I shall bathe my weary soul
In seas of heavenly rest,
And not a wave of trouble roll
Across my peaceful breast.

We had heard the news before the messenger arrived. The work might have been finished sooner. Susan may visit her sister who lives in the country; but Lucinda must remain at home with her mother. Go ye into all the world, and preach my Gospel to every creature.

Alas! the joys that fortune brings,
Are trifling, and decay;
And those who mind the paltry things,
More trifling still than they.

The value of the Christian faith, may be estimated from the consolations which it affords. He leadeth me in the paths of righteousness, for his name's sake. The eyes of a fool are in the ends of the earth. The good taste of the present age, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language. True cheerfulness makes a man happy in himself, and promotes the happiness of all who are around him.

Charles, you, by your diligence, have made easy work of the task which was given you by your preceptor. Bonaparte being banished, peace was restored to Europe. Boys, study your lessons closely, if you wish to succeed. Paul, the great Apostle of the Gentles, suffered martyrdom at Rome. Why seek ye the living among the dead? Canst thou expect, thou betrayer of innocence, to escape the hand of vengeance?

She makes the heavy heart to sing,
And cheers the wintry gloom,
Floats on the spicy gales of spring,
And makes all Nature bloom.

Dost thou not behold, Malvina, a rock with its head of heath? The law was given by Moses; but grace and truth came by Jesus Christ. John, the Apostle, was banished to the isle of Patmos.

Your friends may die, and haste away
To that blest world of rest;
But Mary's part, with you, will stay,
And ever make you blest.

LESSON XXXIV.

OF SYNTAX.

Of what does Syntax treat?

It treats of the construction of sentences.

Do you remember what a sentence is?

A sentence is such an assemblage of words as asserts a fact.

What elements are necessary to assert a fact?

The Subject and Predicate; as, *The sun shines.*

Upon what principles, are most of the rules of Syntax based?

They are mostly based upon three principles, viz: Government, Agreement, or Concord, and Position.

In what does Government consist?

Government is that power which one word has in directing the Mode, Tense, or Case of another word.

What is Agreement or Concord?

Concord is the agreement of one word with another in *gender, person, number, and case.*

What is Position?

Position is the place which a word occupies in a sentence.

LESSON XXXV.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE I—The subject of the verb must be in the nominative case; as, *John* writes.

RULE II—A noun or pronoun, predicated of the subject, must be in the nominative case; as, Thou art *he*.—Law is a *rule* of action.

RULE III—A noun or pronoun, used to *identify* another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case; as, Solomon, the *son* of David, wrote many proverbs.

RULE IV—A noun or pronoun in the *possessive* case, is governed by the word which it limits; as, *John's* book. *His being away from home*, was the cause of great disappointment.

RULE V—The infinitive mode is governed by the word which it limits; as, They *went* TO SEE him. She is *eager* TO LEARN. I heard *him* SAY it.

RULE VI—The verb must agree with its nominative in number and person; as, Thou *seest*. He *sees*. I *see*. We *see*, &c.

RULE VII—Two or more nominatives in the singular, connected by *and*, must have verbs agreeing with them in the plural; as, Cato and Plato *were* wise.

RULE VIII—Two or more nominatives in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, must have verbs agreeing with them in the singular; as John or James *was* ill.

RULE IX—When a verb agrees with the Infinitive mode or part of a sentence for its subject, it must be in the third person singular; as, To die for one's country, *is* glorious. To study *is* profitable.

RULE X—A collective noun conveying *idea of unity*, generally has a verb and pronoun agreeing with it in the singular; as, The nation *was* once powerful, but now *it* is feeble.

RULE XI—A collective noun conveying *idea of plu-*

rality, generally has a verb and pronoun in the plural ; as, The committee *were* divided in *their* sentiments.

RULE XII—Pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person ; as, John lost *his* knife. He *who* studies, will improve.

RULE XIII—The indefinite article belongs to nouns in the singular number ; as, *A* man. *An* hour.

RULE XIV.*—The definite article belongs to nouns of both numbers ; as, *The* man. *The* men.

RULE XV—Adjectives belong to nouns and pronouns ; as, *A good* man. She is *handsome*.

RULE XVI—Adjectives sometimes belong to the infinitive mode, part of a sentence, or a whole sentence ; as, *To see* is PLEASANT. AGREEABLE to this, *we read of names being blotted out of God's book*.

Quality may be predicated of action ; hence

RULE XVII—Adjectives are used to qualify the action of verbs, and to express the qualities of things in connection with the action by which they are produced ; as, Open thine hand *wide*. The eggs boil *hard*. The tree looks *green*.

RULE XVIII—Participles refer to nouns and pronouns ; as, *Mary having written* her letter, mailed it. I see him *walking*.

RULE XIX—The object of a transitive verb in the active voice, is put in the objective case ; as, I saw HIM *whom* you met.

RULE XX—The object of a transitive participle is put in the objective case ; as, I saw a man *beating* his horse.

RULE XXI—The object of a preposition is put in the objective case ; as, Henry went *with me*.

RULE XXII—Conjunctions connect words of the same sort ; as, *John and James*. *Good and bad*, etc.

* This is not important, since there is no possibility of violating it.

RULE XXIII—A Conjunction connects nouns and pronouns of the same case; as, *Henry and William* obey their teacher.

RULE XXIV—Conjunctions generally connect verbs of like modes and tenses; as, Kingdoms *rise and fall*.

RULE XXV—Adverbs modify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, He writes *badly*.

RULE XXVI—Euphony requires that the sign *to* of the infinitive should be omitted when construed with the following verbs, viz: *bid, dare, feel, make, let, hear, help, see, need*, and their participles; as, He bid me *come*. We felt the earth *tremble*. I heard him *speak*, etc.

RULE XXVII—When an address is made, the name of the person or thing addressed, is put in the *nominative* case independent*; as, *James*, I desire you to study.

RULE XXVIII—A noun or pronoun, placed before a participle, and having no verb to agree with it, nor word on which to depend, is put in the *nominative case absolute*; as, *The sun* having risen, we pursued our journey.

RULE XXIX—Some verbs in the imperative mode have no nominative specified; as, “God said, *let* there be light, and there was light.

RULE XXX—Prepositions point out the relation between their antecedent and subsequent terms; as, Henry went *to* the city of *New York*.

RULE XXXI—Exclamations [Interjections] have no dependent construction.

REM.—The last three rules may be used in parsing, or they may be omitted—just as it may suit the taste of teachers.

* It would be better, perhaps, to drop the word *nominative*, and simply say “The case *independent*.”

LESSON XXXVI.

OF RULES OF SYNTAX WITH NOTES; AND SENTENCES TO BE CORRECTED.

RULE I.—The subject of the verb must be in the nominative case; as, “*John writes.*”

NOTE 1.—The infinitive mode, or part of a sentence, or a whole sentence, may be the subject of a verb; as, “*To see, is pleasant.*”—“*To die for one's country, is glorious.*”

NOTE 2.—When a pronoun is the subject of a verb, it must take the subjective form; as, “*I, thou, he, she, we, they, etc.*”

FALSE SYNTAX.

“*Them* told it.”

Is this sentence correct?

It is not.

Why?

Them is used as the subject of the verb, but has not the subjective form. It should be, “*They* told it,” according to Rule 1.

EXERCISES.

[Correct the sentences under each rule, and parse the words corrected.]

Him struck first. *Her* was not to blame. *Them* were in fault. Who said it? *Me* said it. *Him* is in the field. *Her* is at home.

LESSON XXXVII.

RULES AND CORRECTIONS CONTINUED.

RULE II.—A noun or pronoun, predicated of the subject, must be in the nominative case; as, “*Thou art he.*”

FALSE SYNTAX.

“*John* is *him.*”

Is this sentence correct?

It is not.

Why?

Him is predicated of the subject *John*, but is not in the nominative case, or has not the subjective form. It should be, "John is *he*," according to rule 2.

EXERCISES.

Is it *me*? I thought it was *him*. Mary was not her. That boy is him. She said it was them. It was her that told it. Is it him with whom he is angry?

RULE III.---A noun or pronoun, used to *identify* another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the case; as, "Cicero, the *Orator*."

FALSE SYNTAX.

"He took it to be *I*."

Is this sentence correct?

It is not.

State the reason.

I is used to *identify it*, but is not in the same case. It should be, "He took it to be *me*."

EXERCISES.

I believe it to be *she*. She mistook me to be *he*. We adore the Divine Being, He who sustains all things. It was John, him who preached repentance. I saw Mary, she that you visited.

LESSON XXXVIII.

RULE IV.---A noun or pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the word which it limits; as, "*John's* book."

NOTE 1.—The possessive case of nouns should always be distinguished by an apostrophe.

NOTE 2.—Nouns, pluralized by *s*, retain the apostrophe, rejecting the additional *s*; as, Those *boys'* books.

NOTE 3.—Any noun ending in a hissing sound, followed by another commencing with a hissing sound, retains the apostrophe only; as "*Righteousness'* sake."

FALSE SYNTAX.

"That *girls* book is on the table."

Is this sentence correct?

It is not.

Point out what is wrong, and correct.

Girls is in the possessive case, but not distinguished by the apostrophe. The apostrophe should be inserted between the *l* and *s*; thus, That *girl's* book.

EXERCISES.

Those *boys* books are cleaner than that *girls* book. The *boys* hat is under the bed. Peter's dog bit John's finger. The Lord's day should be kept holy. He does it for *conscience* sake.

RULE V.—The infinitive mode is governed by the word which it limits; as, "They *went to see* him."

LESSON XXXIX.

RULE VI.—A verb must agree with its nominative in number and person; as, "Thou *seest*." "He *sees*." "I *see*." "We *see*."

FALSE SYNTAX.

"I *loveth*."

Is this sentence correct?

It is not; for the verb *loveth* has the termination of the

third person singular, solemn style. It should be *love* to agree with its nominative *I* of the first person, singular, according to Rule VI.

EXERCISES.

He *are* at home. I *is* not well. Thou *has* come at last. The girls *has* returned. He *has* three books. You *has* a fine dress. The last week *were* very hot. She *take* snuff. I just *shuts* my eyes, and *goes* it.

RULE VII.---Two or more nominatives in the singular, connected by *and*, must have verbs agreeing with them in the plural; as, "Cato and Plato *were* wise."

FALSE SYNTAX.

"Henry and William *has* returned."

Is this sentence correct?

It is not?

Why?

The verb, *has returned*, has the singular form, but it has two nominatives in the singular connected by *and*; it should, therefore, be Henry and William *have returned*, according to Rule VII.

EXERCISES.

Martha and Mary *was* sisters. John and Peter *loves* play. David and Jonathan *was* strongly attached to each other. Eliza and her sister *has* gone into the country.

LESSON XL.

RULE VIII.---Two or more nominatives in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, must have verbs agreeing with them in the singular; as, "John or James *was* ill."

FALSE SYNTAX.

“James or Thomas *have done* this mischief.”

How do you correct this sentence?

It should be, James or Thomas *has done* this mischief.

Why?

Because the verb must be singular to agree with its nominatives in the singular, connected by *or*, according to Rule VIII.

EXERCISES.

Either he or she *are* to blame. Neither Henry nor Thomas *were* in fault. Ignorance or bigotry were the cause of this cruelty. Neither the miser nor the spendthrift are happy.

RULE IX----When a verb agrees with the infinitive mode or part of a sentence for its subject, it must be of the third person, singular; as, “*To see, is pleasant.*” “*To die for one's country, is glorious.*”

FALSE SYNTAX.

“To seek God, *are* wisdom.”

Is this sentence correct?

It is not.

State the reason.

The verb has the plural form, whereas it has part of a sentence for its subject; it is, therefore, incorrect. It should be, To seek God, *is* wisdom, according to Rule IX.

EXERCISES.

That the earth is a sphere, *are* easily proved. To see our friends, *are* pleasant. To publish slanderous words, *are* wrong. To seek our own happiness by violating the rights of others, *are* contrary to the Golden Rule. To learn, *are* pleasant.

RULE X---A collective noun conveying *idea* of *unity*, generally has a verb and pronoun agreeing with it in the singular; as, "That nation *was* once powerful; but now *it* is feeble."

FALSE SYNTAX.

"The council *were* unanimous."

Is this sentence correct?

It is not.

State the reason why it is not correct?

The nominative is a collective noun, conveying *idea* of *unity*; the verb, therefore, should be singular; thus, The council *was* unanimous.

EXERCISES.

The society *meet* annually. The meeting *were* large. The army *were* routed. Congress *have* adjourned.

RULE XI---A collective noun conveying *idea* of *plurality*, generally has a verb and pronoun agreeing with it in the plural; as, "The council *were* divided in *their* sentiments."

FALSE SYNTAX.

"The committee *was* divided in *its* sentiments."

Say the committee *were* divided in *their* sentiments.

Why should the verb and pronoun, in this sentence, be plural?

Because the noun *committee* conveys the *idea* of *plurality*.

EXERCISES.

The people *was* divided in *its* sentiments, some adhering to one faction, and some to another. The multitude pursues pleasure as its chief good.

LESSON XII.

RULE XII---Pronouns agree with their antecedents in

gender, number, and person; as, "John lost *his* knife."
 "He *who* studies, will improve."

NOTE 1.—When the relative relates to antecedents of different persons, it may agree with either; but, when the agreement has been determined, it must be continued throughout the sentence; as, "Thou art the Lord, *who didst* choose Abraham, and *didst* bring him forth out of Ur of the Chaldees."

NOTE 2.—When a pronoun relates to two or more antecedents in the singular, connected by *and*, it must be in the plural; but, if its antecedents are connected by *or* or *nor*, it must be in the singular.

FALSE SYNTAX.

"Every one must take care of *themselves*."

Say every one must take care of *himself*.

Why should it be *himself*?

Because the antecedent *one* is singular, the pronoun must, also, be singular, according Rule XII.

EXERCISES.

Every body is accountable for *their* own conduct. Every tree bears fruit, according to *his* own kind. Speak to the men, and say to him. The wheel killed another man who is the sixth that has lost their life by this means.

RULE XIII.—The indefinite article belongs to nouns in the singular number; as, *A* man. *An* hour.

NOTE.—*A* should be used before words commencing with a consonant sound, and *An* should be used before words commencing with vowel sounds; as, *A* book. *An* apple.

REM.—It is more euphonious to use *An* before words commencing with *h* when the accent is on the second syllable; as, *An historic* account.

EXERCISES.

The children have been playing *a* hour. I saw *an* man walking. She is *an* beautiful lady. *An* horse is a noble animal. *A* century is *an* hundred years. *A* honest man is *an* great man.

LESSON XLII.

RULE XIV---The definite article belongs to nouns of both numbers; as, "*The man.*" "*The men.*"

RULE XV---Adjectives belong to nouns and pronouns; as, "*A good man.*" "*She is beautiful.*"

NOTE 1.—Such specifying adjectives as are varied to express number, must agree in number with the nouns to which they belong; as, This, that, these, those.

"*These* sort of goods is not fashionable. Say, *This* sort of goods is not fashionable.

EXERCISES.

Those sort of favors does real injury. *Those* kind of fruit is not good. *I* am not pleased with these sort of expressions.

NOTE 2.—Specifying adjectives of the numeral kind, require nouns to agree in number; as, *One man.* *Ten men.*

"The wall is three *foot* high." Say, The wall is three *feet* high.

EXERCISES.

The pole is twenty *foot* long. The sound is thirty *mile* wide, and three fathom deep. The Ohio is one thousand miles long. The room is thirty *foot* long and twenty wide.

NOTE 3.—Double comparatives and superlatives should not be used; as, "*More* better." "*Most* extremest."

"The *most Highest* hath created us for His own glory." Say, The *most High* hath created, &c.

EXERCISES.

I will show you a *more better* way. That is the *most tallest* man *I* ever saw. He is *worser* than he was. That is the *most weakest* argument *I* have ever heard.

NOTE 4.—When two objects are compared, the comparative degree should be used; and, when three or more, the superlative; as, *Mary* is *taller* than her sister. That is the *tallest* tree in the forest.

James is the *tallest* of the two. Say, James is the taller of the two.

EXERCISES.

He is the *wiser* of the three. This is the best of the two ways. Henry is the strongest of the two. She is the better of her class.

LESSON XLIII.

RULE XVI--Adjectives sometimes belong to the infinitive mode, part of a sentence, or a whole sentence; as, "To see, is *pleasant*." "Agreeable to this, we read of names being blotted out of God's book."

Quality may be predicated of action; as,

RULE XVII—Adjectives are used to qualify the action of verbs, and to express the qualities of things in connection with the action by which they are produced; as, "Open thine hand *wide*." "The trees look *green*."

FALSE SYNTAX.

"Still water runs *deeply*."

Is this sentence correct?

It is not. It should be, still water runs *deep*, according to Rule XVII.

EXERCISES.

The fields look *freshly* and *gayly*. She looks *coldly*. The clay burns *whitely*. The rose smells *sweetly*. Apples boil *softly*.

RULE XVIII—Participles refer to nouns and pronouns; as, "I see *him walking*." "Mary *having written* the letter, mailed it."

LESSON XLIV.

RULE XIX—The object of a transitive verb in the active voice, is put in the objective case; as, “I saw *him* whom you met.”

FALSE SYNTAX.

“Who seest thou?”

Is this sentence correct?

It is not.

State the reason.

Who is the object of the transitive verb *seest* in the active voice; but has not the *objective* form; it is, therefore, incorrect, and should be, *Whom* seest thou?

EXERCISES.

He and *they* we know. They who will not study, you must correct. He that is studious, you should encourage. She that is negligent, reprove sharply. Who does he revile. He declare I unto you.

RULE XX—The object of a transitive participle, must be in the *objective* case; as, “I saw a man *beating* his horse.”

RULE XXI—The object of a preposition is put in the *objective* case; as, “Henry went *with* me.”

FALSE SYNTAX.

“Who did you walk with?”

Is this sentence correct?

It is not.

State the reason, and correct it.

Who is the object of the preposition *with*; but has not the *objective* form. It should be, *With whom* did you walk? according to rule XXI.

EXERCISES.

He gave the fruit to *I*. Between *I* and you, there is a great disparity of years. The teacher spoke to he and *I*. With who, does he trifle?

LESSON XLV.

78 RULE XXII—Conjunctions connect words of the same sort; as, "*John and James.*" "*Good and bad.*" "*Gracefully and rapidly.*"

REM.—This rule should only be applied when conjunctions connect words.

RULE XXIII—Conjunctions connect nouns and pronouns in the same case; as, "*Henry and William* obey their teacher." "They assisted *him and me.*" "*David's and Jonathan's* friendship."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Him and *I* went. Say, *He* and *I* went.

EXERCISES.

He and *them* have no dealings. He sent it to her and *I*. She and *me* are cousins. *Him* and *they* are brothers. He went with her and *I*. Who will go? He and *me*.

RULE XXIV—Conjunctions generally connect verbs of like modes and tenses; as, "*Kingdoms rise and fall.*"

LESSON XLVI.

RULE XXV—Adverbs modify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, "He writes *well.*"

NOTE.—When *manner* is expressed, an *adverb* should be employed, and not an *adjective*; as, The birds sing *sweetly*. She dances *graceful*." Say, She dances gracefully.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Clouds are moving slow. That young lady sings sweet. The bell rings merry. Time flies rapid. She cannot hear good. He writes bad. That boy walks awkward.

NOTE 2.—Unnecessary negatives should be avoided; as, I *don't* know *nothing* about it. Say, I know nothing about it, or I do not know *any* thing about it.

FOR CORRECTION.

He *never* says *nothing*. He *haint* got *no* more. He don't do nothing. In our neighborhood, *no* body never take no newspapers.

RULE XXVI—Euphony requires that the sign *to* of the infinitive should be omitted when construed with the following verbs, viz. *bid, dare, feel, help, make, let, hear, see, need*, and their participles; as, "He *bid* me *come*." "We felt the earth *tremble*," etc.

NOTE.—When these verbs are used in the *Passive* voice, the sign *is* is used; as, "He was often heard *to say*."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Let him *to go*. Say, Let him *go*.

EXERCISES.

Bid him *to depart*. I felt the earth *to shake*. I heard her *to say*. Help him *to work*. He need not *to attend*. I saw the child *to walk*. He dare not *to do* it. Make the man *to work*.

LESSON XLVII.

RULE XXVII—When an address is made, the name

of the person or thing addressed, is put in the *nominative case independent*; as, "*James*, I desire you to study."

RULE XXVIII—A noun or pronoun, placed before a participle, and having no verb to agree with it, is put in the *nominative case absolute*; as "The *sun* having risen, we pursued our journey."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Me being in great haste, he consented. Say, *I* being in great haste, he consented.

EXERCISES.

Her descending, the ladder fell. It was said to me, *him* being in company. It was said of them, *him* being present. *Her* being in distress, the necessary aid was sent.

RULE XXIX—Some verbs in the imperative mode, have no nominative specified; as, "God said, *let* there be light, and there was light."

RULE XXX—Prepositions point out the relations between their *antecedent* and *subsequent* terms; as, "He *went to the city of New York.*"

RULE XXXI—Interjections have no dependent construction.

REM.—The last three rules may be used in parsing, or they may be omitted—just as it may suit the taste of teachers.

TO BE CORRECTED BY THE "DIAGRAM OF TIME."

MODEL—"I *finished* my letter before the mail arrived."

The verb *finished* is in the past tense, whereas it is used in the *prior* of *two past* events; the verb, therefore, is incorrect; it should be *had finished* in the pluperfect, according to Figure 4 of the "Diagram of Time."

EXERCISES.

We *have studied* our lessons yesterday. I never *drank* better water. We came here to-day. Philosophers have

made great discoveries last century. After I have quoted the text, you will see its application. After I visited Europe, I returned to America. The thief escaped before the goods were missed. John will complete his task by the appointed time. The world will have been destroyed by fire.

LESSON XLVIII.

FALSE SYNTAX PROMISCUOUSLY ARRANGED.

1 John writes beautiful. I shall never do so no more. This is him who I gave the book to. Eliza always appears amiably. That house is sixty foot long. Was you present as the procession passed. He who they seek is in the house. Her mother and her were at the celebration. The master requested him and I to read our compositions more distinetly.

2 These sort of books are beautiful. What does you think of him now? Thou, Thomas, shall see these animals of which you speak. Who went with Mary to church? Me. Let us to proceed. To love God with all thy heart are a divine command. Neither man nor woman were present.

3 High hopes and ambitious views is a great enemy to tranquility. Has you been well since I seen you last? I has. A too great variety of studies weaken and dissipate the mind. He has went to town. He might have completed the task sooner, but he could not de it better.

LESSON XLIX.

OF COLLOQUIAL INACCURACIES.

As Colloquial Inaccuracies are too numerous and varied to be comprehended by any syntactical rules, however

copious, we have thrown together some of the inaccuracies, and arranged the correct and incorrect expressions in parallel columns. Though these colloquial inaccuracies may vary not only in different States, but, also, in different sections of the same State, yet they may nearly all be traced to three leading sources, viz: 1 *Unwarrantable Contractions*. 2 *Redundant words or Pleonastic expressions*, and 3 *Words badly chosen to convey the sense intended*.

CLASS I.

UNWARRANTABLE CONTRACTIONS.

Though some contractions are admissible in familiar style, yet they should be carefully avoided in all grave or solemn discourse.

INCORRECT.

I *ai'n't* well,
I *hav'nt* been out,
We *wer'n't* there,
She'd heard of it,
I *us'd* to know it,
I've seen 'er.
I *'spose 'twill*,
Lay *'em* on the table,
Gim me some bread,
A good'eel too short,
He *haint* none,
You *do'n't* know 'im,
John's got enough,
Can't she go?

CORRECT.

I am not well,
I have not been out,
We were not there,
She had heard of it,
I used to know,
I have seen her.
I suppose it will,
Lay them on the table,
Give me some bread,
Very much too short,
He has none,
You do not know him,
John has enough,
Can she not go?

CLASS II.

REDUNDANT WORDS, OR PLEONASTIC EXPRESSIONS.

INCORRECT.

I could not *get* to go,
The speaker rose *up*,
He fell *down*,
Up above,
Up over,
Down under,
He mentioned it *over* again,
I will repeat it *again*,

CORRECT.

I could not go,
The speaker rose,
He fell,
Above,
Over,
Under,
He mentioned it again,
I will repeat it,

INCORRECT.

They *both* met,
 He cannot tell *for* why,
 Return *back* immediately,
 He went, but will soon come
back again,
 Where shall I go *to*?
 He was *in* here,
 We entered *into* the case,
 I am *a* going,
 He is *a* walking,
 Can you go? *To be sure*,
D'ye see that *thar* man?
I've done said it,
 But *he's done* done it,
 How *do* you *do*?
 He has *got* enough,
 Mary *she* went,
 John *he* said it,
 Susan *her* bonnet,
 George his book,
 Bring me *them* *there* quills,
 This *here* book,
 That *there* book,
Looky there,

CORRECT.

They met,
 He cannot tell why,
 Return immediately,
 He went, but will soon return,
 Where shall I go?
 He was here,
 We entered the case,
 I am going,
 He is walking,
 Can you go? Surely,
 Do you see that man?
 I have said it,
 But he has done it,
 How are you?
 He has enough,
 Mary went,
 John said it,
 Susan's bonnet,
 George's book,
 Bring me those quills,
 This book,
 That book,
 Look there.

CLASS III.

WORDS BADLY CHOSEN.

INCORRECT.

I am *dry*,
Put out the candle,
 Give me *them* books,
 I *reckon* it will rain,
 I *guess* it is enough,
 I *calculate* to return,
 You read *right* well,
 She cannot hear *good*,
 I am *monstrous* glad to see you,
 He has a *heap* of money,
 I want it *badly*,
 A *great** territory,
 The Ericson is a *big** ship,
 Webster's *large** mind,

CORRECT.

I am thirsty,
 Extinguish the light,
 Give me those books,
 I think it will rain,
 I think it is enough,
 I intend (or purpose) to return,
 You read very well,
 She cannot hear well,
 I am glad to see you,
 He has much money,
 I want it much,
 A large territory,
 The Ericson is a large ship,
 Webster's great mind.

* *Great* is applicable to *mental* measurement, *large* to the measurement of *solid* bodies, and *big* to some *unnatural* increase or swelling.

INCORRECT.

He is *to* the store,
 My mother *learned* me the let-
 ters,
 I want it *right bad*,
 It rains *hard*,
 A *hard* battle,
 A *little bit* a sentence,
 I *got up* at 7 o'clock,
 I'll do as well as I *kin*,
Yon'ones ought to go,
 Are *yous* all well?
You unzes can stay,
 I *know'd* it was *him*,
 He is *gwine* home,
 I *seen* her,
 I *hearn* her,
 I *taken* it to be him,
 You *had better* go,
 They *fit* half an hour,
 I *allowed* he had come,
 He *allowed* to me,
 I *admire* at you,
Me and you think alike,
Ouch! how it burns,
 The storm *begun* to subside,
 He *fotched* it,
 I *set out* on my journey,
 Let us walk out, and take the
 fresh *ar*,
 They *air* at home,
 Crockett was a great *bar* hun-
 ter,
Thar he stands,
 He *chaws* his own tobacco,
 I can't *mind* it,
 I will take some of those mo-
 lasses,*
 I am *scared* of robbers,
 I *see* him last Monday,
 Why did you not bring the
 plow? Because *she* was not
 repaired,
 Let the *Sicertery* record the
 names.

CORRECT.

He is *at* the store,
 My mother taught me the let-
 ters,
 I want it very much,
 It rains fast,
 A fierce battle,
 A small sentence,
 I rose at 7 o'clock,
 I'll do as well as I can,
 You ought to go,
 Are you all well?
 You can stay,
 I knew it was he,
 He is going home,
 I saw her,
 I heard her,
 I took it to be him,
 You would do better *to* go,
 They fought half an hour,
 I supposed he had come,
 He suggested (or said) to me.
 I wonder at you,
 You and I think alike.
 Oh! how it burns,
 The storm began to subside,
 He brought it,
 I set out on my journey,
 Let us walk out and take the
 fresh *air*,
 They are at home,
 Crockett was a great bear hun-
 ter,
 There he stands,
 He chews his own tobacco,
 I cannot recollect it,
 I will take some of the (or that)
 Molasses,
 I am afraid of robbers,
 I saw him last Monday,
 Why did you not bring the
 plow? Because *it* was not
 repaired,
 Let the Secretary record the
 names,

* Molasses is strictly singular, being the syrup which drains from
 muscovado sugar while cooling.

INCORRECT.

I am *purty nigh* frozen,
Pack the wheat off to mill,

Pack her off to church,

CORRECT.

I am nearly frozen,
Take (or send) the wheat to
mill,

Take (or conduct) her to
church.

LESSON L.

PUNCTUATION OR GNOMONOLOGY.

What is punctuation ?

Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, clauses, and phrases, in order to make the stops which the sense of the sentiment, its grammatical construction, and an accurate pronunciation require.

What are the principal stops used to denote these pauses ?

They are the comma [,], the semicolon [;], the colon [:], the period, or full full stop [.] , the interrogation [?], the exclamation [!], the parenthesis [()], and the dash [—].

• Into how many classes, may these gnomons, idices, or points be divided ?

They may be divided into two classes, viz : such as separate parts of a sentence, and those which separate entire sentences. The former are the comma, semicolon, colon, dash, and parenthesis. The latter are the period, the interrogation, and exclamation points.

As the characters, used in punctuation, commonly called stops, are mere grammatical, they are intended to point out the sense of the construction, rather than to indicate the length of time the reader or speaker should pause at each point.

THE COMMA (;).

The comma is used to indicate the shortest pause ; it is, also, used to denote the ellipsis of some words.

The principal uses of the comma are exhibited in the following rules and remarks.

RULE I—When the construction of a simple sentence is interrupted by an adjunct, loosely thrown between its parts, it must be separated by a comma before and after it; as, “Law, *in its most confined sense*, is a rule of human action.” “Charity, *like the sun*, brightens every object around it.”

RULE II—When the grammatical subject of a proposition is modified by a subordinate clause, or by an adjunct considerably extended, the logical subject should be separated from the predicate by a comma; as, “The hail *which fell last week*, badly injured the standing crops.” “The intermixture of *evil in human society*, serves to exercise some of the noblest virtues of the human soul.”

REM.—If the modifying element is short, the comma may be omitted; as, “The end of *all things* is at hand.”

RULE III—When, by transposition, the *sub* or inferior member occupies the place of its *super*, it may be separated by a comma; as, “*By doing good to others*, we secure the approbation of our own conscience.” “*From me*, they flee.”

RULE IV—The nominative case independent, and several of the interjections, are separated by commas, since they are not elements of a sentence,—consequently not closely connected; as, “*My son*, give me thy heart.” “If you will assist me, *James*, I will accompany you.” “*Lo*, from their seats, the mountains leap.”

REM. 1.—When the case independent is modified by an adjunct, the comma should be placed after it; as, John of *Richmond*, come forth.

REM. 2.—When a pronoun is joined with a noun in making an address, it should not be separated from the noun; as, “*Ye scenes divinely fair*, proclaim your Maker’s wondrous power.”

REM. 3.—Those interjections which express a very strong emotion or feeling, are generally followed by an exclamation point; as, “*Ah!* whither shall I fly?”

REM. 4.—When a conjunction introduces an *example*, or is separated by some intervening words or phrases, from the member to which, it belongs, it should be separated by a comma; as, Prepositions govern the objective case; as, “With him, I went.” “*For*, for this cause, pay ye tribute also.

REM. 5.—An adverb, or perhaps any other word, thrown off from the member to which it belongs, should be separated by a comma; as,

“*Soen* borne on Time’s most rapid wing,
Shall Death command you to his bar.”

REM. 6.—Words of others repeated, but not as quotations, and also words and phrases repeated for emphasis, should be separated by a comma or commas; as, “Thus shalt thou say to the children of Israel, *I AM hath sent me unto you.*” “*Happy, happy, happy, pair.*”

RULE V.—The case absolute with words depending on it, participles and adjectives with words depending on them, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, “*Bonaparte being banished*, peace was restored to Europe.” His talents, *formed for great enterprises*, could not fail to render him conspicuous.

“Jesus, let all thy lovers shine,
Illustrious as the sun,
And, *bright with borrowed ray divine*,
Their glorious circuit run.”

REM. 1.—When a participle immediately follows the word on which it depends, taken in a restrictive sense, the comma should be omitted before the participle; as, “He *being ridiculed*, left the institution.”

REM. 2.—When a participle, without an adjunct, is separated from the word on which it depends in construction, a comma is generally inserted before and after it; as, “And, when he was come near, he beheld the city, and wept over it, *saying*, if thou hadst known, etc.”

RULE VI.—When the relative is so closely connected with its antecedent, that it will not admit of transposition, it should not be separated from it by a comma; as, “Henry saw hats *which* he wanted.”

REM. 1.—The relative may be separated by a comma, when its antecedent is used in a general sense; as, “Man, *who* is born of woman is of few days, and full of trouble.”

REM. 2.—A comma should be placed before the relative when a word or phrase intervenes between it and its antecedent; as, “He gave me the piece of an apple, *which* he found.”

REM. 3.—When the relative clause is broken by the introduction of a sub-member, the relative may be separated from its antecedent by a comma; as, “An old clock, *which*, for fifty years, had stood in a farmer’s kitchen, suddenly stopped.”

REM. 4.—When the relative clause is involved, and readily admits of

transposition, the relative may be separated from its antecedent by a comma; as, "The lady, *whose house we occupy*, bestows many charities."

REM. 5—In such examples as the last, the comma is frequently omitted before the relative, nor does the construction really demand that the relative should be separated from its antecedent in any case, except as noticed in Remark 2.

RULE VII—When a conjunction is understood in connecting words in the same construction, its place should be supplied by a comma, and, also, when the verb of a simple member is understood; as, "He is a *plain, honest* man." From law, arises security; from *security, curiosity*; from *curiosity, knowledge*," etc.

RULE VIII—Three or more words occurring in the same construction, with their conjunction expressed or understood, should all be separated by commas, except the last; as, "David was a *brave, wise, pious, and generous* man."

OBSERVATION—The reason why the last word is not separated, is, because it is either in juxta-position with its *super*, or closes a sentence.

REM. 1—If they are nominatives, writers generally separate the last also; as, The *head, the heart, and the hands*, should be constantly employed in doing good."

REM. 2—When words are connected in pairs, the pairs only should be separated; as, "*Interest and ambition, honor and shame, friendship and enmity, gratitude and revenge*, are the prime movers in public transactions."

REM. 3—Words or phrases, placed antithetically, should be separated by commas; as, "Though *deep, yet clear*; though *gentle, yet not dull*."

REM. 4—When the conjunction *or* joins on a word which expresses an alternative of words, and not of ideas, it should be separated by a comma; as, "He saw a large *bay, or gulf*."

REM. 5—When *phrases* are connected by conjunctions, they are regulated by the same rules as single words.

RULE IX—When any tense of the verb "To Be" is followed by a verb in the *infinitive* mode, which, by transposition, may be made the nominative case to it, the former

is generally separated from the latter verb by a comma; as, "The best preservative of health is, *to be temperate.*"

REM. 1—The infinitive mode absolute with words depending on it, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma; as, "*To correct the spirit of discontent*, let us consider how little we deserve."

REM. 2—When the infinitive mode or a part of a sentence is used as the subject of the verb, it is generally separated from it by a comma; as, "*To die for one's country*, is glorious."

REM. 3—When a verb in the infinitive mode, is separated from the word on which it depends in construction, a comma is generally placed before it; as,

O, for a *glance* of heavenly day,
To TAKE this stubborn heart away."

RULE X—Modifying words and phrases, as, *however*, nay, hence, therefore, besides, in short, finally, formerly, etc., are usually separated by commas; as, "It is, *however*, the task of criticism to establish principles."

RULE XI—The members of a compound sentence, whether successive or involved, should be separated by commas; as, "The boy wounded the old bird, *and* stole the young ones." "Providence has, *I think*, displayed a tenderness for mankind."

REM. 1—Those modifying clauses which are joined on by such subordinate connectives as do not limit the verb in the preceding clause, should be punctuated as co-ordinate clauses; as, "The husbandman is happy, *if he knows his advantages.*"

REM. 2—In comparative sentences whose members are short, the comma should not be used; as, "Wisdom is better *than gold.*"

RULE XII—The case in apposition with its adjunct, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "Paul, *the great APOSTLE of the Gentiles*, was eminent for his Christian zeal."

REM.—If the case in apposition is unaccompanied by any modifying word or phrase, no comma should be used; as, "The patriarch *Joseph* was an illustrious example of true piety."

THE SEMICOLON.

The semicolon (;) requires a longer pause than the comma; the proportion being as one to two.

The semicolon is placed between the clauses of a period which are less closely connected than such as are separated by commas.

RULE I—When the first division completes a proposition, so as to have no dependence on what follows, but the following clause has a dependence on the preceding, the two parts are separated by a semicolon; as, “The one has all that perfection requires, and more, but the excess may be easily *retrenched*; *the other* wants the qualities requisite to excellence.”

REM.—In general, then, the semicolon separates the divisions of a sentence, when the latter division has a dependence on the former, whether the former has a dependence on the latter or not.

RULE II—When several members of a sentence have a dependence on each other, by means of a substitute for the same principal word, and the clauses, in other respects, constitute direct propositions, the semicolon may be used; as, “Wisdom hath builded her house; *she* hath hewn out her seven pillars; *she* hath killed her beasts; *she* hath mingled her wine; *she* hath also furnished her table.”—*Proverbs* ix.

RULE III—A semicolon is generally used to separate *premises* and *conclusions*; as, “Man is mortal; *therefore* he must die.” “Cæsar deserved death; *for* he was a tyrant.”

RULE IV—The semicolon is generally used to separate an example, introduced to illustrate a rule or proposition; as, The subject of a verb must be in the nominative case; as, *Washington was President.*”

REM.—The above, with some variation, are the rules generally given by punctuists, to direct the learner to a proper use of the semicolon.

It will be seen, however, that the principles, on which the proper application of this point is based, are found in the perception of a *resemblance* and *contrast*.

When a new subject is introduced in the sub-member, of which something similar is predicated, to that of the super-member, the idea is that of resemblance; and the semicolon should be used to separate the members; as, "As wood is to fire; so is a contentious man to the production of strife."

But, when a new subject is introduced in the sub-member, and of which something antithetical is affirmed, to what is affirmed in the super-member, the idea is that of *antithesis* or *contrast*; consequently the members should be separated by a semicolon; as, "The *wise* shall inherit glory; *but* shame shall be the promotion of *fools*." Hence the following rule will, in most cases, be sufficient to direct the learner to a proper application of this gnomon, or point.

RULE V—When *resemblance* or *contrast* is affirmed in the sub-member, the members should be separated by a semicolon; as, "Heaven is the region of gentleness and *friendship*; *but* hell of fierceness and animosity." "The *wicked* flee when no man pursueth; *but* the *righteous* are as bold as a lion." "Eliza is beautiful; and so is *Mary*."

THE COLON.

The time generally given to the colon (:) is double that of the semicolon.

RULE I—When the things affirmed in the latter, or sub-member, are adapted to the condition of the things mentioned in the former, or super-member, the colon may be used to separate the members; as, "Man is a great sinner: Christ is a great Saviour."

RULE II—When that which is affirmed in the latter, or sub-member, is illustrative or confirmatory of what is affirmed in the former, or super member, the colon may be used; as, "Man cannot arrive at a point here, which he cannot pass: *he is to advance in the next world*." "Mr. Gray was followed by Mr. Erskine who spake thus: *I rise to second the motion of my honorable friend*."

REM. 1—When the colon is used, the connective is generally omitted.

REM. 2—Our best writers have frequently confounded the colon

and semicolon. The truth is, the colon is nearly obsolete; consequently but sparingly used by the best writers of the present age.— (See *Dr. Webster's Improved Grammar*, Page 154.)

REM.—The practice of writers is far from being uniform, with regard to the point to be used in introducing direct quotations. Some use the colon, some the semicolon, and others, the comma.

THE PERIOD.

The period, or full point (.), marks a completion of the sense, a cadence of the voice, and the longest pause used between sentences. It closes a discourse, also, or marks the completion of a subject or section.

REM.—And it is also used in abbreviating words, and is placed after initials when used alone; as, “*Rev. Presb. Craven, D. D.*” “*C. F. Deems, D. D.*” “*Hon. David L. Swain, L. L. D.*”

THE DASH AND PARENTHESIS.

The *Dash* (—) is used where there is a significant pause, an unexpected transition in the sentence, or where a sentence is left unfinished; as, “If thou art he—but O, how fallen!”

The *Dash* is now frequently used instead of the *Parenthesis*; as, “The Colonists—*such is human nature*—desired to burn the town in which they had been so wretched.”

The *Parenthesis* () is used to enclose a part of a sentence not necessary to the construction, but, in some way, explanatory of the meaning of the sentence; as, “Consider (and may the consideration sink deep in your hearts) the fatal consequences of a wicked life.”

INTERROGATION POINT.

The *Interrogation point* (?) is used when a question is asked; as, Do brutes reason?

REM.—When two interrogative members are closely connected, the

comma is generally used after the first, and the interrogation point at the close of the last member; as,

“When shall I reach that happy place,
And be forever *blest*?”

EXCLAMATION POINT.

The exclamation point (!) is used after an exclamative sentence; as, “How vain are all things here below!” It is also used after phrases expressive of emotion; as, “O, happiness! our being’s end and aim!”

BRACKETS.

Brackets (]) are used when a word or phrase is introduced for explanation; as, “He [the Professor] explained it.”

QUOTATION MARKS.

Quotation Marks (“ ”) are used to include a passage taken verbatim from some other author; as, He said, “*I relinquish my claim.*”

THE CARET.

The Caret (^) is used in writing to show that some letter, word, or phrase, has been omitted; as, “The book upon ^{lies} _^.”

THE HYPHEN.

The Hyphen (-) is used to separate the parts of a compound word; as, Book-binder. When placed at the end

of a line, it shows that a word is divided, the remaining part being carried to next line.

THE ELLIPSIS.

The Ellipsis (—) is used to denote the omission of certain letters or words: as, Y—k, K—g.

THE INDEX.

The Index (☞) points to some remarkable passage.

ACCENT.

The accent is a character used to point out the accented syllable of a word, whether long or short. Our ancestors borrowed three of these characters from the Greek language, viz: the acute (´), the grave (`), and the circumflex (ˆ). The acute points out the *rise* of voice; the grave, the *fall*; and the circumflex unites both of these in one, and makes an undulation of the voice. The breve (˘) is placed over an unaccented syllable in poetry; and the dash (—) is used over the accented syllables; as,

“With rāv | ished eārs,
The mōn | arch heārs.”

THE APOSTROPHE.

The apostrophe (') is used as a sign of the possessive case, and also to mark the omission of a letter in the syncopation of words; as, “This is *John's* book.” “*E'en* now where Alpine solitudes ascend.”

THE ASTERISK.

Three asterisks (***) show that some indelicate expression has been omitted, or that there is some defect in the manuscript.

The asterisk (*), the obelisk (†), the double-dagger (‡), and parallels (||), are only used as foot notes, or references to the margin.

LESSON LI.

OF CAPITALS.

The following words should begin with capital letters :

- 1 The first word of every distinct sentence.
- 2 Proper names and titles of office or honor ; as, "*George Washington, General Lee, Judge Story, Sir Walter Scott, the Ohio, Main Street.*"
- 3 The name of an object personified, may be used as a proper name, and should then begin with a capital ; as, "*Gentle Spring.*"
- 4 Adjectives derived from proper names ; as, "*American, English, Roman.*"
- 5 The appellations of the Deity ; as, "*God, the Almighty.*" "*The Supreme Being.*"
- 6 The first word of every line of poetry.
- 7 The first word of a direct quotation, when the quotation is a complete sentence of itself ; as, "*Christ says, 'My yoke is easy.'*"
- 8 Every noun and principal word in the *title* of books ; as, "*Pope's Essay on Man.*"
- 9 The pronoun *I* and interjection *O* are written in capitals.
- 10 Any word, when of particular importance, may begin with a capital.

LESSON LII.

OF VERSIFICATION.

Poetry is metrical composition, or it is the language of passion, or of enlivened imagination.

Versification is the arrangement of a certain number of syllables, according to particular rules, so as to produce melody.

Meter, in English, consists in the regular return of the accent at regular intervals. *Accent*, then, is essential to verse; but *Rhyme* is not, since there may be a regular return of accent, or syllables similarly affected, without the similarity of sound which produces *rhyme*.

Two or more syllables, grouped together by accent, constitute a *foot*, or *measure*. It is called a *measure*, because, by its aid, the voice steps along, as it were, through the verse in a measured pace. When two syllables are thus grouped together, it is called *dissyllabic* measure; as,

(-) -
 "With rav | ished cars,
 (-) -
 The mon | arch hears."

But, when three syllables are thus grouped together, it is *trissyllabic* measure; as,

() - () - () -
 "I am mon | arch of all | I survey."

Several *measures*, or *feet*, properly arranged, form a *line*, or *verse*. A verse, then, is a certain number of connected feet forming one line.

A *Stanza* is a combination of several verses, varying in number, according to the poet's fancy, and constituting a regular division of a poem or song.

When the first and third lines of a stanza contain four Iambic feet each, and the second and fourth lines, three feet each, it is *Common Meter*.

When the first, second, and fourth lines of a stanza contain three Iambic feet each, and the third line four, it is *Short Metre*.

When all the lines of a stanza contain four Iambic feet each, the metre is *Long*.

Blank verse is metrical composition without rhyme ; as,

“ Now came still evening on, and twilight *gray*
Had, in her sober livery, all things *clad*.”

Rhyme is a similarity of sound between the last syllables of different lines, as in the following,

“ How do thy mercies close me *round*,
Forever be thy name adored !
I blush, in all things, to *abound* ;
The servant is above his *lord*.”

SCANNING.

Scanning a verse is dividing it into its component feet, and properly placing the accent.

All the feet used in poetry are reducible to eight kinds—four of two syllables, and four of three, as follows :

DISSYLLABLE.		TRISSYLLABLE.	
An Iambus	— — ;	A Dactyl	— — — ;
A Trochee	— — ;	An Amphibrach	— — — ;
A Spondee	— — ;	A Tribach	— — — ;
A Pyrrhic	— — ;	An Anapaest	— — — .

The Iambus, Trochee, Anapaest, and Dactyl, may be denominated *principal feet*, as pieces of poetry are chiefly, and may be wholly, formed of them. The others may be termed *secondary feet*, because their object is to diversify the numbers, and to improve the verse.

IAMBIC VERSE.

In Iambic verse, the second syllable of every foot is accented, and the first unaccented.

1. *Iambic of one foot, or Monometer ;*

From mē,
They flee.

2. *Iambic of two feet, or Dimeter :*

To me | the rose
No longer glows.

3. *Iambic of three feet, or Trimeter* ;

In pla | ces far | or near,
Or famous, or obscure.

4. *Iambic of four feet, or Tetrameter* ;

How sleep | the brave | who sink | to rest,
With all their country's honors blest.

5. *Iambic of five feet, or Pentameter* ;

On rif | ted rocks, | the drag | on's late | abodes,
The green reed trembles, and the bulrush nods.

6. *Iambic of six feet, or Hexameter* ;

For thou | art but | of dust ; | be hum | ble and | be wise.

NOTE.—The Iambic Pentameter is called the *Heroic*. The Iambic Hexameter is called the *Alexandrine*.

The Alexandrine is sometimes admitted into heroic rhyme, and, when used sparingly and with judgment, occasions an agreeable variety ;

The seas | shall waste, | the skies | in smoke | decay,
Rocks fall to dust, and mountains melt away ;
But fixed his word, his saving power remains ;
Thy realm | forev | er lasts, | thy own | Messi | ah reigns.

7. *Iambic of seven feet, or Heptameter* ;

The lof | ty hill | the hum | ble lawn | with count | less
beau | ties shine ;
The silent grove, the solemn shade, proclaim thy power
divine.

Each line is commonly divided into two ; thus,

The lofty hill, the humble lawn,
With countless beauties shine ;
The silent grove, the solemn shade,
Proclaim thy power divine.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. *Trochaic Monometer* ;

Chānging,
Ranging.

2. *Trochaic Dimeter* ;

Fancy | viewing,
Joys ensuing.

3. *Trochaic Trimeter* ;

Go where | glory | waits thee, |
But where fame elates thee.

4. *Trochaic Tetrameter* ;

Round a | holy | calm dif | fusing,
Love of peace, and lonely musing.

5. *Trochaic Pentameter* ;

All that | walk on | foot or | ride in | chariots,
All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. *Trochaic Hexameter* ;

On a | mountain | stretched be | neath a | hoary | willow,
Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.

In Trochaic verse, the accent is placed upon the odd syllable ; in Iambic verse, upon the even.

The Iambic verse admits of an additional short syllable ;

A Chieftain to the Highlands bound,
Cries boat | man do | not tar | ry.

The Trochaic admits of an additional long syllable ;

Where the | wood is | waving | green and | high,
Fawns and | Dryads | watch the | starry | sky.

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

1. *Anapestic Monometer* ;

On thẽ lãnd,
Now I stand ;
From the sea,
Now I'm free.

2. *Anapestic Dimeter* ;

On a plain, | as he strode,
By the hermit's abode.

3. *Anapaestic Trimeter* :

Oh ye woods, | spread your branch | es apace ;
 To your inmost recesses I fly ;
 I would hide with the beasts of the chase ;
 I would vanish from every eye.

4. *Anapaestic Tetrameter* :

At the close | of the day | when the ham | let is still ;
 And mortals the sweets of forgetfulness prove.

In Anapaestic verse, the accent falls on every third syllable. The first foot of Anapaestic verse may be an Iambus ;

— —
 And mor | tals the sweets | of forget | fulness | prove.

DACTYLIC VERSE.

1. *Dactylic Monometer* ;

Chēerfūllŷ,
 Teārfulŷ.

2. *Dactylic Dimeter* ;

Free from anx | iety.
 Care and sat | iety.

3. *Dactylic Trimeter* ;

Wearing a | way in his | youthfulness,
 Loveliness, beauty, and truthfulness.

4. *Dactylic Tetrameter* :

Boys will an | ticipate | lavish and | dissipate.
 All that your busy pate has hoarded with care.



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