J.W. Ellis.
Springfield.
V. T.
THE SCIENCE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

A

PRACTICAL GRAMMAR:

IN WHICH

WORDS, PHRASES, AND SENTENCES ARE CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THEIR OFFICES, AND THEIR RELATION TO EACH OTHER.

ILLUSTRATED BY

A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF DIAGRAMS.

"Speech is the body of thought."

BY S. W. CLARK, A. M.,

PRINCIPAL OF EAST BLOOMFIELD ACADEMY.

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PREFACE.

The Grammar of a Language, Quintilian has justly remarked, is like the foundation of a building; the most important part, although out of sight, and not always properly valued by those most interested in its condition.

In the opinion of many modern educators there is a tendency, on the part of all, to neglect this important branch of English Education—not so much from a conviction that the science is not important, as that there is a radical defect in the common method of presenting it to the attention of the scholar. This was the sentiment of the Author, when, some ten years since, he was called to the supervision of a Literary Institution in which was established a department for the education of Teachers. Accordingly, recourse was had to oral instruction; and for the convenience of teachers, a manuscript grammar was prepared, which embodied the principles of the science and the Author's mode of presenting it. These principles and this method have been properly tested by numerous and advanced classes during the seven years last past. The manuscript has, in the mean time, from continued additions unexpectedly grown to a book. It has received the favorable notice of teachers, and its publication has been, by teachers, repeatedly solicited. To these solicitations the Author is constrained to yield; and in the hope and belief that the work will "add to the stock of human knowledge," or at least tend to that result, by giving an increased interest to the study of the English Language, it is, with diffidence, submitted to the public.

In revising the work for publication, an effort has been made to render it simple in style, comprehensive in matter, adapted to the capacities of the younger pupil, and to the wants of the more advanced scholar. It is confidently believed that the Method of teaching Grammar herein suggested is the true method. The method adopted by most text-books, may be well suited to the wants of foreigners in first learning our language. They need, first, to learn our Alphabet—the powers and sounds, and the proper combinations of letters—the definition of words and their classifi-
cation according to definitions. But the American youth is presumed to know all this, and be able to catch the thought conveyed by an English sentence—in fine, to be able to use practically the language before he attempts to study it as a science. Instead, therefore, of beginning with the Alphabet, and wasting his energies on technical terms and ambiguous words, he should be required to deal with thought as conveyed by sentences. Accordingly, this introduction to the Science of Language begins with a Sentence, properly constructed, and investigates its structure by developing the offices of the words which compose it; making the office rather than the form of a word, determine the class to which it belongs.

As an important auxiliary in the analysis of Sentences, a system of Diagrams has been invented and introduced in the work. It is not claimed for the Diagrams that they constitute any essential part of the Science of Language—nor do Geometrical Diagrams constitute such a part of the Science of Geometry; Maps, of Geography; or figures, of Arithmetic. But it will not be denied that these are of great service in the study of those branches. Experience has established their importance.

Let, then, the use of Diagrams, reduced as they are here to a complete system, be adopted in the analyses of Sentences, and it is believed that teachers will confess that their utility is as obvious in the science of Language, as it is in the science of Magnitude; and for precisely the same reason, that an abstract truth is made tangible; the eye is permitted to assist the mind; the memory is relieved that the judgment may have full charter of all the mental powers.

Conscious that novelty, as such, should not bear sway in the investigations of Science, the Author has been careful, neither to depart from the ordinary method of presenting the Science, for the sake of novelty; nor, from dread of novelty, to reject manifest improvements. The old Nomenclature is retained, not because a better could not be proposed, but because the advantages to be gained would not compensate for the confusion necessarily consequent to such a change. But the terms purely technical have been introduced as a natural inference from facts previously deduced. Principles and Definitions are preceded by such Remarks as have fully established their propriety. The inductive method of arriving at truth has been followed throughout—with that it stands or falls.

East Bloomfield Academy,
October, 1847.
CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTORY EXERCISE .............................................. 5

DEFINITIONS ............................................................. 6
  { Language—Grammar—Letter—Word— Phrase—Sentence }

WORDS ........................................................ 9
  Classification ........................................... 9

PHRASES .......................................................... 10
  Classification ......................................... 10

SENTENCES ......................................................... 12
  Analysis ................................................. 12
  Classification ......................................... 20
  Adjuncts ................................................. 16

DIAGRAMS ..................................................... 18—36
  Rules for their use, and Exercises .................. 18—36

PART II.

SCIENCE OF THE LANGUAGE ........................................ 41
  { Orthography  Etymology
     Syntax  Prosody }

WORDS ........................................................ 41
  Classification .......................................... 41
  Modification .......................................... 41
  Their forms ........................................... 41
  Their uses ............................................. 43

NOUNS .......................................................... 43
  Classification .......................................... 43
  Modification .......................................... 44
  Gender .................................................. 44
  Person ................................................... 46
  Number ................................................... 46
  Case ..................................................... 49

PRONOUNS .................................................... 53
  Classification .......................................... 53
  Personal ................................................ 53
  Relative ............................................... 55
  Interrogative ......................................... 56
  Adjective ............................................... 56

ADJECTIVES ..................................................... 59
  Classification .......................................... 59
  Qualifying .............................................. 60
PART II.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES: 111

Exercises on the Chart: 116

Rules: Subject of a sentence: 130

Predicate: 134

Infinitive: 137

 Participles: 139

Object of a sentence: 143

Possessive Case: 146

Noun Case: 148

Personal: 158

Relative: 158

Interrogative: 159

Adjective: 159
## CONTENTS

### ADJUNCTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Position</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Numeral</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>In Predication</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Specifying</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Exclamations</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Euphony</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### GENERAL RULES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rules of Syntax—Recapitulation</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PART IV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prosody</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pauses</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Comma</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Semicolon—Colon</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Period—Dash</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Exclamation—Interrogation</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Signs—Grammatical and Rhetorical</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verse—Versification</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Figures of Speech</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### APPENDIX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Letters—Their forms—sizes—uses</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure of Words—Prefixes</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plural Forms of Foreign Words</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE ETYMOLOGICAL CHART.

(See page 110.)

This Chart presents, at one view, the entire etymology of the English language. It is useful chiefly in reviews and in etymological parsing.

The large edition of the Chart 44 inches diameter, may be used more profitably as, with it, the whole class may follow the reciting pupil—all having their attention directed to the same thing, at the same time. In the absence of a large Chart, the small ones may be used—each student using his own.

It will be noticed, that the Chart does not give the definitions of the classes and modifications of words; but simply presents the principles of etymology; showing, for example,

That a “Sentence” consists of “Principal Parts,” and may have “Adjuncts.” That the Principal Parts of a sentence must have a “Subject,” a “Predicate,” and (if Transitive) an “Object.” That the Subject may be a “Word,” a “Phrase,” or a “Sentence.” That if the Subject is a Word, it is a “Noun” or “Pronoun”—if a Noun, it is “Common” or “Proper”—if a Pronoun, it is “Personal,” “Relative,” “Interrogative,” or “Adjective.” That the Noun or Pronoun must be of the “Neuter,” “Feminine,” or “Masculine” Gender—of the “First,” “Second,” or “Third” Person—of the “Singular” or “Plural” Number—and that it must be in the “Nominative” Case.

If the Subject is a “Phrase,” it is a “Substantive” Phrase—and may be (in form) “Prepositional,” “Participial,” “Infinitive,” or “Independent”—and may be “Transitive” or “Intransitive.”

If the Subject is a “Sentence,” it is a “Substantive” Sentence—and may be “Simple” or “Compound,” “Transitive” or “Intransitive.”

Thus, a comparison of the Chart with the General Principles on page 111, will readily suggest to the skilful teacher the proper method of using it in review.

The proper use of the Chart in Etymological parsing, is illustrated by “Exercises,” p. 116.
INTRODUCTORY EXERCISE.

"God moves in a mysterious way,
His wonders to perform;
He plants his footsteps in the sea,
And rides upon the storm."

Quest. Who is the person concerning whom something is asserted in the lines above?

Ans. Something is said concerning "God."

What is said of God?

A. "God moves."

How does God move?

A. "In a mysterious way."

What way?

A. "Mysterious way."

What mysterious way?

A. "A mysterious way."

"God moves in a mysterious way"—why?

A. "His wonders to perform."

To perform what wonders?

A. "His wonders."

Concerning what is something more said?

A. Something more is said concerning "God."

Why do you think so?

A. Because, in this connection, "He" means God.

What is said concerning God?

A. "He plants."

He plants what?

A. "Footsteps."
THE ETYMOLOGICAL

(See page 110)

This Chart presents, at one view, the English language. It is useful in etymological parsing.

The large edition of the Chart may be used more profitably, as with it the reading pupil—all having the same thing, at the same time—may be taught more easily.

It will be noticed, that the conditions of the classes and modifications of the words represent the principles of etymology.

That a "Sentence" consists of "Subjuncts." That the Principal Parts of a "Predicate," and (if Transitive) be a "Word," a "Phrase," or a "Sentence." Word, it is a "Noun" or "Proper," or a "Proper—Prepound," if a Pronoun, it is "Subjective," or "Adjective." That the "Noun" is either "Feminine," or "Masculine." That the "Sentence"—Third" Person—of the "Subject" must be in the "Nominative," etc.

If the Subject is a "Phrase," the "Predicate" (in form) "Prepositional," or "Participle"—and may be "Transitive," or "Intransitive." If the Subject is a "Sentence," it may be "Simple" or "Compound." Thus, a comparison of page 111, will illustrate the proper method of using the "Subjuncts," presented by the Chart.
A. To tell what "He" does.
   Use of "his?"
A. To tell whose footsteps.
   Use of "footsteps?"
A. To tell what he plants.
   Use of "in the sea?"
A. To tell where "he plants his footsteps."
   Use of "the?"
A. To tell what sea.
   Use of "sea?"
A. As the name of the thing in which he plants his footsteps.
   Use of "and?"
A. To add a second thing which He does.
   Use of "rides?"
A. To tell what he does.
   Use of "upon the storm?"
A. To tell where he rides.
   Use of "the?"
A. To tell what storm.
   Use of "storm?"
A. As the name of the thing upon which he rides.

Remark.—The young Pupil has seen in this exposition of the four lines written above, that words have meaning, and that when they are properly put together, they convey the thoughts of the person who wrote them, to those who read them.

Again: As these and all other words have appropriate sounds attached to them, they may be spoken; and persons who hear them, may have the same thoughts that they would have on reading them.

It is plain, then, that one may, by speaking or by writing, (and sometimes by motions,) communicate his thoughts to others. The process by which this is done, is called Language.
LANGUAGE.

Definition 1. **Language** is the expression of thought and feeling.

**Remark.** It is customary to give to every science a name, by which it may be distinguished from other sciences; accordingly, people have agreed to call the science which treats of Language,

GRAMMAR.

**Def. 2.** **Grammar** is the Science of Language.

*English Grammar* is the Science which investigates the principles and determines the proper construction of the English Language.

It is also the Art of communicating thought by proper words.

**Rem.** Language consists in articulate sounds, represented by **Letters**, combined into **Words**, properly arranged in **Sentences**.

**Def. 3.** A **Letter** is a mark used to indicate a sound, or to modify the sound of another letter.

**Rem.** The science which treats of Letters, is called **Orthography**.

**Def. 4.** A **Word** is a combination of letters, used as the sign of an idea.

**Examples—** *God—mysterious—perform—wonders.*

**Rem.** Words are combined into **Phrases** and **Sentences**.

**Def. 5.** A **Phrase** is two or more words, properly arranged, not constituting a distinct proposition.

**Examples—** "In a mysterious way"—"Upon the storm."

**Rem.** Words constitute a Phrase, when they collectively perform a distinct, individual office.

**Def. 6.** A **Sentence** is an assemblage of words, so arranged as to express a fact.

**Examples—** "God moves in a mysterious way."

**Rem.** A Sentence always constitutes a distinct proposition.
A Word is a combination of letters, used as the sign of an idea.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

Remarks. In a Discourse, words are used
1. As names of persons, places, or things.
2. As substitutes for names or facts.
3. As qualifiers of names.
4. To assert a fact, i.e., an act, being, or state.
5. To modify an assertion or qualifier.
6. To express relations of things or thoughts.
7. To introduce—or connect words and sentences.
8. To express a sudden emotion.

Hence—in respect to their uses,

Principle. Words are distinguished as

1. Nouns,
2. Pronouns,
3. Adjectives,
4. Verbs,
5. Adverbs,
6. Prepositions,
7. Conjunctions, and
8. Exclamations.

Def. 7. A Noun is a word used as the name of a being, place, or thing.

Examples—God—man—sea—way—wonders.

Def. 8. A Pronoun is a word used for a noun

Examples—he—it—who—her—him—whom.

Def. 9. An Adjective is a word used to qualify or otherwise describe a noun or pronoun.

Examples—Mysterious [way]—His [wonders]—the [storm.]

Def. 10. A Verb is a word used to express an act, being, or state of a person or thing.

Examples—[God] moves—[He] plants.
Def. 11. An *Adverb* is a word used to modify the signification of a verb, an adjective, or another modifier.

**Examples**—[He writes] well—very [good boys.]

Def. 12. A *Preposition* is a word used to express a relation of other words to each other.

**Examples**—[moves] in [way]—[Books are] on [the table.]

Def. 13. A *Conjunction* is a word used to introduce a sentence, or to connect other words.

**Examples**—*And* [can I leave thee]—[Henry] *and* [Homer came.]

Def. 14. An *Exclamation* is a word used to express a sudden emotion.

**Examples**—*O!* [Liberty]—*Ah!* [the treasure.]

**Note.**—Words are often used for *rhetorical* purposes merely—having no direct, grammatical construction. Hence,

Def. 15. Words of *Euphony* are words used only for the sake of sound.

**Obs.**—They are used—

1. To render other words emphatic.

As, “John and Homer, and *even* Henry, came to the Lecture.”

“The moon *herself* is lost in heaven.”—*Ossian.*

2. To introduce a sentence—

As, “*Come,* pass along.” “Now *then,* we are prepared to take up the main question.” “*There* are no idlers here.”

3. To preserve the *Rhythm* in a line in poetry—

As, “I *sit me* down a pensive hour to spend.”

**PHRASES.**

A *Phrase* is two or more words properly arranged, not constituting a distinct proposition.

**CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASES.**

**Rem.**—Phrases are used as substitutes for nouns, adjectives, and adverbs: or, they are independent in their construction. Hence,
CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASES.

Prin. Phrases are distinguished as—

1. Substantive. 3. Adverbial.

Def. 16. A Substantive Phrase is a phrase used as the subject or object of a verb, or the object of a preposition.

Example—To obey God [is the highest duty of man.]

Def. 17. An Adjective Phrase is a phrase used to qualify a noun or pronoun.

Example—[The lips] of the wise [dispense knowledge.]

Def. 18. An Adverbial Phrase is a phrase used to modify the signification of a verb, adjective, or adverb.

Example—[God moves] in a mysterious way.

Def. 19. An Independent Phrase is a phrase not joined to any other word going before in construction.

Example—The hour having arrived, [we commenced the exercises.]

Prin.—By their forms, phrases are classified as—Prepositional, Infinitive, Participle, and Independent.

Def. 19, a.—A Prepositional Phrase is introduced by a preposition having a noun, or a word used for a noun, as its object of relation.

As, "In a mysterious way."

Def. 19, b.—An Infinitive Phrase is introduced by the preposition to, having a verb as its object of relation.

As, To love—to study—to be diligent.

Def. 19, c.—A Participle Phrase is introduced by a participle, and commonly has one or more adjuncts, or objects of an action.

As, Scaling yonder peak—wheeling near its brow.

Def. 19, d.—An Independent Phrase is introduced by a noun or pronoun followed by a participle depending upon it.

As, John having lost one lesson, the prize was given to Henry.
SENSENCES.

A sentence is an assemblage of words, so arranged as to express a fact.

ANALYSIS OF A SENTENCE.

Prin. A sentence is composed of—
1. The Principal parts.
2. The Adjuncts.

Def. 20. The principal parts of a sentence, are those words which are necessary to express the unqualified assertion.

Examples—God moves—He plants footsteps [and] rides.

Prin. The principal parts of a sentence, are—
The Subject, | The Predicate, | The Object.

Note.—Every sentence must have a subject and predicate, expressed or understood.

Def. 21. The Subject of a sentence, is that, concerning which something is asserted.

Obs. It is always a noun, or a word, phrase, or sentence, used for a noun. It may be—
1. A Word—as, God exists—knowledge is power—man lives—science promotes happiness—birds fly—John* saws wood.
2. A Phrase—To be, contents his natural desire—to do good, is the duty of all men—his being a minister, prevented his rising to civil power.
   "Compelling children to sit erect for a long time, is an evil practice."—Cutter.
3. A Sentence—"That all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."

Def. 22. The Predicate of a sentence, is the word or words that express what is affirmed of the subject.

Obs.—It is always a verb, and may have added to it another

* In the example, "John saws wood," John is the subject, because that word is the name of the person concerning whom something is asserted.
SENTENCES—ANALYSIS.

13

verb, a pronoun, a participle, an adjective, a noun, or a preposition.

1. A Verb only—John saws wood—God exists—birds fly—he rides—Animals run.
3. A Verb and a Participle—John was injured—the house is being built—the legions were bought and sold—James is improving.
4. A Verb and an Adjective—They looked beautiful—he became poor—soldiers waxed valiant—John is sleepy.
5. A Verb and a Noun—God is love—Friend is treasure.
6. A Verb and a Preposition—"Its idle hopes are o'er"—"the mountebank was laughed at."

Oss.—The logical predicate of a sentence properly includes the object; but in a treatise on Grammar, it is proper to treat of the object as a distinct part of the sentence.

Def. 23. The Object of a sentence, is the word or words on which the action, asserted by the predicate, terminates.

Oss.—It is always a noun, or a word, phrase, or sentence, used for a noun. It may be—

1. A Word—John saws wood—I have seen him—feed the hungry—"He saith among the trumpets, Ha! ha!"
2. A Phrase—I regret his being absent—his being a minister prevented his rising to civil power.
3. A Sentence—And God said, Let there be light—The fool hath said in his heart, There is no God—I thought I heard a voice cry, Sleep no more.

'Oss. 1.—A Prepositional Phrase always has an object of relation expressed or understood.

Examples—in a mysterious way—we are fond of walking—and of studying grammar—Boys love to skate—we love to please our parents.

Oss. 2.—When the object of relation is a transitive verb or a participle, it commonly has an object of an action.

Examples—we love to please our parents—we are fond of studying grammar.

Oss. 3.—A Participlal Phrase has an object of an action, when the participle is transitive.

Examples—Scaling yonder peak—Mr. Hammond, having acquired a fortune, has retired from business.

* "Saws" is the grammatical predicate of "John," because that word denotes the act of John. "Saws wood" is the logical predicate, because those two words express the complete proposition.

† In the example, "John saws wood," wood is the object of saws, because that word is the name of the thing on which the action expressed by "saws" terminates.
PART I.—SENTENCES—ANALYSIS.

EXAMPLES OF SENTENCES.

**Animals run.**

1.

| ANIMALS | RUN |

**Quest.** Concerning what is something here declared?
**Ans.** Something is declared concerning "animals."
**Q.** What is said of "animals?"
**A.** They "run."

**Q.** Those two words thus placed form what?
**A.** A sentence—for it is "an assemblage of words, so arranged as to assert a fact."

"Animals run."

**Q.** In this sentence, for what is the word "animals" used?
**A.** It is used to tell what "run."

**Q.** For what is the word "run" used?
**A.** To tell what "animals" do.

"Animals run."

"Every sentence must have a Subject and a Predicate."

**Q.** In this sentence what is the Subject?
**A.** "Animals"—for it is the name of the things "concerning which something is asserted."

**Q.** What is the Predicate?
**A.** "Run"—because it is the word that "expresses what is affirmed of the subject."

Let the pupil give an exposition of the following additional Examples.

| Birds fly. | Waters are running. |
| Fishes swim. | Mary is reading. |
| Horses gallop. | Winter has come. |
| Lightnings flash. | Resources are developed. |
| Thunders roll. | Corn is harvested. |
| Girls sing. | Wheat has been sown. |
| Boys play. | Mountains have been elevated |

Lessons should have been studied.
Recitations could have been omitted.
He might have been respected.

**Rem.**—In the last example, the four words, "might have been respected," constitute the Predicate of "he."
John is sleepy.

\[ \text{JOHN} \quad \text{IS} \quad \text{SLEEPY.} \]

A Sentence—because it is "an assemblage of words, so arranged as to assert a fact."

\textbf{Analysis.}

"John," is the subject—for it is the name of the person "concerning whom something is asserted."

"Is sleepy," is the predicate—for these two words "express what is affirmed of the subject."

\textbf{Rem.—} In a limited sense, a verb may be said to qualify or describe its subject.

\textbf{Examples—}

John sleeps.

Here "sleep" describes a condition of "John."

John is sleeping.

Here "is sleeping" asserts a condition of "John."

John is sleepy.

In this sentence, "is sleepy" asserts a condition as definitely as do the words, "is sleeping;" and the genius of the language requires the word "sleeping" to be added to the verb "is," in order to express the fact intended; so the other fact concerning "John" requires the word "sleepy" to be added to the verb "is." The sentence is not, sleeping John is—i.e. exists; nor is the other, sleepy John is—i.e. exists; but "John is sleeping," and "John is sleepy." "Sleeping" is a participle, in predication with "is." "Sleepy" is an adjective, in predication with "is."

Let the Pupil, in like manner, construe and place in Diagrams the following additional

\textbf{Examples.}

William is diligent. | Velvet feels smooth.
James was weary. | Robert has become poor.
Flowers are beautiful. | I felt languid.
Mountains are elevated. | Soldiers waxed valiant.

"His palsied hand wax'd strong."—Wilson.
"All earth-born cares are wrong."—Anon.
"The war is actually begun."—Henry.
"The rolling year is full of thee!"
"The very streams look languid from afar."
"The sun looked bright, the morning after."—Sterne.
"Vanity often renders man contemptible."

"When his weak hand grew palsied, and his eye

Dark with the mists of age, [it was his time to die.]"—Bryant.
God is Love.

3.

G O D I S L O V E.

A Sentence, - - - - See Definition 6.

ANALYSIS.

"God," the Subject, - - - See Definition 21.
"Is Love," the Predicate,* - See Definition 22.

Other Examples.

"We are slaves." Ye are benefactors.
"Man is miracle." We are friends.
Thou art Peter. Clouds are vapor.
Quadrupeds are beasts. Homer and Henry are students.

ADJUNCTS.

Rem.—If I say, Students deserve approbation, I make an "unqualified assertion"—applicable to all students, and to the approbation of all persons. But if I say, Diligent students deserve the approbation of their teacher, I speak only of a particular class of students—and of approbation, as limited to a particular source; for the word "student" is limited by the word "diligent;" and the word "approbation," by the word "the," and by the phrase "of their teacher." These words and phrases are necessary, not to make the sentence, but to perfect the sense; they are joined to other words, and are therefore called adjuncts.

Def. 24. An Adjunct is a word, phrase, or sentence, used to qualify or define another word, phrase, or sentence.

1. Word—"We were walking homeward." Whither?
2. Phrase—"We were walking toward home." Whither?
3. Sentence—"They kneeled before they fought." When?

Obs.—Some adjuncts are used to qualify the principal parts of a sentence, others to qualify other adjuncts. Hence,

Adjuncts are Primary and Secondary.

Def. 25. A Primary Adjunct is used to qualify one of the principal parts of a sentence.

* God is the name of a being—Love is a name of an attribute of that being. "Is Love," expresses a fact concerning God; and that fact cannot well be expressed without these two words thus combined.
**Examples**—The boy studies *diligently*—You have come *late*—"*Our national resources*"—John's book is lost.

**Def. 26.** A *Secondary Adjunct* is used to qualify another adjunct.

**Examples**—The boy studies *very* diligently—You have come *too* late.

**Obs.**—Adjuncts are adjectives or adverbs, or they are phrases and sentences used adjectively or adverbially.

**SENTENCES WITH THEIR ADJUNCTS.**

"*Our national resources are developed by an earnest culture of the arts of peace.*"

(4.)

---

**Quest.** Concerning what is an assertion here made?

**Ans.** Concerning "*resources.*"

What is asserted of "*resources?*

A. Resources "*are developed.*"

What resources are developed?

A. "*National*" resources.

What national resources?

A. "*Our*" national resources.

How are our national resources developed?

A. "*By an earnest culture of the arts of peace.*"

By what culture?

A. By "*earnest*" culture.

What earnest culture?

A. "*An*" earnest culture.

What *special* culture?

A. Culture "*of the arts of peace.*"

Of what arts?

A. "*The*" arts "*of peace.*"
In the above sentence what is the use of "Our?"  

Ans. To define some particular national resources.

" " national?" - - - - A. To tell what resources.
" " resources?" - - - A. " what are developed.
" " are developed?" - - A. " what is said of resources.
" " by an earnest culture of the arts of peace?" A. " how resources are developed.
" " an?" - - - - - A. " what earnest culture.
" " earnest?" - - - - A. " what culture.
" " of the arts of peace?" A. " what species of culture.
" " the?" - - - - - A. " what arts.
" " of peace?" - - - - A. " what species of arts.

Quest. What are the principal parts of this sentence?

Ans. "Resources are developed"—they "express the unqualified assertion."

What is the Subject?

A. "Resources"—it is the name of that, "concerning which something is affirmed."

What is the Predicate?

A. "Are developed"—they "express what is affirmed of the subject."

What are the Adjuncts of "resources?"

A. "Our" and "national."

What are the Adjuncts of "are developed?"

A. The complex phrase, "by an earnest culture of the arts of peace."

What are the Adjuncts of "culture?"

A. The words, "are," and "earnest," and the phrase, "of the arts of peace."

What are the Adjuncts of "arts?"

A. The word, "the" and the phrase, "of peace."

DIAGRAMS.

Prin. The office of a word in a sentence, determines its position in the diagram, according to the following

GENERAL RULES.

Rule 1. The principal parts of a sentence are placed uppermost, and on the same horizontal line; as 1, 2, 3.

2. The Subject of a sentence takes the first place; as 1.

3. The Predicate is placed to the right of the subject—attached; as 2—7—11—26.

4. The Object is placed to the right of the predicate; as 3.

The object of a phrase is placed to the right of the word which introduces the phrase; as 22 to the right of 21.

5. A word, phrase, or sentence, is placed beneath the word which it qualifies; as 4 and 5 qualify l,—(25, 26, x) qualify 22.

6. A word used to introduce a phrase, is placed beneath the word which the phrase qualifies—having its object to the right
and connecting both; as 15 connecting 12 and 16—21 connecting 3 and 22.

7. A word used only to connect, is placed between the two words connected; as 10 between 7 and 11; and a word used to introduce a sentence, is placed above the predicate of the sentence, and attached to it by a line; as 0 above 2.

8. A word relating back to another word, is attached to the antecedent by a line; as 6 attached to 1, and z to 22.

---

**Explanation of the preceding Diagram.**

0—Introduces a sentence, - - - - - Rule 7.

**Principal parts.**

1—Subject, - - - - - “ 2.

2—Predicate of 1, - - - - - “ 3.

3—Object of 2, - - - - - “ 4.

4 and 5 individually, and 6 to 19 inclusive, collectively, qualify or define 1, - - - - - “ 5.

6—Subject of 7 and 11, and relates to 1, - - - - - “ 2 and 8.

7—Predicate of 6, - - - - - “ 3.

8 and 9—Modify 7, - - - - - “ 5.

10—Connects 7 and 11, - - - - - “ 7.

11—Predicate of 6, - - - - - “ 3.

12—Object of 11, - - - - - “ 4.

13, 14, (15, 16, 17, 18, 19)—Qualify or define 12, “ 5.

20 and (21, 22, 23, 24)—Qualify or define 3, “ 5.

21—Shows a relation of 3 and 22, - - - - - “ 6.

22—Object of 21, - - - - - “ 4.

23, 24, (25, 26, z)—Qualify or define 22, - - - - - “ 5.

25—Subject of 26 - - - - - “ 2.

26—Predicate of 25, - - - - - “ 3.

z—Object (understood) of 26 and relating to 22, - - - - - “ 4 and 8.
CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

Rem.—Some sentences assert the *being*, *condition*, or *state*, of a person or thing—or an action which does not terminate on an object. Others assert an action which terminates on an object.

Some sentences assert but one fact; others, more. Some assert an independent, or a principal proposition; others, a secondary, or qualifying proposition. Hence,

**Prin.** Sentences are distinguished as—

- **Intransitive** or **Transitive**,  
- **Simple** or **Compound**,  
- **Principal** or **Auxiliary**.

**Def. 27.** An *Intransitive Sentence* asserts being, condition, or state—or an act which does not terminate on an object.

**Examples**—I am—William sleeps—James is weary—Animals run—Cora sings sweetly—God is Love.

**Obs.**—An Intransitive Sentence contains one or more subjects and predicates, but no object.

**Def. 28.** A *Transitive Sentence* asserts an act which terminates on an object.

**Examples**—Birds built nests—Bring flowers—John and Dennis saw wood—Jane studies Grammar and Botany—“The king of shadows loves a shining mark.”

**Obs.**—A Transitive Sentence has at least one subject, one predicate, and one object.

**Def. 29.** A *Simple Sentence* asserts but one proposition.

**Obs.**—It asserts but one fact concerning one person or thing. Hence, it contains but one subject, and one predicate, and (if transitive) one object.

**Examples**—Birds fly—John is studious—Resources are developed.

**Note.**—Two or more simple sentences, distinct in grammatical construction, may have a logical connection. Such a collection of sentences is properly called a Period.

“Wheat grows in the field—and men reap it.”

“A friend exaggerates a man’s virtues—an enemy his crimes.”

**Def. 30.** A *Compound Sentence* asserts two or more propositions.
Obs. — It asserts two or more facts concerning one or more persons or things.

As, Henry studies and recites grammar.

Or it asserts one or more facts concerning two or more persons or things.

As, Homer and Henry study grammar.

Or it asserts one act of one person or thing which terminates on two or more objects.

As, Henry studies grammar and arithmetic.

Hence, a compound sentence contains two or more subjects, or predicates, or objects.

Def. 30, a. — The parts of a compound sentence are called clauses.

Obs. — The compound clauses may be —

1. The subjects — As, Homer and Henry study grammar.
2. The predicates — Henry studies and recites grammar.
3. The objects — Henry studies grammar and arithmetic.

Rem. — Sentences which have compound predicates, often have objects applicable to only a part of them. Hence,

Def. 30, b. — A compound sentence having one or more transitive, and one or more intransitive clauses, is a Mixed Sentence.

Examples — Time slept on flowers, and lent his glass to Hope.

The stars will then lift up their heads and rejoice.

Note. — A compound sentence is not "a union of two or more simple sentences." "Wheat grows in the field, and men reap it." Here are two simple sentences, independent of each other, so far as the grammatical construction of them is concerned. The latter sentence is simply aided to the former — and its proximity alone determines the word for which the word "it" is substituted.

Nor is a compound sentence always "made up of parts of two or more simple sentences." Oxygen and Hydrogen form water. We may no say — Oxygen forms water and Hydrogen forms water; but as the two things, Oxygen and Hydrogen, must be joined chemically before they can form water, so the two words, "Oxygen" and "Hydrogen," must be joined in construction, before the "subject of the sentence" is complete.

A compound sentence has at least one member of one of the principal parts common to two or more members of another of the principal parts. [See Examples above.]
**Def. 31.** A *Principal Sentence* asserts an independent or principal proposition: as,

(8.)

"A mortal disease was upon her vitals."

**Def. 32.** An *Auxiliary Sentence* expresses a qualifying assertion: as,

(9.)

"A mortal disease was upon her vitals, before Caesar had passed the Rubicon."

**Note.**—An auxiliary sentence is an adjunct of a sentence, phrase, or word, going before in construction; or it is used as a substitute for a noun. Hence,

**Prin.** Auxiliary sentences are distinguished as *Substantive, Adjective, and Adverbial.*

**Def. 32, a.**—A *Substantive Sentence* is used as the subject or object of a verb: as,

(10.)

"That good men sometimes commit faults can not be denied."

"Much learning shows how little mortal know."

**Note.**—A sentence is sometimes used independently in construction, although explanatory of another: as,

"It echoed his text, Take heed how ye hear."

**Def. 32, b.**—An *Adjective Sentence* is used to qualify a noun or pronoun: as,

(11.)

"He that getteth wisdom, loveth his own soul."

**Def. 32, c.**—An *Adverbial Sentence* is used to modify the signification of a *Verb, Adjective, or Adverb,* as,

(12.)

"Where wealth and freedom reign, contentment fails."
Def. 33. A principal sentence, with its auxiliary sentences, constitutes a Complex sentence.

"He hears the thunder ere the tempest lowers."

[See Examples attached to Diagrams 9, 10, 11, and 12.]

1. "The king of shadows loves a shining mark."

(13.)

KING [LOVES] MARK.

A simple sentence—transitive, - - - See defs. 28 and 29.

ANALYSIS.

Principal parts.

- King—Subject, - - - " " 21.
- Loves—Predicate, - - - " " 22.
- Mark—Object, - - - " " 23.

Adjuncts.

- The, Of shadows \{ Adjuncts of king, " " 24.
- A, Shining \{ Adjuncts of mark, " " 24.

Let the construction of this sentence be written on the black-board.

Other Examples applicable to the same Diagram.

2. The science of Geology illustrates many astonishing facts.

Let the Analysis of this sentence be written on the black-board.

Construction.

Words. Use. Class. Def.

The, - - - limits "science."
Science, - - - agent of the action expressed by "illustrates."
Of, - - - expresses a relation of "science" and "geology."
Geology, - - object of the relation expressed by "of."
Illustrates, - expresses the action performed by "science."
Many, - - limits "facts."
Astonishing, qualifies "facts."
Facts, - - object of the action expressed by "illustrates."

3. A love for study secures our intellectual improvement.
4. The habit of intemperance produces much lasting misery.
5. A desire for improvement should possess all our hearts.
6. The use of tobacco degrades many good men.
7. A house on fire presents a melancholy spectacle.
8. A man of refinement will adopt no disgusting habit.

Let each pupil make a sentence adapted to the above diagram.
PART I.—SENTENCES—CLASSIFICATION.

1. "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth."

A compound sentence—transitive, Def.*

ANALYSIS.

Principal parts.

- God—Subject, "a"
- Created—Predicate, "a"
- Heaven, Earth [and] Objects, "a"
- In the beginning—Adjunct of created, "a"
- The—Adjunct of heaven, "a"
- The—Adjunct of earth, "a"

Construction.

Words. Use. Class. Def.
In, - expresses a relation of "created" and "beginning," Prep., 12. The, - limits "beginning," - - - - - - Adj., 9.
Beginning, object of relation expressed by "in," - - - Noun, 7.
God, - agent of the action expressed by "created," - Noun, 7.
Created, - expresses the action performed by "God," - Verb, 10.
The, - limits "heaven," - - - - - Adj., 9.
Heaven, object of action expressed by "created," - Noun, 7.
And, - connects "heaven" and "earth," - - Conj. 13.
The, - limits "earth," - - - - - Adj., 9.
Earth, - object of action expressed by "created," - Noun, 7.

2. He educated his daughter and his son, at great expense.
3. Students require of the teacher, much instruction and some patience.
4. We, at all times, seek our honor and our happiness.
5. God, in the creation, has displayed his wisdom and his power.
6. Men gather the tares and the wheat, with equal care.
7. John loves his study and his play, with equal attachment.

* Let the pupil repeat these definitions.
"The Lord uplifts his awful hand
And chains you to the shore."

(15.)

Compound sentence—transitive.

ANALYSIS.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Principal parts.} & \quad \{ \text{Lord—Subject of "uplifts" and "chains."} \\
& \quad \{ \text{Uplifts} \} \quad \{ \text{Predicates of "Lord."} \\
& \quad \{ \text{And} \} \} \quad \{ \text{Chains} \} \\
& \quad \{ \text{Hand—Object of "uplifts."} \\
& \quad \{ \text{You—Object of "chains."} \\
& \quad \{ \text{The—Adjunct of "Lord."} \\
& \quad \{ \text{His} \} \} \quad \{ \text{Adjuncts of "hand."} \\
& \quad \{ \text{Awful} \} \} \quad \{ \text{To the shore—Adjunct of "chains."} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Other examples, in which the Principal Parts are the same.

Let the pupil place in diagrams, the following sentences:

"He heard the king's command, And saw that writing's truth."

"For misery stole me at my birth, And cast me helpless on the wild."

"Then weave the chaplet of flowers and strew the beauties of nature about the grave."

"They fulfilled the great law of labor in the letter, but broke it in the spirit."

"That the page unfolds And spreads us to the gaze of God and men."

"Now twilight lets her curtain down, And pins it with a star."

"He marks, and in heaven's register enrolls, The rise \textit{and} progress of each option there."

Remark.—The last example differs from the others. Let the pupil tell wherein.
Temperance and frugality promote health, and secure happiness.

(16.)

Temperance & Promote & Health

Frugality & Secure & Happiness.

A compound sentence—transitive.

ANALYSIS.

Principal parts.

Temperance [and] Subjects of "promote" and "secure."
Frugality Promote [and] Predicates of "temperance" and "frugality."
Secure Health—Object of "promote."
Happiness—Object of "secure."

Note.—If I say—"Temperance promotes health and frugality secures happiness," I make two distinct sentences—each "simple." But the "and" may be taken from between "temperance" and "frugality," and placed between "health" and "happiness," and it remains a compound sentence. It will then read thus—"Temperance promotes, and frugality secures, health and happiness;"—and is thus construed:

Temperance—Subject of "promotes."
Promotes—Predicate of "temperance."
Frugality—Subject of "secures."
Secures—Predicate of "frugality."
Health [and] Objects of "secures" and "promotes."
Happiness

"There youth and beauty tread the choral ring,
And shout their raptures to the cloudless skies."

"Prayer only, and the penitential tear,
Can call her smiling down and fix her here."—Cowper.

Note to the Teacher.—The Author suggests that the Teacher give to each Pupil, a sentence to be placed in Diagram, and presented for inspection and criticism, at a subsequent recitation. It is believed that this practice, repeated every day, will be an agreeable and profitable exercise.
"Wisdom and virtue elevate and ennable man."

"The toils and cares of life torment the restless mind."

"Passion degrades and brutalizes man."

*A compound sentence—transitive; having two subjects, one predicate, and one object.

**ANALYSIS.

Principal parts.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Toils} & \quad \text{Subjects of "torment."} \\
\text{[and]} & \\
\text{Cares} & \\
\text{Torment—Predicate of "toils [and] cares."} \\
\text{Mind—Object of "torment."} \\
\text{The} & \\
\text{Of life} & \quad \text{Adjuncts of "toils and cares."} \\
\text{The} & \\
\text{Restless} & \quad \text{Adjuncts of "mind."} \\
\end{align*}
\]

† A compound sentence—transitive—having one subject, two predicates, and one object.

**ANALYSIS.

Principal parts.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Passion—Subject of "degrades and brutalizes."} \\
\text{Degrades} & \quad \text{Predicates of "Passion."} \\
\text{[and]} & \\
\text{Bratalizes} & \\
\text{Man—Object of "degrades and brutalizes."} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Miscellaneous Examples, having their Principal Parts adapted to Diagram a, b, or c, Fig. 17.

"Pride and envy accompany and strengthen each other."

"Illuminated Reason and regulated Liberty shall once more exhibit man in the image of his Maker."

"Here Art and Commerce, with auspicious reign, 
Once breathed sweet influence on the happy plain."

"For Hopes too long delayed,
And Feelings blasted or betrayed,
Its fabled Bliss destroy."

"Patience and perseverance will surmount or remove the most formidable difficulties."
"Then Strife and Faction rule the day,
And Pride and Avarice through the way;
Loose Revelry and Riot bold,
In freighted streets their orgies hold."

"The hunter's trace and the dark encampments started the wild beasts from their lairs."

"Thy praise the widow's sighs, and orphan's tears embalm."

"Their names, their years, spilled by the unlettered muse,
The place of fame and elegy supply."—Gray.

"Hence, every state, to one loved blessing prone,
Conforms and models life to that alone."

"Hope, like a cordial, innocent though strong,
Man's heart at once inspirits and serenes."—Young.

"For which we shunned and hated thee before."

"By thus acting, we cherish and improve both."

"When mighty Alfred's piercing soul
Pervades and regulates the whole."

"Knowledge reaches, or may reach, every home."

"Whose potent arm perpetuates existence or destroys."

Hill and valley echo back their songs.

"He tossed not high his ready cap in air,
Nor lifted up his voice in servile shouts,
At sight of that great ruffian."

Unnumbered systems, suns, and worlds,
unite to worship thee.

A compound sentence—intransitive; containing three subjects and one predicate.

ANALYSIS.

Principal parts.
{Systems,}
{Suns, [and]}
{Worlds,}

{Unite—Predicate of "systems, suns, and worlds."}

Unnumbered—Adjunct of "systems, suns, and worlds."

To worship thee—Adjunct of "unite."

"The lame, the blind, and the aged repose in hospitals."
"They kneeled before they fought."

(19.)

**T**H**E**Y  **K**N**E**E**L**E**D**

BEFORE

**T**H**E**Y  **F**O**U**G**H**T**.

*Complex sentence.*—Def. 33.

**ANALYSIS.**

*Principal sentence.*
- They—Subject of "kneeled."
- Kneeled—Predicate of "they."

*Adjunct sentence.*
- Before
- They
- Fought

Before—Introduces a qualifying sentence.
They—Subject of "fought."
Fought—Predicate of "they."

Let each pupil make a sentence for the above diagram.

(20.)

"He hears the thunder ere the tempest lowers."

*A complex sentence.*—Def. 33.

**ANALYSIS.**

*Principal parts.*
- He—Subject of "hears."
- Hears—Predicate of "he."
- Thunder—Object of "hears."
- The—Adjunct of "thunder."

*Adjuncts.*
- Ere the tempest lowers—Adjunct of "hears."
- Ere—Introduces a qualifying sentence.

*Auxiliary sentence.*
- Tempest—Subject of "lowers."
- Lowers—Predicate of "tempest."
- The—Adjunct of "tempest."

**Examples applicable to Diagram (19) or (20), with the addition of Adjuncts.**

While they triumph, they expire.
While we tarried, they slept. If we fail, you perish.
"And when its yellow lustre smiled,
   O'er mountains yet untrod,
Each mother held aloft her child,
   To bless the bow of God."
   "We range us in line
As the voice of the trumpet is calling."

"The virtue still adorns our age,
Though the chief actor died upon the stage."

"He spread an open countenance, where smiles.
The fair effulgence of an open heart."

"It will, through latest time, enrich your race,
When grossest wealth shall moulder into dust"

"Heaves my heart with strong emotion,
While I go far hence to dwell."—Smith.

"Pray I cannot, though inclination
Be as sharp as 'twill."

"Too low they build, who build beneath the stars."

YOUNG.

A complex sentence—both simple and intransitive.

ANALYSIS.

Principal parts. They—Subject of "build."
Build—Predicate of "they."
Low—Adjunct of "build."

Adjuncts. Too—Adjunct of "low."
Who build beneath the stars—Adjunct of "they."

Principal parts. Who—Subject of "build."
Build—Predicate of "who."

Auxiliary sentence. Beneath stars—Adjunct of "build."
The—Adjunct of "stars."
"But they that fight for freedom, undertake<br>The noblest cause mankind can have at stake."

A complex sentence.

**Analysis.**

**Principal parts.**
- They—Subject of "undertake."
- Undertake—Predicate of "they."
- Cause—Object of "undertake."
- That fight for freedom—Adjunct of "they."

**Adjuncts.**
- The
- Noblest
- [that] mankind can have at stake

**Construction.**

- But, *introduces an additional sentence.*
- They, *agent of action expressed by "undertake,"
- That, *agent of action expressed by "fight,"
- Fight, *expresses the action performed by "that,"
- For, *expresses a relation of "fight" and "freedom,"
- Freedom, *object of relation expressed by "for,"
- Undertake, *expresses the action of "they,"
- The, *limits "cause,"
- Noblest, *qualifies "cause,"
- Cause, *object of the action expressed by "undertake,"
- X, [that], *object of "can have"—referring to "cause,"
- Mankind, *agent of action expressed by "can have,"
- Can have, *expresses an action of "mankind,"
- At, *expresses a relation of "can have" and "stake,"
- Stake, *object of relation expressed by "at,"

Let each pupil make a sentence for the above diagram.

And students who love to study, merit the highest honors which teachers can give them.
Our proper bliss depends on what [that which] we blame.

(23.)

A Complex sentence—the Auxiliary quantifies a phrase.

Bliss—Subject of "depends."
Depends—Predicate of "bliss."
Our Proper 
On what we blame—Adjunct of "depends."
On—Expresses a relation of "depends" and "what."
What 
What [That]—Object of relation expressed by "on."
What [Which]—Object of action expressed by "blame."
We—Subject of "blame."
Blame—Predicate of "we."

Let sentences be made for the above diagrams.

"God never meant, that man should scale the heavens
By strides of human wisdom."—Cowper.

(24.)

A complex sentence—the Auxiliary the logical object of the Principal.

Let the Analysis of this sentence be written on the black-board.
"Time slept on flowers and lent his glass to hope."

A mixed sentence.—Def. 30, b.

**ANALYSIS.**

- **Principal parts.**
  - Time—Subject of "slept" and "lent."
  - Slept
  - Lent
- **Predicates of "time."**
  - On flowers—Adjunct of "slept."
  - Glass—Object of "lent."
- **Adjuncts.**
  - His—Adjunct of "glass."
  - To hope—Adjunct of "lent."

Let the pupil apply the following sentences to the same diagram.

1. We sigh for change, and spend our lives for nought.
2. We shall pass from earth, and yield our homes to others.
3. William goes to school, and pursues his studies with diligence.
4. James stays at home, and spends his time at play.
5. Fruits ripen in autumn, and yield us rich repasts.
6. Eagles build their nests on high, and watch for prey.
7. Larks sing at dawn, and afford us much delight.

**Vary the Adjuncts for the following.**

"For spring shall return and a lover bestow."—Beattie.
"But the black blast blows hard,
And puffs them wide of hope."
"Wreaths of smoke ascend through the trees, and betray the half hidden cottage."
"Its little joys go out, one by one,
And leave poor man, at length, in perfect night."
"In silence majestic they twinkle on high,
And draw admiration from every eye."
"The waves mount up and wash the face of heaven."
“For the angel of death spread his wings on the blast,
And breathed in the face of the foe as he passed.”

A mixed sentence—complex.—Def. 30, b. and 33.

ANALYSIS.

Principal parts.

Angel—Subject of “spread and “breathed.”
Spread [and] Predicates of “angel.”
Breathed
Wings—Object of “spread.”
The Of death Adjuncts of “angel.”
His—Adjunct of “wings.”
On the blast—Adjunct of “spread.”
In the face of the foe Adjuncts of “breathed.”
As he passed

Adjuncts.

As—Introduces an auxiliary sentence.
He—Subject of “passed.”
Passed—Predicate of “he.”

Let the principal parts of the same diagram be written on the black-board, and vary the adjuncts to the following sentences.

“He plants his footsteps in the sea,
And rides upon the storm.”

The ravished eye casts its glance around on every side, and is never satisfied with gazing.

“That I might explore the records of remote ages, and become familiar with the learning and literature of other times.”

Taylor.

“But now a wave, high rising o’er the deep,
Lifts its dire crest—and, like a vengeful fiend,
Comes as a mountain on.”

“He leaps enclosures, bounds into the world.”—Young.

“By that dread name, we wave the sword on high,
And swear for her to live—with her to die.”

“The moon in the east, now her crescent displays,
And adds to the grandeur of night.”
"And the eyes of the sleepers waxed deadly and chill."

(27.)

\[
\text{E Y E S} \quad \text{D E A D L Y}
\]

\[
\text{W A X E D} \quad \& \quad \text{C H I L L.}
\]

The \text{OF} \text{SLEEPER} \text{OF} \text{THE} \text{THE}

\text{Compounding sentence—intransitive.}

\text{ANALYSIS.}

\text{Principal} \begin{cases} \text{Eyes—Subject of "waxed deadly [and] chill."} \\ \text{parts.} \begin{cases} \text{Waxed deadly [and] chill—Predicate of "eyes."} \\ \text{The} \\ \text{Of the sleepers} \end{cases} \end{cases}

\text{Adjuncts.} \begin{cases} \text{Adjuncts of "eyes."} \end{cases}

\text{Construction.}

And, \quad \text{introduces an additional sentence,} \quad \text{Conj., 13.} \\
\text{The,} \quad \text{limits "eyes,"} \quad \text{Adj., 9.} \\
\text{Eyes,} \quad \text{agent of "waxed deadly [and] chill,"} \quad \text{Noun, 7.} \\
\text{Of,} \quad \text{expresses relation of "eyes" [and] "sleepers,"} \quad \text{Prep., 12.} \\
\text{The,} \quad \text{limits "sleepers,"} \quad \text{Adj., 9.} \\
\text{Sleepers, object of relation expressed by "of,"} \quad \text{Noun, 7.} \\
\text{Waxed, expresses (with "deadly [and] chill") what is affirmed of "eyes,"} \quad \text{Verb, 10.} \\
\text{Deadly, used in predication with waxed,} \quad \text{Adj., 9.} \\
\text{And,} \quad \text{connects "deadly" [and] "chill,"} \quad \text{Conj. 13.} \\
\text{Chill,} \quad \text{used in predication with waxed,} \quad \text{Adj., 9.}

\text{Additional Examples.}

"Age is dark and unlovely."—Ossian.
"Now, therefore, be not grieved nor angry with yourselves."
"Bloodless are these limbs and cold."—Byron.
"How finely diversified, and how multiplied into many thousand distinct exercises, is the attention of God."—Chalmers.
"I am perplexed and confounded."
"They became agitated and restless."
"The wares of the merchant are spread abroad in the shops, or stored in the high-piled warehouses."
"Rude am I in speech, and little blest
With the set phrase of peace."
"What bark is plunging 'mid the billowy strife,
And dashing madly on to fearful doom."
Diagrams of the Principal Parts of Simple, Compound, and Complex Sentences.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

SUBJECT  PREDICATE  Intransitive—having one Subject, one Predicate.

SUBJECT  PREDICATE  OBJECT  Transitive—having one Subject, one Predicate, one Object.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

C  Intransitive—two Subjects, one Predicate

D  Intransitive—one Subject, two Predicates.

E  Transitive—one Subject, two Predicates, two Objects.

F  Transitive—two Subjects, two Predicates, one Object.

G  Transitive—two Subjects, two Predicates, two Objects.

H  Transitive—two Subjects, one Predicate, two Objects.

I  Transitive—two Subjects, one Predicate, one Object.

J  Transitive—one Subject, two Predicates, one Object.

K  Transitive—one Subject, one Predicate, two Objects.

MIXED SENTENCES.

L  First Clause, Intransitive; Second, Transitive.

M  First Clause, Transitive; Second, Intransitive.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

N  The Auxiliary sentence Substantive Subject of the Principal sentence.

O  The Auxiliary sentence Substantive Object of the Principal sentence.

P  Principal sentence, Simple, Intransitive.

Auxiliary sentence, Simple, Transitive, Adverbial.
**SENTENCES—EXAMPLES.**

**Q.**
Principal sentence, Simple, Transitive.

Auxiliary sentence, Simple, Transitive, Adjective.

**EXAMPLES OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.**

**Rem.**—Let the pupil write the Diagram for each sentence on the black-board and insert the words in the proper places.

Blessed are the poor in spirit,
for theirs is the kingdom of heaven.

Blessed are they that mourn,
for they shall be comforted.

Blessed are the meek,
for they shall inherit the earth.

Blessed are they which do hunger and thirst
after righteousness, for they shall be filled.

Blessed are the pure in heart,
for they shall see God.

Blessed is the man that endureth temptation,
for, when he is tried,
he shall receive the crown of life,
which the Lord hath promised
to them that love him.

**OTHER EXAMPLES, IN WHICH THE AUXILIARY SENTENCE IS SUBSTANTIVE.**

"That I have taken this old man's daughter, is most true."

"As they sat down, one said to his friend at his right, 'We shall soon see who is who.'"

"We bustle up with unsuccessful speed,
And in the saddest part, cry—'Droll indeed.'"

"Then Agrippa said unto Paul, Almost thou persuadest me to be a Christian."

"A celebrated writer says—'Take care of the minutes and the hours will take care of themselves.'"

**AUXILIARY SENTENCE—ADJECTIVE.**

"There is something in their hearts which passes speech."

"I heard the complaints of the laborers who had reaped down
his fields, and the cries of the poor whose covering he had taken away."

"The difference in the happiness which is received or bestowed by the man who guards his temper, and that by the man who does not, is immense."

**AUXILIARY SENTENCE—ADVERBIAL.**

And, as I passed along, I heard the complaints of the laborers.

"The sweet remembrance of the just,
Shall flourish when he sleeps in dust."

"But when he caught the measure wild,
The old man raised his head, and smiled."

"And when [he was] listening to this, he would often clasp his hands in ecstasy of delight."

"Their advancement in life and in education was such that each ought to have been a gentleman."

"As they sat down, one said to his friend on his right, 'We shall soon see who is who.'"

"If you would know the deeds of him who chews,
Enter the house of God, and see the pews."

*Adams.*

**PROMISCUOUS EXAMPLES.**

Virtue secures happiness.

"Darkness is o'er the land—
For lo! a death-flag streams upon the breeze—
The Hero hath departed!"

"Nay, let us weep. Our grief hath need of tears—
Tears should embalm the dead.

* * * * * * * * *

Throned in a nation's love he sunk to sleep,
And so awoke in heaven."—Mrs. Stevens.

"The perfect world, by Adam trod,
Was the first temple—built by God:
His fiat laid the corner-stone,
And heaved its pillars one by one.

"He hung its starry roof on high—
The broad, illimitable sky;
He spread its pavement green and bright,
And curtained it with morning light."
1. "A man of refinement never has recourse to proverbs and vulgar aphorisms."

2. "Across the ocean, came a pilgrim bark."

3. The bark of the trunk of the white oak is frequently variegated with large black spots.

4. The wood of the young stocks is very elastic, and is susceptible of minute divisions.

5. "The flowers put forth in the month of May."

6. "Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne
   In rayless majesty, now stretches forth
   Her leaden sceptre o'er a slumbering world."

7. "Vulgarism in language, is a distinguishing characteristic of bad company, and a bad education."

8. "The wood of the Silver Fir is not much used as timber." — Goodrich.

9. "The Hemlock Spruce is not much esteemed for timber."

10. "Milton's learning has all the effect of intuition."

11. "His imagination has the force of nature."

12. "Heaven, from all creatures, hides the book of fate."

13. "And as Jesus passed by, he saw a man who was blind."

14. "If a noble squire had conducted himself well, during the period of his service, the honor of Knighthood was generally conferred upon him at the age of twenty."

15. "Another bright day's sunset bathes the hills
   That gird Samaria."

16. "One glance of wonder, as we pass, deserve
   The books of Time."

17. "A fretful temper will divide
   The choicest knot that may be tied,
   By ceaseless, sharp corrosion.

18. A temper, passionate and fierce,
    May suddenly your joys disperse
    At one immense explosion."
Def. 35. A word formed from a Radical, by prefixing or adding one or more letters to it, is a Derivative Word.

Examples—Manly—enjoy—joyous—enact—active—conform.

Def. 36. A word that may be used separately from another word, is a Simple Word.

Examples—Man—money—board—stand—maker—ink.

Def. 37. A word made of two or more words combined, is a Compound Word.

Examples—Money-maker—ink-stand—black-board.

Prin. Particles used in forming Derivative Words, are Prefixes and Suffixes.

Def. 38. One or more letters placed before a word, is a Prefix.

Examples—Inform—conform—amend—bedew—unbind.

Def. 39. One or more letters added to a word, is a Suffix.

Examples—Forming—mended—dewy—active—joyous—manly.

Prin. Prefixes and Suffixes are Simple or Compound.

Examples of Simple.

Prefixes.  
extend—define—conform—  | brutal—feeling—acted—  
amend—instruct—collect.  | manly—harmonize—wilful.

Suffixes.

Compound.

coeextend—unconform—  | brutality—feelingly—
preinstruct—recollect.  | manfully—harmonizing.

Prefixes and Suffixes.

affection—commotion—confutation—collective
information—counteracted—unwilling—defamation
preconcerted—unconformable—transubstantiation.

Prin. The Radicals of Derivative Words are Separable or Inseparable.

Def. 40. A Separable Radical constitutes a perfect word without the aid of Prefixes or Suffixes.

Examples—Man—form—feel—brute—will—joy.

Def. 41. An Inseparable Radical is not used as a word in the language, without the aid of its prefix or suffix.

Examples—pose  | fact  | fute  | lect
compose  | affect | refute | collect
composition | affected | refutation | collection

Note.—For Derivation of Words and a list of Prefixes and Suffixes, see Appendix, Note B.
II.—THE USES OF WORDS.

Prin. By their uses words are distinguished as,

Nouns, | Adverbs,
Pronouns, | Prepositions,
Adjectives, | Conjunctions,
Verbs, | Exclamations, and
Words of Euphony.

NOUNS.

Def. 42. A Noun is a word used as the name of a being, place, or thing.

Obs. Nouns are names of—
1. material things—as, man—book—apple; or,
2. of ideas or things not material—as, mind—hope—desire—passion.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

Remark.—Some nouns are appropriated to individual persons or places, or to things personified; others are general in their application, being used to designate classes or sorts. Hence,

Prin. Nouns are distinguished as Proper and Common.

Def. 43. A name, appropriated to an individual person or place, or to a thing personified, is a Proper Noun.

Examples—William—Boston—Hudson—Oregon.

Def. 44. A name used to designate one or more of a class or sort of beings or things, is a Common Noun.


Obs. 1.—A Common Noun is a name by which the individuality of a being or thing is designated. But, in addition to this office, some nouns are the names of qualities.

Def. 44, a.—Such are properly called Abstract Nouns.

Examples—Goodness—excellence—rashness—moderation.
Obs. 2.—Some nouns include many individuals in one term. Def. 44, b.—Such are called Collective Nouns. Examples—Committee—army—company—fraternity.

Obs. 3.—Some nouns are derived from verbs, and constitute merely the names of acts. Def. 44, c.—Such are called Verbal Nouns. Examples—[In the] beginning—["the] triumphing [of the wicked."]

Rem.—The classification of nouns as Common and Proper, is one rather of curiosity than of practical utility in the Science of Language.

MODIFICATION OF NOUNS.

Rem.—Some nouns and pronouns, by their form, by their position in a sentence, or by their obvious uses, indicate—
1. The sex—as male or female, or neither.
2. The speaker, the being addressed, or the being or thing spoken of.
3. The number of beings or things—as one or more.
4. The condition, with regard to other words in the sentence—as,
   (1.) The Subject of a sentence.
   (2.) The Object of a sentence or phrase.
   (3.) Independent in construction. Hence,

Prin. Nouns are modified by Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

GENDER.

Def. 45. Names of males are of the Masculine Gender. Examples—man—lion—ox—king—brother—preceptor

Def. 46. Names of females are of the Feminine Gender.

Examples—woman—lioness—cow—queen—sister—preceptoress.

Def. 47. Names of things without sex are said to be of the Neuter Gender.

Obs. 1.—Strict propriety will allow the names of animals only to be modified by gender.

Obs. 2.—Young animals and infants are not always distinguished by gender: as, "Mary's kitten is very playful—it is quite a pet with the whole family."
   "Calm as an infant as it sweetly sleeps."
NOUNS—MODIFICATION.

Obs. 3.—Things personified are often represented by pronouns of the masculine or feminine gender.

Examples—"Then Fancy her magical pinions spread wide."
"Time slept on flowers, and lent his glass to Hope."
"For the Angel of Death spread his wings on the blast,
And breathed in the face of the foe as he pass'd."

Obs. 4.—Many nouns which denote the office or condition of persons, and some others, are not distinguished by gender.

Examples—Parent—cousin—friend—neighbor.

Obs. 5.—Whenever words are used which include both males and females, without having a direct reference to the sex, the word appropriated to males, is commonly employed.

Examples—"The proper study of mankind is man."
"There is no flesh in man's obdurate heart—
It does not feel for man."

But to this rule there are exceptions—as, geese—ducks.

Prin. The gender of nouns is determined
1. By the termination; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masc.</th>
<th>Fem.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor,</td>
<td>Actress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator, Administratrix.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author,</td>
<td>Authoress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governor,</td>
<td>Governess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heir,</td>
<td>Heiress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host,</td>
<td>Hostess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hero,</td>
<td>Heroine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jew,</td>
<td>Jewess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lion,</td>
<td>Lioness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masc.</td>
<td>Fem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patron,</td>
<td>Patroness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prince,</td>
<td>Princess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protector,</td>
<td>Protectress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shepherd,</td>
<td>Shepherdess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Songster,</td>
<td>Songstress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiger,</td>
<td>Tigress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutor,</td>
<td>Tutoress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailor,</td>
<td>Tailoress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widower,</td>
<td>Widow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. By different words; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masc.</th>
<th>Fem.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor,</td>
<td>Maid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beau,</td>
<td>Belle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy,</td>
<td>Girl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother,</td>
<td>Sister.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drake,</td>
<td>Duck.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father,</td>
<td>Mother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friar,</td>
<td>Nun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masc.</td>
<td>Fem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband,</td>
<td>Wife.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King,</td>
<td>Queen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lad,</td>
<td>Lass.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lord,</td>
<td>Lady.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man,</td>
<td>Woman.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master,</td>
<td>Mistress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nephew,</td>
<td>Niece.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. By prefixing or affixing other words.

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Masc.} & \text{Fem.} \\
\text{Man-servant,} & \text{Maid-servant.} \\
\text{He-goat,} & \text{She-goat.} \\
\text{Cock-sparrow,} & \text{Hen-sparrow.} \\
\text{Landlord,} & \text{Landlady.} \\
\text{Gentleman,} & \text{Gentlewoman.} \\
\end{array}
\]

**Note.**—In the English language, less importance is attached to the gender of nouns than in the Latin, Greek, and other languages—the relation of words in sentences depending more upon position and less upon the terminations. Hence, in parsing Nouns and Pronouns, the gender need not be mentioned, unless they are obviously masculine or feminine.

**PERSON.**

**Rem.**—All nouns are the names of
1. The persons speaking.
2. The persons or things addressed. Or,
3. The persons or things spoken of. Hence,

**Prin.** Nouns and pronouns are of the **First Person, Second Person, or Third Person.**

**Def. 48.** The name of the person speaking is of the **First Person.**

**Examples**—"I, John, saw these things." "We Athenians are in fault."

**Def. 49.** The name of a person or thing addressed is of the **Second Person.**

**Examples.**
"Father, thy hand
Hath reared these venerable columns; thou
Didst weave this verdant roof."

**Def. 50.** The name of the person or thing spoken of is of the **Third Person.**

**Examples**—"The hero hath departed." "Honor guides his footsteps."

**NUMBER.**

**Rem.**—Nouns by their form denote individuality or plurality. Hence,

**Prin.** Nouns are distinguished as **Singular and Plural.**
Def. 51. Nouns denoting but one are of the Singular Number.


Def. 52. Nouns denoting more than one are of the Plural Number.

Examples—Men—boys—pens—books—mice—oxen.

Obs.—The Number of a noun is usually determined by the form.

1. The Plural of most nouns differs from the Singular by having an additional s.

Examples.

Singular.—Act, egg, book, mastiff, pen, chair.
Plural.—Acts, eggs, books, mastiffs, pens, chairs.

2. But a noun whose Singular form ends in s, ss, sh, x, ch (soft), and some nouns in c and y, form the Plural by the addition of es.

Examples.

Singular.—Gas, lynx, church, lash, glass, hero.
Plural.—Gases, lynxes, churches, lashes, glasses, heroes.

3. Y final, after a consonant, is changed into ie (the original orthography), and s is added.

Examples.

Singular.—Lady, folly, quality.
Old Form.—Ladie, follie, qualitie.
Plural.—Ladies, follies, qualities.

4. Many nouns ending in f or fe, change f into ves.

Examples.

Singular.—Life, wife, leaf, sheaf, half.
Plural.—Lives, wives, leaves, sheaves, halves.

To this rule there are exceptions.

5. Irregular Plurals.

Examples.

Singular.—Man, child, foot, ox, mouse.
Plural.—Men, children, feet, oxen, mice.

6. In a compound word, the principal word is varied to form the Plural.

Examples.

Singular.—Father-in-law, aid-de-camp, fellow-servant.
Plural.—Fathers-in-law, aids-de-camp, fellow-servants.
PART II.—ETYMOLOGY.—NOUNS.

7. Some nouns have no Plurals.
Examples—Wheat—silver—gold—iron—gratitude.

8. Some nouns have no Singular.
Examples—Tongs—embers—vespers—literati—scissors.

9. Some nouns have the same form in both numbers.

Examples.

*Singular.*—Apparatus, news, wages, sheep, vermin.

*Plural.*—Apparatus, news, wages, sheep, vermin.

10. Some nouns, having a Singular form, are used in a Plural sense.

Examples—Horse—foot—cavalry—cannon—sail. One thousand horse and two thousand foot—five hundred cavalry—fifty cannon—twenty sail of the line—and, for supplies, five hundred head of cattle.

11. Some nouns, having no Plural form to indicate Number, receive a Plural termination to indicate different species.

Examples—Wines—"Most wines contain over twenty per cent. of alcohol." Tea—"The teas of the Nankin Company are all good."

12. Many Latin, Greek, and Hebrew nouns used in English composition, retain their original Plurals. Commonly the terminations *um, us,* and *en,* of the Singular, are changed into *a,* for the Plural; *x* into *ces,* and *is* into *es.*

Examples.

*Singular.*—Datum, genus, criterion, index, axis.

*Plural.*—Data, genera, criteria, indices, axes.

Note.—For other examples of Number, see Appendix, Note C.

Exercises in Gender, Person, and Number.

Let the class give, 1st, the Gender—2d, the Person—3d, the Number of each of the following names—always giving a reason for the modification, by repeating the definitions.

William,   Boy,    Town,    Army,
Ganges,    Girl,   County, Data,
Andes,     Aunt,   Troy,    Index,
Cuba,      Cousin, City,    Question.

Let sentences be made in which the following words shall be in the Second Person.

Father,    Stars,   Thou,    Heralds,
Mother,    Hills,   You,    Messengers,
Sun,       Rivers,  Ye,    Walls,
Earth,     Woods,   Men,    Floods.

Let other sentences be made having the same words in the Third Person.
Let the following Singular Nouns be changed to their Plurals and placed in sentences—always giving the Rule for the change of number.

Boy, Motto, Fox, Ox, Son-in-law,
Father, Hero, Staff, Pea, Spoon-full,
Man, Knife, Goose, Basis, Cousin-german,
Child, Hoof, Mouse, Stratum, Knight-errant.

Let the Gender and Number of the following nouns be changed and placed in sentences.

Man, Bachelor, Brother, Poetess,
Boys, Lioness, Sons, Prince,
Uncles, Geese, Sister, Tutor,
Cousin, Cow, Maid, Widower.

Let the class turn to page 28, and point out all the nouns, and mention their classes, and their modifications of Gender, Person, and Number.

CASE.

Rem.—All nouns and pronouns are used—
1. As the Subject of a sentence.
2. As a Definitive of some other noun.
3. As the Object of an action or relation, or
4. Independent of other words in the sentence.
These different conditions of nouns suggest their modifications in regard to case; for case in grammar means condition. Hence,

Prin. Nouns are distinguished as being in the

Nominative Case, | Objective Case,
Possessive Case, | Independent Case.

Def. 53. A Noun or Pronoun which is the Subject of a sentence, is in the Nominative Case.

Examples—Animals run—John saws wood—Resources are developed. "The king of shadows loves a shining mark."

Def. 54. A Noun or Pronoun varied in its orthography, so as to indicate a relation of possession, is in the Possessive Case.

Obs. 1.—The Possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe and s to the Nominative.

Examples.

Nom.—Man, boy, world, George.
Pos.—Man's, boy's, world's, George's.
PART II.—ETYMOLOGY—NOUNS.

Obs. 2.—Most plural nouns ending in s, add the apostrophe only.

**EXAMPLES.**

Nom.—Horses, eagles, foxes,
Pos.—Horses', eagles', foxes'.

Obs. 3.—Many nouns ending in the singular in s, or ce, add the apostrophe only.

**EXAMPLES.**

Nom.—Mechanics, conscience,
Pos.—Mechanics', conscience'.

He suffered for conscience' sake.

**Note.**—A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case is used adjectively. [For illustration, see Appendix, Note E.]

Obs. The Possessive case does not always indicate "possession or ownership." *Children's shoes.* Here the word "children's" does not imply ownership. It simply specifies "shoes" as to size.—*Small shoes.* Here "small" specifies "shoes" in a similar manner—"small" and "children's," performing similar offices, are similar in their etymology; "small" is an adjective—"children's" is an Adjective.

**Note.**—Nouns and Pronouns become Adjectives whenever their principal office is to specify or describe other names: and they may have the form of the Nominative, Possessive, or Objective case.

**EXAMPLES.**

Steel pens.—Silver steel.—A he goat.—Our national resources.—New England customs.—Wood engravings.—Upland cotton.—A she goat.—Their enemies.—Paris fashions.

"O, my offence is rank—it smells to heaven;
It hath the primal, eldest curse upon it,
A brother's murder."

**Def. 55.** A noun or pronoun which is the Object of a sentence or a phrase, is in the Objective Case.

**EXAMPLES**—John saws wood—Science promotes happiness.
"The king of shadows loves a shining mark."
"In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth."
"Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow."
Def. 56. A noun or pronoun not dependent on any other word in construction, is in the
Independent Case.

Obs.—The Independent case includes—
1. The names of persons addressed.
Examples—O Liberty!—"Friends, Romans, countrymen!"

2. Names used to specify or define other names, previously mentioned.
Examples—Paul the Apostle wrote to Timothy. Here "Paul" is the
subject of "wrote," hence in the Nominative case (See Def. 53). "Apos-
tle" designates which "Paul" is intended; hence, in the Independent case.

3. Nouns used to introduce independent phrases.
Examples—The hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises.

4. Nouns and pronouns used in predication with verbs.
Examples—"God is love"—"It is I"—"The wages of sin is death."

5. Nouns and pronouns used for euphony, titles of books, cards, signs, &c.

Examples.
"The moon herself is lost in heaven."
"Webster's Dictionary"—"Munson and Bradley."

Obs.—In the English language, nouns are not varied in form
to distinguish the cases (except for the Possessive). Commonly, the case of a noun is determined by its position in a
sentence—the Subject (nominative) taking the first place, the
Object (objective) the last.

Examples.

Subject. Object.
John assists William.
William assists John.

But this natural order of position is often reversed by the
poets and public speakers.

Examples.
"Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
And all the air a solemn stillness holds."

"Him, from my childhood, I have known."
"Thee we adore."
Exercises.

Let the class turn to pages 25 and 26, and point out the nouns— naming the cases of each, and the reason for each modification, after the following.

MODEL.

I.

"The Lord uplifts his awful hand,
And chains you to the shore."

Lord. is a name; hence a Noun—for "the name of a being, place, or thing, is a Noun."

"Name, in this instance appropriated to an individual Being; hence Proper—for "a name appropriated to an individual person," is a Proper Noun."

"Name appropriated to males; hence Masculine Gender—for "names of males are in the Masculine Gender."

"Spoken of; hence Third Person—for "the name of the person or thing spoken of is of the Third Person."

"Denotes but one; hence Singular Number—for "nouns denoting but one are of the Singular Number."

"Subject of the sentence; hence Nominative Case—for "the subject of a sentence is in the Nominative Case."

Hand. is a name; hence a Noun—for "the name of a being, place, or thing, is a Noun."

"Name of a class of things; hence Common—for "a name used to designate a class of things is a Common Noun."

"Not distinguished by sex; hence Neuter Gender—for "names of things without sex are of the Neuter Gender."

"Spoken of; hence Third Person—for "the name of the person or thing spoken of is of the Third Person."

"Denotes but one; hence Singular Number—for "nouns denoting but one are of the Singular Number.

"Object of the sentence; hence Objective Case—for "the object of a sentence or phrase is in the Objective Case."

Shore. is a name; hence a Noun—for "the name of a being, place, or thing, is a Noun."

"Name of a class of things; hence Common—for "a name used to designate a class of things is a Common Noun."

"Not distinguished by sex; hence Neuter Gender—for "names of things without sex are of the Neuter Gender."

"Spoken of; hence Third Person—for "the name of the person or thing spoken of, is of the Third Person."

"Denotes but one; hence Singular Number—for "nouns denoting but one, are of the Singular Number."

"Object of a Phrase; hence Objective Case—for "the object of a sentence or phrase is in the Objective Case."
PRONOUNS.

Rem.—To avoid an unpleasant repetition of the same word in a sentence, a class of words is introduced as substitutes for names. Hence,

Def. 57. A word used instead of a Noun, is called a Pronoun.

Obs.—As pronouns are of general application, the noun for which any given pronoun is substituted is commonly determined by the context—and, because it generally precedes the Pronoun, it is called its antecedent.

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

Rem.—Some Pronouns, by their forms, denote their modification of Gender, Person, Number, and Case.
Others relate directly to the nouns for which they are used.
Others, in addition to their ordinary office, are used in asking questions.
Others describe the names for which they are substituted. Hence,

Prin. Pronouns are distinguished as

Personal, | Interrogative, and
Relative, | Adjective.

PERSONAL PRONOUN.

Def. 58. A Pronoun whose form determines its Person and Number, is a

Personal Pronoun.

List.—The simple Personal Pronouns are, I, thou or you, he, she, it. Their corresponding Compounds are, myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself.

MODIFICATION.

Rem.—Whenever one word is used in the place of another, it is properly subjected to the same laws as the other: this is true of Pronouns. Hence,

Prin. Pronouns have the same modifications of Gender, Person, Number, and Case, as Nouns.

Note.—Pronouns of the First and Second Persons are not varied to denote the sex.
**PART II.—ETYMOLOGY—PRONOUNS.**

*Rem.—To denote these several Modifications, some Pronouns are varied in form. This variation of form is called*

## DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

### FIRST PERSON.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Independent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>my*</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>I or me†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>our</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SECOND PERSON.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
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<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Independent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>You</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>You</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SECOND PERSON.—Solemn Style.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Independent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>thy</td>
<td>thee</td>
<td>thou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>Ye</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>ye</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### THIRD PERSON.—Masculine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
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<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Independent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>he or him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>their</td>
<td>them</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### THIRD PERSON.—Feminine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Independent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>She</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>she</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>their</td>
<td>them</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### THIRD PERSON.—Neuter.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Independent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>its</td>
<td>it</td>
<td>it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>their</td>
<td>them</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Obs. 1.—Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, and theirs, are used—in common with other definitives—substantively, i.e., as the representatives of nouns which it is their primary office to specify. They are then properly called Adjective Pronouns.**

**Examples**—"He is a friend of mine." "Thine is the kingdom." "Theirs had been the vigor of his youth."

* My, thy, his, her, our, your, their, its, mine, and thine, when used to specify or otherwise describe nouns and pronouns (and they commonly are so used), are to be classed as Adjectives. They are placed here to denote their origin, and to accommodate those Teachers who prefer to call them Pronouns. [For an exposition of their true etymology, see Appendix, Note E.—See, also, Webster's Grammar.]

† Pronouns in the Independent Case, commonly take the form of the Nominative, as "O happy they!" "Ah luckless he!" "It is I!"

But they sometimes take the form of the Objective, as "Him excepted." "I found it to be him." "It was not me that you saw." "Ah me!"
OBS. 2.—The Pronoun *it*, is often used indefinitely.
Examples—*It snows*—*it rains*—*is it you?*

**RELATIVE PRONOUNS.**

**Def. 59.** A Pronoun used to introduce a sentence which qualifies its antecedent, is a Relative Pronoun.

**List.—** They are, *who, which, that, and what*

OBS. 1.—*Who is varied in Declension to indicate the Cases only. Which, that, what, are not declined.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who,</td>
<td>Whose,*</td>
<td>Whom,</td>
<td>Who or Whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which,</td>
<td>Which,</td>
<td>Which.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That,</td>
<td>That,</td>
<td>That.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OBS. 2.—*Who is applied to man, or to beings supposed to possess intelligence.*

Examples—He *who studies* will excel those *who do not.* “He whom sea-severed realms obey.”

OBS. 3.—*Which and what are applied to brute animals and things.*

Examples—The books *which I lost.* The pen *which I use,* is good. *We value most what costs us most.*

OBS. 4.—*That is applied to man or things.*

Examples—Them *that* honor me, I will honor.

“Where is the patience now,

*That you so oft have boasted to retain.*”—Lear.

OBS. 5.—*What,* when used as a Relative, is always compound; and is equivalent to *that which,* or the *things which.*

The two elements of this word never belong to the same sentence; one part introduces a sentence which qualifies the antecedent part of the same word.

“Our proper bliss depends on what we blame.”

In this example, “What” is a compound Relative, equivalent to the two words, *that which.* *That*—the Antecedent part—is the object of “on.” “*Which*”—the Relative part—is the object

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*Whose* is always a definitive, attached to nouns, and may relate to persons or things—as *“Whose I am, and whom I serve.”* *“Whose* body Nature is, and God the soul.”
of "blame." The Auxiliary sentence, "we blame which," is used to qualify "that." [See page 32, Diagram 23.]

Obs.—The compounds, whoever, whosoever, whichever, whichever, whatever, and whatsoever, are construed similarly to what.

**INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.**

**Def. 60.** A Pronoun that is used to ask a question, is an **Interrogative Pronoun.**

List.—They are, who, which, and what.

Obs.—Who is applied to man; which and what, to man or things.

Examples—"Who will show us any good?" "Which do you prefer?" "Which of the officers was killed?" "What will a man give in exchange for his soul?"

Obs.—Which and what are often used as Adjectives.

Examples—Which book is yours? What evil hath he done?

**ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.**

**Def. 61.** A definitive word used to supply the place of a Noun, which it defines, is an **Adjective Pronoun.**

Examples—"Some [ ] said one thing, and some, another." [ ]

Obs. 1.—In this example, "some" defines people (understood), and is, therefore, used adjectively;—it is substituted for the word "people," constituting the Subject of the sentence—hence it is used substantively. But the substantive office, being the principal office, the word is properly called a Pronoun. Its secondary office being adjective, it is properly called an Adjective Pronoun.

Obs. 2.—The following words are often thus used:

All, Former, Neither, Such,
Both, Last, None, That,
Each, Latter, One, These,
Either, Least, Other, Those,
Few, Less, Several, This.

Most specifying, and all qualifying Adjectives may be thus used.

Examples—"The good alone are great." "The poor respect the rich." "One step from the sublime to the ridiculous."
RECAPITULATION.

Forms

Radical, { 
Inseparable
Prefix,
Root, 
Suffix.

Forms

Derivative, 
Simple,
Compound, { Basis,
Adjunct.

Words are distinguished by their Uses.

Noun,
Pronoun,
Adjective,
Verb,
Adverb,
Preposition,
Conjunction,
Exclamation.

Proper

Nouns are or

Substantive,
Abstract,
Collective,
Verbal.

Common.

Proper

Nouns are or

Personal,
Relative,
Interrogative,
Adjective.

MODIFICATION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

Gender,

Masculine,
Feminine,
Neuter

Person,

First,
Second,
Third.

Number,

Singular,
Plural.

Case.

Nominative,
Possessive,
Objective,
Independent.
Exercises.

"I see them on their winding way."

1. . . . . . is used for the name of a person; hence a Pronoun—for "a word used for a noun, is a Pronoun."
2. Its form determines its person and number; hence Personal—for "a Pronoun whose form determines its person and number, is a Personal Pronoun."
3. Denotes the speaker; hence First Person—for "the name of the person speaking is of the First Person."
4. Denotes but one; hence Singular Number—for "nouns denoting but one are in the Singular Number."
5. Subject of the sentence; hence Nominative Case—for "the subject of a sentence is in the Nominative Case."
6. Them. . . is used for the name of persons; hence a Pronoun—for "a word used for a noun, is a Pronoun."
7. Its form determines its person and number; hence Personal—for "a Pronoun whose form determines its person and number, is a Personal Pronoun."
8. Denotes persons spoken of; hence Third Person—for "the name of a person or thing spoken of, is of the Third Person."
9. Denotes more than one; hence Plural Number—for "nouns denoting more than one are of the Plural Number."
10. Object of the sentence; hence Objective Case—for "the object of a sentence or a phrase, is in the Objective Case."

[In like manner, let the Pronouns in the following sentences be parsed.]

"That the page unfolds
And spreads us to the gaze of God and men."
"You wronged yourself," "What we honor, you despise
"Whatever is, is right."
"She raised the napkin, o'er them spread,
Which hid them from her view."
"The rich and the poor meet together,
The Lord is the maker of them all."
"Train up a child in the way he should go;
And, when he is old, he will not depart from it."
"He that oppresseth the poor to increase his riches,
And he that giveth to the rich, shall surely come to want."
"Be not thou one of them that strike hands,
Or of them that are sureties for debts."
". . . And ye clear spring that . . .
Wells softly forth, and visits the strong roots
Of half the mighty forest, tells no tale
Of all the good it does." [See Diagram 5.]
QUESTIONs FOR REVIEW.

In how many ways are words distinguished?
By their forms, how are they distinguished?
What is a Radical word?
What is a Derivative word?
What is a Simple word?
What is a Compound word?
What is a Prefix? What is a Suffix?
What is a Separable Radical?—Inseparable?
By their uses, how are words distinguished?
What is a Noun?
What is a Proper Noun?—A Common Noun?
What are the distinctions of Common Nouns?
What is an Abstract Noun?—Collective?—Verbal?
How are Nouns and Pronouns modified?
What does the term Masculine Gender denote?
What Feminine Gender?—What Neuter Gender?
How are the genders of Nouns determined?
Why are Nouns and Pronouns varied in Person?
What Nouns and Pronouns are of the First Person?
What of the Second Person?—What of the Third Person?
Why a distinction of Number?
What Nouns and Pronouns are of the Singular Number?
What are of the Plural Number?
How is the Plural of Nouns commonly formed?
Why are Nouns and Pronouns distinguished by Case?
When are Nouns and Pronouns in the Nominative Case?
When in the Possessive?—the Objective?—the Independent?
Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive Case are placed with what class of words?—Why?
What is a Pronoun? Why are they used?
What are the classes? Name them.
What is a Personal Pronoun? Name them.
What is a Relative Pronoun? Name them.
What is an Interrogative Pronoun? Name them.
What is an Adjective Pronoun?
What are the modifications of Pronouns?

ADJECTIVES.

Rem.—As things possess individuality, and have points of difference from each other; so we have words which point out and describe those things, and mark their difference from other things. Hence,

Def. 62. A word used to qualify or otherwise describe a noun or pronoun is

An Adjective.

Examples—Good—amiable—the—our—earnest—falling—
young—conscientious—correct—famous.
A good boy.          Falling leaves.
An amiable young lady. Conscientious Christian.
Our national resources. Correct expression.
An earnest culture. Famous orators.

CLASSIFICATION.

Rem.—Adjectives are used—
1. To express a quality—as, good boy—red rose—sweet apple.
2. To specify or limit—as, the book—thy pen—three boys.
3. To express, incidentally, a condition, state, or act—as, loving—wheeling—injured. Hence,

Prin. Adjectives are distinguished as
Qualifying Adjectives,
Specifying Adjectives, and
Verbal Adjectives.

Def. 63. A word used to describe a noun, by expressing a quality, is

A Qualifying Adjective.

Examples—Good—sweet—cold—honorable—amiable—virtuous.

An honorable man.            Some good fruit.
An amiable disposition.       Three sweet oranges.
A virtuous woman.             Much cold water.

Def. 64. A word used to define or limit the application of its noun, is

A Specifying Adjective.

Examples—A—an—the—this—that—some—three—my.

A man of letters.            That mountain in the distance.
An educated man.             Some good fruit.
The question at issue.        Three sweet oranges.
This road.                   My enemy.

Obs.—Adjectives derived from proper nouns are called Proper Adjectives.

Examples—Arabian—Grecian—Turkish—French.
ADJECTIVES—CLASSIFICATION.

Rem.—Adjectives may specify—
1. By simply pointing out things—by limiting or designating.
2. By denoting relation of ownership, adaptation or origin.
3. By denoting number, definite or indefinite. Hence,

Prin. Specifying Adjectives are distinguished as Pure, Numeral, and Possessive.

Def. 65. A word used only to point out or designate things is **A Pure Adjective**.

**Examples**—The—that—those—such—next—same—other

Thou art the man.                      The next class.
That question is settled.               The same lesson.
Those books are received.               Other cares intrude.
"Such shames are common."              Any man may learn wisdom.

Def. 66. A word used to describe things by indicating a relation of ownership, is

**A Possessive Adjective**.

**Examples**—My—our—their—whose—children's—John's—teacher's.

My father—my neighbor.                  Children's shoes.
Our enemies.                             John's horse.
Their losses are severe.                 Teacher's absence.

**Note.**—When a noun or pronoun assumes the possessive form, it loses its substantive character and becomes a definitive. The following illustration will make this truth quite evident: "John purchased an Arabian horse, and William an Indian pony. But John's horse having been injured, John exchanged it for William's pony."

Now, it is allowed that the word "Arabian," in the above example, is an Adjective—it specifies "horse" as to its origin—a particular kind of horse. As truly is the word "John's" an Adjective; for, in this connection, it specifies "horse" as to its present condition—a particular horse. It should be remembered that the words "John" and "John's" differ quite as much, even in form, as do the words "Arabia" and "Arabian." But John is a Noun—and so is Arabia; because they are used only as names. "Arabian" is an Adjective—and so is "John's;" because, in the sentence above, they are each used to describe "horse." Each word has a substantive origin—each, with its change of form, has changed its office.

**Note 2.**—Nouns sometimes become Adjectives, without any change of form.

**Examples**—A gold pen—an iron stove—cedar posts.
NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Def. 67. A word used to denote Number, is a Numeral Adjective.

Examples—One—ten—first—second—twice—fourfold—few—many—no more.

Obs. 1.—Numeral Adjectives may be
Cardinal . . . One—Two—Three—Four.
Ordinal . . . First—Second—Third—Fourth.
Multiplicative . Once—Twice—Thrice.
Indefinite . . . Few—Many—Some (denoting number).

Obs. 2.—A and An, when they denote number, are to be classed as Numeral Adjectives.

Examples.
“Not a drum was heard, nor a funeral note.”
“Not an instance is on record.”

VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

Def. 68. A word used to describe a Noun or Pronoun, by expressing, incidentally, a condition, state, or act, is a Verbal Adjective.

Obs.—This class of Adjectives consists of Participles—used primarily to describe Nouns and Pronouns.

“Scaling yonder peak,
I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow.”

In this example the sentence is, “I saw eagle;” and “scaling yonder peak,” is a phrase, used to describe “I.” “Wheeling near its brow,” describes “eagle.” Scaling and wheeling are Participles used to describe a Noun and a Pronoun—hence they are in their office, Adjectives. [See Def. 62.] They describe by expressing (not in the character of Predicates, but), “incidentally, a condition, state, or act,” of “I” and “eagle”—hence they are Verbal Adjectives.*

---

* Teachers who are unwilling to allow that a Participle “conveying the idea of time,” is an Adjective, will do well here to explain the subject of Participles to their classes, according to their peculiar views. I have chosen the above arrangement as being more simple; and, in my view, more fully answering to the common definition of an Adjective. For further remarks on this subject, see the article “Participles,” in its proper place.
ADJECTIVES—MODIFICATION.

EXAMPLES.

A running brook. I saw a boy running to school.
A standing pond. Another standing by the way.
Disputed territory It is a truth undisputed.
Undoubted fact. It is a fact undoubted.

Rem.—Participles used as Adjectives, commonly retain their verbal character, and like their verbs, may have objects after them. Hence,

Prin. Verbal Adjectives are distinguished as Transitive and Intransitive.

MODIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

Rem.—Most Qualifying Adjectives express, by variations in form, different degrees of quality. Hence,

Prin. Some Adjectives are varied in form, to denote Comparison.

There may be four degrees of comparison.
1. Diminutive, . . . bluish, . . . saltish,
2. Positive, . . . blue, . . . salt,
3. Comparative, . . . bluer, . . . salter,
4. Superlative, . . . bluest. . . . saltest.

Def. 69. The Diminutive Degree denotes an amount of the quality less than the Positive.

It is commonly formed by adding ist, to the form of the Positive.

Def. 70. The Positive Degree expresses quality in its simplest form, without a comparison.

Def. 71. The Comparative Degree expresses an increase of the Positive.

It is commonly formed by adding er, to the form of the Positive.

Def. 72. The Superlative Degree expresses the highest increase of the quality of the Adjective.

It is commonly formed by adding est, to the form of the Positive.
PART II.—ETYMOLOGY—ADJECTIVES.

Obs. 1.—By the use of other words the degrees of Comparison may be rendered indefinitely numerous.

Examples.—Cautious, somewhat cautious, very cautious, unusually cautious, remarkably cautious, exceedingly cautious, too little cautious, unconcerned, quite unconcerned.

Obs. 2.—Comparison descending, is expressed by prefixing the words less and least to the Adjective.

Examples.—Wise, less wise, least wise; ambitious, less ambitious, least ambitious.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

Prin. Some Adjectives are irregular in comparison.

Examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td>less</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far</td>
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<td>farthest</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>further</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old</td>
<td>older</td>
<td>oldest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elder</td>
<td>eldest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obs. 1.—Most Adjectives of two or more syllables, are compared by prefixing the words more and most, or less and least, to the positive.

Examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Careful</td>
<td>more careful</td>
<td>most careful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Careful</td>
<td>less careful</td>
<td>least careful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obs. 2.—Some Adjectives may be compared by either method specified above.

Examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remote</td>
<td>more remote</td>
<td>most remote</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obs. 3.—Some Adjectives cannot be compared—the qualities they indicate not being susceptible of increase or diminution.

Examples.—Round—square—triangular—infinite.
RECAPITULATION.

ADJECTIVES are distinguished as

\{ Qualifying, Specifying, Verbal, \}

\{ Superlative, Comparative, Positive, Diminutive, Pure, Numeral, Possessive, Transitive, Intransitive. \}

Exercises.

Let the pupil determine which of the following Adjectives are Qualifying, which are Specifying, and which are Verbal. Of the Qualifying Adjectives, which can be compared, and how compared—of the Specifying Adjectives, which are Pure, which Numeral, which Possessive—of the Verbal, which are Transitive, which are Intransitive.

Able, False, That, Forgotten,
Bold, Good, Three, Standing,
Capable, Honest, Tenth, Loving,
Doubtful, Infinite, Twice, Admonished,
Eager, Just, Several, Unknown.

Let the pupil point out the Adjectives, Nouns, and Pronouns, in the following sentences, and name their classes and modifications. Let him be careful to give a reason for the classification and modification of each, by repeating the appropriate definitions and observations.

Good scholars secure the highest approbation of their Teacher.
Some men do not give their children a proper education.
A trifling accident often produces great results.
An ignorant rich man is less esteemed than a wise poor man.
The richest treasure mortal times afford, is, spotless reputation.

"These dim vaults,
These winding aisles, of human pomp or pride,
Report not. No fantastic carvings show
The boast of our vain race, to change the form
Of thy fair works. Thou art in the soft winds
That run along the summits of these trees
In music:—thou art in the cooler breath,
That, from the inmost darkness of the place,
Comes, scarcely felt:—the barky trunks, the ground,
The fresh, moist ground, are all instinct with thee"
PART II.—ETYMOLOGY—ADJECTIVES.

These describes "vaults;" hence an Adjective—for "a word used to qualify or otherwise describe a noun or pronoun, is an Adjective."

" Specifies; hence Specifying—for "an adjective used only to specify, is a Specifying Adjective."

Dim qualifies "vaults;" hence an Adjective—for "a word used to qualify or otherwise describe a noun or pronoun, is an Adjective."

" Expresses a quality; hence Qualifying—for "a word used to describe a noun by expressing a quality, is a Qualifying Adjective."

Vaults is a name; hence a Noun—for "the name of a being, place, or thing, is a Noun."

" Name of a sort or class; hence Common—for "a name used to designate a class or sort of beings, places, or things, is a Common Noun."

" Spoken of; hence Third Person—for "the name of a person or thing spoken of, is of the Third Person."

" Denotes more than one; hence Plural Number—for "nouns denoting more than one, are of the Plural Number."

" Subject of the sentence; hence Nominative Case—for "the subject of a sentence is in the Nominative Case."

Winding describes "aisles;" hence an Adjective—for "a word used to qualify or otherwise describe a noun or pronoun, is an Adjective."

" Describes, by expressing a condition; hence Verbal—for "a word used to describe a noun by expressing incidentally a condition, state, or act, is a Verbal Adjective."

Human describes "pomp" or "pride;" hence an Adjective—for "a word used to qualify or otherwise describe a noun or pronoun, is an Adjective."

" Expresses a quality; hence Qualifying—for "a word used to describe a noun by expressing a quality, is a Qualifying Adjective."

[It is profitable to repeat the Definitions, until they become familiar: after that, they may be omitted—the parts of speech and the classes and modifications of the several words being simply named, as in the following exercise.]

" No fantastic carvings show
The boast of our vain race, to change the form
Of thy fair works."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Breakdown</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>is an Adjective</td>
<td>Specifying</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>limits &quot;carvings.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fantastic</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Qualifying</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>qualifies &quot;carvings.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carvings</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Plu. Nom. to &quot;show.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Specifying</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>limits &quot;boast.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boast</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Sing. Obj. of &quot;show.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The teacher will abridge or extend these exercises at pleasure. Then let four sentences be made, each containing the word *good*, so that, in the first, it will qualify the Subject—in the second, the Object—in the third, the Object of a Phrase attached to the Subject—in the fourth, the object of a Phrase attached to the Object.

In like manner use the words *amiable—honest—industrious—wise—this—some—loving—loved*.

**QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.**

What is an *Adjective*?

How many *classes*?—their *names*?

What is a *Qualifying Adjective*?

What is a *Specifying Adjective*?

How are Specifying Adjectives *classified*?—their *names*?

What is a *pure Specifying Adjective*?

What is a *Numeral Adjective*?

What is a *Possessive Adjective*?

What is a *Verbal Adjective*?

How are Adjectives *modified*?

How many *Degrees of Comparison*?—their *names*?

What does the *Diminutive Degree* indicate?

What the *Positive*?—the *Comparative*?—the *Superlative*?

How form the *Diminutive*?—the *Comparative*?—the *Superlative*?

Are all Adjectives *compared*?—Why not?

**VERBS.**

**Rem.**—As all things in the universe *live, move, or have a being*, we necessarily have a class of words used to express the *act, being, or state* of those things. Hence,

**Def. 73.** A word used to express the act, being, state of a person or thing, is

* A *Verb.*

**CLASSIFICATION.**

**Rem.**—The act expressed by some verbs, *passes over* to an object. Hence,

**Prin.** Verbs are distinguished as

*Transitive, or Intransitive.*

**Def. 74.** A verb that expresses an action which terminates on an object, is

* A *Transitive Verb.*

**Examples**—John *saw wood*—God *created heaven and earth.*
Def. 75. A verb that expresses the being or state of its subject, or an action which does not terminate on an object, is

An Intransitive Verb.

Examples—Animals run—I sit—John is sleepy.

Obs.—Some verbs are used transitively or intransitively.

Examples—"Cold blows the wind."
"The wind blows the dust."
"It has swept through the earth."
"Jane has swept the floor."
"God moves in a mysterious way."
"Such influences do not move me."

Obs.—The verbs be, become, and other intransitive verbs, whose subjects are not represented as performing a physical act, are, by many grammarians, called

Neuter Verbs.

Examples—He is—God exists—we become wise—they dis.

Modification of Verbs.

Rem.—Verbs that denote action, have two methods of representing the action,
1st—As done by its subject—as, Jane loves Lucy.
2d—As done to its subject—as, Lucy is loved by Jane.

Hence—

Prin. Transitive Verbs have two voices—
Active, and Passive.

Def. 76. The Active Voice represents the Subject as performing an action.

Example—Columbus discovered America.

Def. 77. The Passive Voice represents the Subject as being acted upon.

Example—America was discovered by Columbus.

Obs.—The subject of a verb in the active voice, commonly becomes the object of a preposition, when the verb takes the passive form; and the object of a verb in the active voice, becomes the subject, in the passive.
VERBS—MODIFICATION.

Example—

William assists Charles.  
Charles is assisted by William.  

The same fact stated.  

"William," the subject of the Active Verb, becomes the object of "by," 
when the verb becomes Passive; and "Charles," the object of the Active 
Verb, becomes the subject of the Passive.

Note.—The Passive Voice of a verb is formed by adding the 
Passive Participle of that verb to the verb be.

Examples—Active—To love, I fear, They worship.  
Passive—To be loved, I am feared. They are worshiped.

Obs.—Most Transitive Verbs may take the Passive form.  
But few Intransitive Verbs take the Passive form.

Example—We laughed at his clownish performance—(Active Intr.)  
His clownish performance was laughed at.—(Passive.)

MODE.

Rem.—In addition to their primary signification, verbs perform a 
secondary office—i.e., they indicate some attendant or qualifying circumstances. This is indicated by the variations of the form of the verb, or 
by prefixing auxiliary words.

1. A verb may simply express a fact.
2. It may express a fact as possible, probable, obligatory, &c.
3. It may express a fact conditionally.
4. It may express a command, or request.
5. It may express the name of an act, or a fact unlimited by a subject.

Hence,

Prin. Verbs have five modes of expressing their 
signification—

Indicative, | Subjunctive,  
Potential, | Imperative, and  
Infinitive.

Def. 78. A verb used simply to indicate or assert a fact, or to ask a question, is in the

Indicative Mode.

Examples—"God created the heaven and the earth."  
"Is he not honest?" "Whence come wars?"

Def. 79. A verb indicating probability, power, will, or obligation, of its subject, is in the

Potential Mode.

Obs.—Words which may be regarded as signs of the Poten-
tial Mode, are, may—might—can—could—must—shall—should—will—would.

Examples—I may go—you might have gone—John should study—Mary can learn—it could not be done.

Def. 80. A verb expressing a fact conditionally (hypothetically) is in the

Subjunctive Mode.

Obs.—If, though, unless, and other conjunctions, are commonly used with the Subjunctive Mode; but they are not to be regarded as the signs of this Mode; for they are also used with the Indicative and the Potential.

Examples—If the boat goes to-day, I shall go in it.
I would stay if I could conveniently.

The condition expressed by “if the boat goes,” is assumed as a fact—hence, “goes” is in the Indicative Mode.

Note.—The Subjunctive Mode is limited to Auxiliary (Adverbial) Sentences.

Def. 81. A verb used to command, or entreat, is in the

Imperative Mode.

Obs.—As we can command only a person or thing addressed, the subject of an Imperative verb must be of the Second Person; and, as a person addressed is supposed to be present to the speaker, the name of the subject is usually understood.

Examples—Cry aloud—Spare not.
But it is often expressed,

“Go ye into all the world.”

Def. 82. A verb used without limitation by a subject, is in the

Infinitive Mode.

Obs. 1.—The preposition to, is usually placed before the Infinitive verb.

Obs. 2.—As a verb in the Infinitive has no Subject, it cannot be a Predicate. It is used—
1. Substantively; as—To do good is the duty of all.
2. Adjectively; as—The way to do good.
3. Adverbially; as—I ought to do good.
PARTICIPLES.

Rem.—[See Appendix, Note D.]

Def. 83. A word derived from a verb, retaining the signification of its verb, while it also performs the office of some other part of speech, is called

A Participle.

Prin. Most verbs have three Participles.

Present, . . . walking, . . . . loving;
Past, . . . walked, . . . . loved,
Compound, . having walked, . having loved.

Def. 84. The Present Participle represents time as present, when an act expressed by it was, is, or shall be, performed.

Obs.—It is distinguished by its form. The Present Participle of the active voice always ends in ing.

Def. 85. The Past (or second) Participle represents time as past, when the act expressed by it was, is, or shall be, performed.

Obs.—The Past Participle of a Regular Verb ends in d or ed. Those of Irregular Verbs end variously. [See list.]

Def. 86. The Compound Participle consists of the Participle of a principal verb, added to the word having, or being, or to the two words having been.

Examples—Having loved—being loved—having been loved.

Note.—Participles have no distinct etymological character. They find a place in all the "parts of speech"—being used

1. As a Noun—In the beginning—the plowing.
William maintains a fair standing in society.

2. As an Adjective—A running brook—a standing tree.
That tree standing on the common, is the Charter Oak.

3. As an Adverb—"'Tis passing strange"
PART II.—ETYMOLOGY—PARTICIPLES.

4. As a Preposition—"I speak concerning Christ and the church." "Nothing was said touching that question."

5. As a Conjunction—Seeing we cannot agree, the discussion may be dropt.

6. As an Exclamation—Shocking!

7. In Predication with Auxiliary Verbs—We have been singing. "The spring time of year is coming."

Prin. Particiles, like the verbs from which they are derived, are

Transitive, or Intransitive.

Oss.—A Particile used as a Preposition, must be Transitive.
A Particile used as a Noun, Adjective, or in Predication, may be Transitive.
A Particile used as a Conjunction, or Adverb, must be Intransitive.

Rem.—To render the classification more simple, I have preferred to class all Particiles used chiefly to describe Nouns and Pronouns, as Adjectives—and, because they are derived from verbs and retain more or less of the properties of the verbs from which they are derived, I use the term Verbal Adjective. I have given my views on this subject more fully in Note D, Appendix.

But Teachers who are unwilling to do more than simply to call them Particiles, will not find it difficult to adapt their views to the plan of this work;—the pupil being taught that "Particiles, like Adjectives, belong to Nouns and Pronouns."

And, in the use of Diagrams,—

Particiles occupy the same position as Adjectives.

TENSE.

Rem.—Generally the form of the Verb denotes, not only the manner, but also the time, of the action or event expressed by it. Hence the distinction of Tense.

Def. 87. Tense is a modification of verbs, denoting distinctions of time.

Rem.—Time is present, past, or future;—Each variety has two distinct modifications. Hence,

Prin. Most verbs have six Tenses.

Prior Past, Present,
Past, Prior Future,
Prior Present, Future.
Def. 88. A verb denoting past time, previous to some other past time, is in the 

**Prior Past Tense.**

**Examples**—I *had been* to Boston once before that time.

**Obs.**—*Had* is the sign of this Tense.

Def. 89. A verb, when it indicates that the speaker or writer refers to some particular past time, is in the 

**Past Tense.**

**Examples**—I *wrote* you a letter—we *walked* to Troy.

**Obs.**—In Regular Verbs, the sign of this Tense is *d* or *ed*, added to the root of the verb. In Irregular Verbs, a distinct form is used. [See List.]

Def. 90. A verb denoting past time, but in a period reaching to the present, is in the 

**Prior Present, Tense.**

**Examples.**

I *have been* to Boston.
We may *have seen* him.

John *has deceived* me.
Mary *has been prospered.*

**Obs.**—*Has* and *have*, are the signs of this Tense.

**Note.**—An act or event expressed by the Past Tense Indefinite, may be made definite by the aid of an Adjunct word, phrase, or sentence.

**Examples**—I have been to Boston to-day.
We may have seen him when he was in town.

Def. 91. A verb expressing an action or event as now taking place, is in the 

**Present Tense.**

**Examples.**

Eliza *studies.*
Ellen *is reading.*

Do you *hear* the bell?
Emily may *write* that Diagram.

**Obs.**—This is the simplest form of the verb;—the sign *do*, is used to denote intensity, and in asking questions.
Def. 92. A verb denoting time past, after a certain future time, is in the

Prior Future Tense.

Example—We shall have finished this recitation before the next class will come.

Obs.—Shall have and will have, are the signs of this Tense.

Def. 93. A verb denoting that an act or event will take place hereafter, is in the

Future Tense.

Example—James will return to-morrow—I shall see him.

Obs.—Shall, in the First Person, and will, in the Second and Third, are the signs of this Tense.

Rem.—Distinctions of time are not indicated with precision by the form of the Verb. This must be done by the use of Adjuncts.

In the Potential Mode, the Tenses are quite Indefinite—one form being often used for another.

The same remarks will apply to Participles, to the Infinitive—the Subjunctive—and sometimes the Indicative.

RECAPITULATION.

VERB.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Transitive,} & \quad \begin{cases} 
\text{Active,} \\
\text{Passive,} 
\end{cases} \\
\text{Intransitive} & \quad \begin{cases} 
\text{Active,} \\
\text{Neuter} 
\end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Indicative,} & \quad \begin{cases} 
\text{Prior Past,} \\
\text{Present,} 
\end{cases} \\
\text{Potential,} & \quad \begin{cases} 
\text{Prior Future,} \\
\text{Future.} 
\end{cases} \\
\text{Subjunctive} & \quad \begin{cases} 
\text{Prior Present,} \\
\text{Past,} 
\end{cases} \\
\text{Imperative,} & \quad \begin{cases} 
\text{Present.} 
\end{cases} \\
\text{Infinitive,} & \quad \begin{cases} 
\text{Past,} \\
\text{Past.} 
\end{cases} \\
\text{Participle,} & \quad \begin{cases} 
\text{Present.} \\
\text{Comp’nd.} 
\end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]
Excercises.

Let each Verb and Participle in the following exercises be pointed out, and its Class and Modification given.

I wrote. Joining the multitude. Retire.
Thou art reading. Accustomed to study. Let us alone.
James may recite. Willing to be taught. Permit me to pass.
Mary can study. Having seen the Teacher. Let me go.

It is pleasant to ride in a sail-boat.
We are all fond of singing.
Some are accustomed to sing by rote.
The young ladies ought to have attended the lecture.
By teaching others, we improve ourselves.
Being accustomed to study, we can learn that lesson easily.
Having been censured for idleness, John has resolved to be diligent.
By endeavoring to please all, we fail to please any.
To be, or not to be—that is the question."

"Spirit! I feel that thou
Wilt soon depart—
This body is too weak longer to hold
The immortal part.
The ties of earth are loosening,
They soon will break;
And thou, even as a joyous bird,
Thy flight wilt take
To the eternal world."

"Truth crushed to earth will rise again,
The eternal years of God are hers:
But Error, wounded, writhe in pain,
And dies amid her worshipers."

Crushed.....is [a Participle, from the verb crush;] used here to describe a condition of "Truth;" hence, a verbal Adjective.

Will rise.....asserts an act of "Truth;" hence, a Verb.

" has no object; hence, Intransitive.
" simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
" denotes time future; hence, Future Tense.

Are............asserts being of "years;" hence, a Verb.

" has no object; hence, Intransitive.
" simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
" denotes time present; hence, Present Tense.
Wounded......is [a Participle, from the verb wound] used here to describe a condition of "Error;" hence, verbal Adjective.

Writhe......asserts an act of "Error;" hence, a Verb.
  " has no object; hence, Intransitive.
  " simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
  " denotes time present; hence, Present Tense.

"The surging billows and the gamboling storms
Come crouching to his feet."

Surging......is [a Participle, from the verb surge] used here to describe "billows;" hence, a verbal Adjective.

Gamboling......is [a Participle, from the verb gambol] used here to describe "storms;" hence, a verbal Adjective.

Come...... assert an act of "billows" and "storms;" hence, a Verb
  " has no object; hence, Intransitive.
  " simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
  " denotes time present; hence, Present Tense.

Crouching......is [a Participle, from the verb crouch] used here to modify the act expressed by "come;"
  " (it declares the manner of coming;) hence, an Adverb.

"In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth."

Beginning......is [a Participle, from the verb begin] used here as the name of an event; hence, a verbal Noun.

Created......asserts an act of "God;" hence, a Verb.
  " act passes to objects (heaven and earth); hence, Transitive.
  " simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
  " denotes a particular time past; hence, Past Tense Definite.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is a Verb?
What is the first distinction of Verbs?
What is a Transitive Verb? Intransitive?
What is a Neuter Verb?
What are the Modifications of Verbs?
When is a Verb in the Active Voice?
When is a Verb in the Passive Voice?
How is the Passive Voice of a Verb formed?
What Verbs take the Passive form?
What is denoted by the term Mode?
What are the Modes?
When is a Verb in the Indicative Mode?
When in the Potential?—the Subjunctive?
When in the Imperative?—the Infinitive?
What is a Participle?
VERBS—CONJUGATION.

How are Participles distinguished?
What is a Present Participle?—how formed?
What is a Past Participle?—how formed?
What is a Compound Participle?—how formed?
To what "Parts of Speech" do Participles belong?
What Participles must be Transitive?
What Participles may be Transitive?
What Participles must be Intransitive?

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

Rem.—We have seen that most verbs are varied in form to denote different modes and times of action or being.
They are also varied to correspond with their subjects in Person and Number.
The regular arrangement of the various forms of a verb, is called its
Conjugation.

Def. 94. A Verb which may be conjugated by one regular method of variation, to indicate its different Modes and Tenses, and to correspond with its Subjects in Person and Number, is called

A Regular Verb.

Obs.—A Regular Verb forms its Past Tense Definite and Passive Participle, by adding d or ed to the root of the verb.

EXAMPLES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Love</td>
<td>Loved</td>
<td>Loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fill</td>
<td>Filled</td>
<td>Filled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recite</td>
<td>Recited</td>
<td>Recited</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Def. 95. A Verb whose conjugation is not according to the regular formula, is called

An Irregular Verb.

Def. 96. A Verb that is not used in all of the Modes and Tenses, is called

A Defective Verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>Could</td>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>Should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>Might</td>
<td>Will</td>
<td>Would</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Must</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ought</td>
<td>Ought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quoth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Def. 97. A Verb that is prefixed to another verb, or to a Participle, to distinguish the Voice, Mode, or Tense, of the principal verb, is

*An Auxiliary Verb.*

\[\begin{array}{llll}
\text{Pres.} & \text{Past.} & \text{Pres.} & \text{Past.} \\
\text{Can,} & \text{Could.} & \text{Always} & \text{Shall,} \\
\text{May,} & \text{Might.} & \text{Auxiliary.} & \text{Should.} \\
\text{Have,} & \text{Had.} & \text{Sometimes} & \text{Must.} \\
\text{Will,} & \text{Would.} & \text{Principal.} & \text{Do,} \\
\text{Will,} & \text{Would.} & \text{Do,} & \text{Did.} \\
\end{array}\]

\[\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Obs.—When used as Auxiliary Verbs—} \\
\text{Can,} & \text{may,} \\
\text{must,} & \text{shall (used to command); and will} \\
\text{(signifying volition), are the signs of the Present,} \\
\text{Potential.} \\
\end{array}\]

\[\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Could,} & \text{might,} \\
\text{should and would,} & \text{are the signs of the} \\
\text{Past Tense, Potential.} \\
\end{array}\]

\[\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Have is the sign of the Prior Present Tense, Indicative.} \\
\text{Shall have is the sign of the Prior Future, Indicative.} \\
\end{array}\]

\[\begin{array}{ll}
\text{May have} & \text{"} \\
\text{Prior Present Tense,} \\
\text{Potencial.} \\
\text{Might have} & \text{"} \\
\text{Prior Past, Potential.} \\
\text{Had} & \text{"} \\
\text{Prior Past, Indicative.} \\
\text{Shall} & \text{"} \\
\text{Future (First Person).} \\
\text{Will} & \text{"} \\
\text{"} & \text{(Second and Third} \\
\text{Persons).} \\
\text{Do*} & \text{"} \\
\text{Present Indicative (in} \\
\text{tensive form).} \\
\text{Did} & \text{"} \\
\text{Past Tense, Indicative.} \\
\text{Be} & \text{"} \\
\text{Passive Voice, and is used} \\
\text{in all the Modes and} \\
\text{Tenses.} \\
\end{array}\]

* Do, with its variations, often has a very extensive signification—as, "I think as you do." "Edward studies more diligently than we do."

In such instances, do adopts the signification of the previous verb. "I think as you think." "Edward studies more diligently than we study."
### FORMULÆ OF REGULAR VERBS

**Intransitive Verb, WALK.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Indicative</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple form—1</td>
<td>Walk.</td>
<td>We walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound</td>
<td>I am Walking.</td>
<td>Ye walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>I Walked.</td>
<td>You walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound</td>
<td>I was Walking.</td>
<td>They walk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### DECLENSION.

**Indicative Mode.—(Give the Definition.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I walk</td>
<td>1 Person</td>
<td>We walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou walkest</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>Ye walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You walk</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>You walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He walks</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>They walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I walked</td>
<td>1 “</td>
<td>We walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou walkedst</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>Ye walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You walked</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>You walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He walked</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>They walked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prior Present.</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall walk</td>
<td>1 “</td>
<td>We shall walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou wilt walk</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>Ye will walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will walk</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>You will walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He will walk</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>They will walk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prior Future.</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thou wilt have walked</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>We shall have walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will have walked</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ye will have walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He will have walked</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>You will have walked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future.</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall have walked</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>We shall have walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou wilt have walked</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ye will have walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will have walked</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>You will have walked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Potential Mode.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present.</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I may* walk</td>
<td>1 Person</td>
<td>We may walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou mayest walk</td>
<td>2 “</td>
<td>Ye may walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You may walk</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>You may walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He may walk</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>They may walk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past.</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I might† walk</td>
<td>1 “</td>
<td>We might walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou mightest walk</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>Ye might walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You might walk</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>You might walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He might walk</td>
<td>3 “</td>
<td>They might walk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Can or must. † Could, would, or should.
PART II.—ETYMOLOGY—VERBS.

Singular.

I may have walked
Thou mayest have walked
You may have walked
He may have walked
He might have walked
Thou mightest have walked
You might have walked
He might have walked

Plural.

1 Person
You may have walked
They may have walked

We may have walked
Ye may have walked
You might have walked
They might have walked

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Singular.

If I walk
If Thou walk
If You walk
If He walk
If I walked
If Thou walked
If You walked
If He walked

Plural.

If We walk
If Ye walk
If You walk
If They walk

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.

Walk
Do Thou walk

Plural.

Walk
Do Ye or You walk

INFinitive MODE.

PRESENT........................................................................To walk
PRIOR PRESENT.........................................................To have walked

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT.................................................................Walking
COMPOUND............................................................Having Walked

Synopsis of the Regular Verb, LOVE—Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Simple Form.        Compound Form.

PRESENT.............I love.....I am loving
PAST.................I loved.....I was loving
PRIOR PRESENT.....I have loved.....I have been loving
PRIOR PAST...........I had loved.....I had been loving
FUTURE................I shall love.....I shall be loving
PRIOR FUTURE.....I shall have loved.....I shall have been loving

POTENTIAL MODE.

Simple Form.        Compound Form.

PRESENT.............I can love.....I may be loving
PAST.................I could love.....I might be loving
PRIOR PRESENT.....I can have loved.....I may have been loving
PRIOR PAST...........I could have loved.....I might have been loving
VERBS—CONJUGATION.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present ............. If I love .... Unless I be loving
Past ................. Though I loved .... Except I were loving

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present. { Love thou Be loving
{ Do thou love

PARTICIPLES.

Present ............. Loving
Compound Having loved .... Having been loving

IRREGULAR VERB, BE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Singular. Plural.
I am 1 Person We are
Thou art 2 " Ye are
You are 3 " You are
He is 3 " They are

Past.
I was 1 Person We were
Thou wast 2 " Ye were
You was 2 " You were
He was 3 " They were

Prior Present.
I have been 1 Person We have been
Thou hast been 2 " Ye have been
You have been 2 " You have been
He has been 3 " They have been

Prior Past.
I had been 1 Person We had been
Thou hadst been 2 " Ye had been
You had been 2 " You had been
He had been 3 " They had been

Future.
I shall be 1 Person We shall be
Thou wilt be 2 " Ye will be
You will be 2 " You will be
He will be 3 " They will be

Prior Future.
I shall have been 1 Person We shall have been
Thou wilt have been 2 " Ye will have been
You will have been 2 " You will have been
He will have been 3 " They will have been

POTENTIAL MODE.

Singular. Plural.
I may be 1 Person We may be
Thou mayest be 2 " Ye may be
You may be 2 " You may be
He may be 3 " They may be
PART II.—ETYMOLOGY—VERBS.

Singular. Plural.

**Past.**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I might be} & \quad \text{1 Person We might be} \\
\text{Thou mightest be} & \quad \text{2} \quad \text{Ye might be} \\
\text{You might be} & \quad \text{3} \quad \text{You might be} \\
\text{He might be} & \quad \text{3} \quad \text{They might be}
\end{align*}
\]

**Prior**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I may have been} & \quad \text{1 Person We may have been} \\
\text{Thou mayest have been} & \quad \text{2} \quad \text{Ye may have been} \\
\text{You may have been} & \quad \text{3} \quad \text{They may have been}
\end{align*}
\]

**Past.**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I might have been} & \quad \text{1 Person We might have been} \\
\text{Thou mightest have been} & \quad \text{2} \quad \text{Ye might have been} \\
\text{You might have been} & \quad \text{3} \quad \text{They might have been}
\end{align*}
\]

**Singular.** **Plural.**

**Subjunctive Mode.**

**Singular.** **Plural.**

**Present.**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{If I be} & \quad \text{1 Person If we be} \\
\text{If thou be} & \quad \text{2} \quad \text{If ye be} \\
\text{If you be} & \quad \text{3} \quad \text{If you be} \\
\text{If he be} & \quad \text{3} \quad \text{If they be}
\end{align*}
\]

**Past.**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{If I were} & \quad \text{1 Person If we were} \\
\text{If thou were} & \quad \text{2} \quad \text{If ye were} \\
\text{If you were} & \quad \text{3} \quad \text{If you were} \\
\text{If he were} & \quad \text{3} \quad \text{If they were}
\end{align*}
\]

**Infinitive Mode.**

**Present.** To be
**Past.** To have been

**Participles.**

Present. Being
Past. Been
Compound. Having been

**Synopsis of the Verb, LOVE—Passive Voice.**

**Indicative Mode.**

Present. 1 am loved
Past. 1 was loved
Prior Present. 1 have been loved
Prior Past. 1 had been loved
Future. 1 shall be loved
Prior Future. 1 shall have been loved

**Potential Mode.**

Present. 1 may be loved
Past. 1 might be loved
Prior Present. 1 may have been loved
Prior Past. 1 might have been loved
VERBS—CONJUGATION.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT.................If I be loved
PAST....................If I were loved

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular. Plural.
PRESENT....Be loved, or, Do you be loved, or
Be thou loved Ba ye loved

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT............To be loved
PAST..................To have been loved

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT............Loved, or, being loved
COMPUND............Having been loved

Synopsis of the Irregular Verb, DO.

INDICATIVE MODE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Declarative Form.</th>
<th>Interrogative Form.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRESENT............I</td>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAST................I</td>
<td>did</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIOR PRESENT.....I have</td>
<td>done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIOR PAST.......I had</td>
<td>done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUTURE.............I shall</td>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIOR FUTURE.....I shall have done</td>
<td>Shall I have done?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

POTENTIAL MODE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Declarative Form.</th>
<th>Interrogative Form.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRESENT............I may</td>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAST................I might</td>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIOR PRESENT.....I may have done</td>
<td>May I have done?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIOR PAST.......I might have done</td>
<td>Might I have done?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT.................If I do
PAST....................If I did

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT....................Do

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT....................To do
PAST....................To have done

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT....................Doing,
PAST....................Done
COMPUND....................Having done
Exercises.

Let the Pupils give the Class, Voice, Mode, Tense, Person, and Number of the following Verbs—and complete the sentences.

| Am writing a letter.          | Has walked to Boston.          |
| Are reading poetry.           | Hast wandered from home.        |
| Didst see the eclipse.        | Shall learn wisdom.             |
| Had known duty.               | Will improve in writing.        |
| May feel the worm.            | Could recite lessons.           |
| Ought to study.               | "Canst be false to any man."   |
| Couldst have favored him.     | Wish to see home.               |
| Thou love me.                 | Wilt have returned my books.    |
| Couldst love to study.        | Shall have returned from Europe |

Repeat the First Person Singular of each Mode and Tense of the following verbs:

| Am,   | Eat, | Neglect, | Receive, |
| Arise,| Fly, | Need,    | Reject,  |
| Begin,| Go,  | Owe,     | Select,  |
| Blow, | Hold,| Ought,   | Squander |
| Come, | Know,| Practice,| Yoke,    |
| Cut,  | Lay, | Purchase,| Touch,   |
| Do,   | Lie, | Quiet,   | Use,     |
| Drink,| Make,| Qualify, | Wish.    |

Repeat the Third Person Plural of the same.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide</td>
<td>abode</td>
<td>abode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Am or Be</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arise</td>
<td>arose</td>
<td>arisen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awake</td>
<td>awoke, r</td>
<td>awaked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bear</td>
<td>bore, bare</td>
<td>borne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bear (to sustain)</td>
<td>bore, bare</td>
<td>borne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beat</td>
<td>beat</td>
<td>beaten, beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Begin</td>
<td>began</td>
<td>begun</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Bid</td>
<td>bade, bid</td>
<td>bidden, bid</td>
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<tr>
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### Verbs—Classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Part</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bring</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Build</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burst</td>
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<td>Catch</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chide</td>
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<tr>
<td>Choose</td>
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<td>chosen</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cleave</td>
<td>cleaved,  c</td>
<td>cleaved</td>
</tr>
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<td>cloven,  cleft</td>
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<tr>
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<td>clung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothe</td>
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<td>clad,  c</td>
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<td>Cost</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dare</td>
<td>dast,  n</td>
<td>dared</td>
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<td>dreamt,  n</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink</td>
<td>drank</td>
<td>drank, drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>dwelt,  n</td>
<td>dwelt,  n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>eaten</td>
</tr>
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<td>fell</td>
<td>fallen</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
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<td>Feel</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fly</td>
<td>flew</td>
<td>flown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forbear</td>
<td>forbore</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forget</td>
<td>forgot, forgot</td>
<td>forgotten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forsake</td>
<td>forsook</td>
<td>forsaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>froze</td>
<td>froze,  frozen</td>
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</tr>
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<td>gild,  b</td>
<td>gild,  b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gird</td>
<td>girt,  b</td>
<td>girt,  b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go</td>
<td>went</td>
<td>gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grave</td>
<td>graved</td>
<td>graven, graved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grind</td>
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<td>ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grow</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hang</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Present</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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Wring .................. wrung, r .......... wrung, r
Write .................. wrote .................. written, writ

Obs. 1.—Words in the above list marked r, are sometimes used as Regular Verbs. Those written in Italics are not much used by modern writers.

Obs. 2.—A Verb often has a Preposition or other prefix placed before it; the Conjugation, however, remains the same.

EXAMPLES.
Take .................. took .................. taken.
Mistake .................. mistook ................. mistaken.
Overtake .................. overtook .................. overtaken.

Rem.—The class should repeat this list in concert—prefixing to each verb one of the Personal Pronouns. For the Third Person a Noun may be used—thus:

I write .......... I wrote .......... I have written .......... having written.
You tread ...... you trod ...... you have trod ...... having trod.
He sweeps...... he swept ...... he has swept ...... having swept.
John does ...... John did ...... John has done ...... having done.
Men sit ........ men sat ........ men have sat ........ having sat.
Some hear ...... some heard ...... some are heard ...... having heard.
They see ...... they saw ...... they are seen ...... being seen.

To the Transitive Verbs, Objects may be attached—thus:

We saw wood ......... we sawed wood ...... we have sawn wood.
Birds build nests ...... birds built nests ...... birds have built nests.

Other variations in these concert exercises may be profitable—such as placing the words now, to-day, &c., after the Present—yesterday, &c., after the Past Tense—and heretofore, recently, &c., after the Prior Present. Thus—

I begin to-day .......... I began yesterday .......... I have begun recently.
The wind blows now .......... the wind blew then .......... the wind has blown often.

UNIPERSONAL VERBS.

Def. 98. A Verb used only as the predicate of the Indefinite Pronoun "it," is called

A Unipersonal Verb.

EXAMPLES.

It snows, .......... It becomes,
It rains, .......... It behoves,
It seems, .......... It is evident.

Methinks is an anomalous form of the verb think.
ADVERBS.

Rem.—As actions are modified by circumstances, and as qualities vary in degree, so words expressing actions, and words denoting qualities, are modified by other words, denoting time, place, degree, manner, cause, &c. Hence,

Def. 99. A word used to modify the signification of a Verb, an Adjective, or another modifier, is An Adverb.

Obs. 1.—Adverbs are of great utility in rendering the language concise and spirited. They are commonly substituted for Phrases.

EXAMPLES.

“Brilliantly” . . . . for . . . . “With a brilliant appearance.”
“Solemnly” . . . . for . . . . “In a solemn manner.”
“Vainly” . . . . for . . . . “In a vain attempt.”
“Here” . . . . for . . . . “In this place.”
“Now” . . . . for . . . . “At this time.”

“Brilliantly the glassy waters mirror back his smiles.”
“Solemnly he took the earthly state.”
“Vainly we offer each ample oblation.”
“Here sleeps he now.”

Obs. 2.—An Adverb is often used as a representative for the sentence or phrase to which it belongs.

EXAMPLES—“While there we visited the Prison.”
“While we were at Auburn we visited the Prison.”
“Since then we have been friends.”
“Since that time we have been friends.”

Obs. 3.—An Adverb often modifies a Phrase.

EXAMPLES—We went almost to Boston.
Wilkes sailed quite around the world.
“Engraved expressly for the Ladies’ Garland.”

Obs. 4.—Adverbs may consist of Words, Phrases, and Sentences.

1. A Word—The very best men sometimes commit faults.
2. A Phrase—“In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth.”
3. A Sentence—“They kneeled before they fought.”

Note.—Some Sentences are properly Adverbial, when they perform the office of an Adverb—although in strict construction, they may be Principal Sentences.

There comes, methinks, amid the deaf’ning roar, a still, small voice.
Equivalent—there comes, apparently, a still, small voice.
CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

Rem.—The classes of Adverbs are very numerous—the following are the most important:

1. Time. Now, then, always, to-morrow.*
2. Place. Here, there, hither, back.
3. Degree. More, very, exceedingly, so.
4. Manner. So, as, thus, carefully.
5. Cause. Hence, therefore.
7. Number. Often, once, twice.
12. Effect. "[It shrinks] to nothing in the grasp."—Young.

MODIFICATION.

Prin. Some Adverbs are modified, like Adjectives, by comparison.

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Obs.—Some Adverbs are used only for Euphony.

Examples—There are no idlers here.
"It was now, too, mid-winter."

"E'en now, where Alpine solitudes ascend,
I sit me down, a pensive hour to spend;
And, placed on high, above the storm's career,
Look downward, where a hundred realms appear."

Now. Modifies "sit"—denoting time; hence, an Adverb.
Where Alpine solitudes ascend. Modifies "sit"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.

* To-morrow, to-day, yesterday, &c., are properly called Adverbs, when the phrases for which they are substituted would be used adverbially. As, "I go to-morrow." "When?" "On the morrow."
ADVERBS—EXERCISES.

A pensive hour } Modifies "sit"—denoting cause; hence, an Adverb.
    to spend.
On high. . . . . . . . . . . . . Modifies "placed"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.
Above the storm's } Modifies "placed"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.
career.
Downward. . . . . . . . . . . . . Modifies "look"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.
Where a hundred } Modifies "look"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.
    realms appear.

Exercises.

Let the following Adverbs be classified and their Modification given:

How,       Already,       In a moment,
Not,       Quickly,       In flower,
There,     Vilely,       O'er the ruins,
Soon,      Eagerly,      At pile.

"Noiselessly around,
From perch to perch the solitary bird
Passes."

"How is it possible not to feel a profound sense of the respon
sbleness of this republic to all future ages."

"In a moment he flew quickly past."
"For there the shield of the mighty is vilely cast away."

"Thy pencil glows in every flower;
Where Sense can reach, or Fancy rove,
From hill to field, from field to grove,
Across the wave, around the sky,
There's not a spot, nor deep, nor high,
Where the Creator has not trod,
And left the footsteps of a God."

"Eternal Hope! when yonder spheres sublime
Pealed their first notes to sound the march of Time,
Thy joyous youth began—but not to fade:
When all the sister planets have decayed;
When, wrapt in fire, the realms of ether glow,
And Heaven's last thunder shakes the world below;
Thou, undismayed, shalt o'er the ruins smile,
And light thy torch at Nature's funeral pile!"
"Earth keeps me here
Awhile; yet I shall leave it, and shall rise
On fairer wings than thine, to skies more clear."

Here........... Modifies "keeps"—denoting place; hence, Adverb of Place.
Awhile........ Modifies "keeps"—denoting time; hence, Adverb of Time.
On wings..... Modifies "rise"—denoting means; hence, Adverb of Means.
("On fairer wings than thine," is the Modified Adverb.)
Than thine... Modifies "fairer"—denoting degree; hence, Adverb of Degree.
To skies..... Modifies "rise"—denoting place; hence, Adverb of Place.
("To skies more clear," is the Modified Adverb.)
More......... Modifies "clear"—denoting degree; hence, Adverb of Degree.

"How much better satisfied he is!"

How......... Modifies "much;" hence, an Adverb.
Much....... Modifies "better;" hence, an Adverb.
Better...... Modifies "satisfied;" hence, an Adverb.

PREPOSITIONS.

Def. 100. A word used to introduce a phrase, showing the relation of its object to the word which the phrase qualifies, is

A Preposition.

LIST.
A.................. "Wild winds and mad waves drive the vessel a wreck."
About............. "We walked about town."
Above............. "There is a ferry above the falls."
Across........... "Across the lake, through bush and brake."
Aboard........... "They came aboard ship."
Aboard of........ "We succeeded in getting aboard of her."
After............. "He that cometh after me,"
Against.......... "He that is not for me, is against me."
Along............ "Winds that run along the summits of their hills."
Amid............. "We stowed them amid-ships."
Amidst........... "Amidst the mists, he thrusts his fists."
Among........... "He became a great favorite among the boys.
Amongst........ "We made diligent search amongst the rubbish."
Around........... "With his martial cloak around him."
As............... "That England can spare from her service such men as
him."—Lord Brougham.
Aslant........... "It struck aslant the beam."
Astride.......... "He sat astride the beam."
As for.......... "As for me and my house."
As to........... "As to that, I have nothing to say."
PREPOSITIONS—CLASSIFICATION.

At "He was at work, at noon."
Athwart "The dolphin leaped athwart her bows."
Before "He stood before the people."
Behind "Behind a rick of barley."
Below "The captain was below decks."
Beneath "Beneath the mouldering ruins."
Beside "Beside its embers, red and clear."
Besides "Beside punishment inflicted on this account."
Between "Between whom, perfect friendship has existed."
Betwixt "There is no difference betwixt them."
Beyond "Beyond all doubt."
But "All went but me."
But for "And but for these vile guns."
By "To sail by Ephesus. "They stood by the cross."

Concerning "Concerning whom I have before written."
Despite of "Despite of all opposition."
Devoid of "You live devoid of peace."
During "During the present administration."
Ere "And ere another evening's close."
Except "Except these bonds."
Excepting "Excepting that bad habit, the teacher was faultless."
For "For me your tributary stores combine."
From "Playful children, just let loose from school."
From among "From among thousand celestial ardors."
From between "He came from between the lakes."
From off "This lady fly I take from off the grass."

In "In the beginning."
Instead of "Instead of the thorn, shall come up the fir."
In lieu of "She has that sum in lieu of dower."
Into "Into these glassy eyes, put light."

Like "An hour like this, may well display the emptiness of human grandeur."

Near "His residence is near the church."
Next "Plural nominatives should be placed next their verbs."
Nigh "Come not nigh me."
Notwithstanding "Notwithstanding this, we remain friends."

Of "Of the arts of peace."
Off "He fell off the bows."
On "On a bed of green sea-flowers."
Opposite "Our friend lives opposite the Exchange."
Over "High o'er their heads the weapons swung."
Out of "Out of the cooling brine to leap."

Past "We came past Avon."
Per "Twelve hundred dollars per annum."
Previous to "Previous to this, his character has been good."

Respecting "Nothing was known respecting him."
Round "He went round the parish, making complaints."

"
Since. "Since Saturday, he has not been seen."
Save. "All, save this little nook of land."
Saving. "With habits commendable, saving only this—he chews tobacco."
Through. "Dian's crest floats through the azure air."
Throughout. "Nor once, throughout that dismal night."
Than. "Than whom none higher sat."
Till. "He labored hard till noon."
To. "We purpose to go to Rochester to-day."
Touching. "Touching these things, whereof I am accused."
Towards. "They returned towards evening."
Under. "Then was my horse killed under me."
Underneath. "And underneath his feet, he cast the darkness."
Unlike. "Unlike all that I had ever before seen."
Until. "We shall not return until Saturday."
Unto. "Unto him who rules the invisible armies of eternity."
Up. "The whole fleet was sailing up the river."
Upon. "Upon the word."
Via. "This stage is for Buffalo, via Batavia."
With. "With cautious steps, and slow."
Within. "Peace be within these walls."
Without. "Without it, what is man?"
Worth. "He possessed an estate, worth five thousand pounds."

Obs. 1.—The Antecedent term of relation—the word which the Phrase, introduced by a Preposition, qualifies—may be a

Noun. The house of God.
Pronoun. Who of us shall go? I care not which of you.
Adjective. It is good for nothing.
Verb. We love to study, we delight in improvement.
Participle. Jumping from a precipice.
Adverb. He is too wise to err.

Obs. 2.—The Antecedent term of the relation expressed by a Preposition, is sometimes understood."

"O refuge
Meet for fainting pilgrims [ ] on this desert way."

Note.—In the above and similar examples, the ellipsis of the antecedent word need not be supplied in parsing, unless the sense plainly requires it. But the phrase may be parsed as qualifying the word which its Antecedent would qualify, if expressed.

"Which flung its purple o'er his path to heaven."

Here the phrase "to heaven," properly modifies leading, or a word of similar office, understood. But "leading," modified by this phrase, would qualify "path." Hence the phrase, "to heaven"—as a representative of the whole phrase "leading to heaven"—may be attached to "path."
OBS. 3.—Prepositions introducing Substantive and Independent Phrases, have no Antecedents.

Examples—“As for me and my house, we will serve the Lord.”
“And, on the whole, the sight was very painful.”—Todd.
“O for a lodge in some vast wilderness.”—Cowper.

OBS. 4.—The Consequent term of relation may be,
A Word . . . “He stood before the people.”
A Sentence . . “And cries of—live for ever—struck the skies.”

OBS. 5.—The Consequent term of relation—Object—is sometimes understood,

Examples—“And the waves are white below [ ].”
“These crowd around [ ] to ask him of his health.”

Many grammarians call these Prepositions, Adverbs. This is true, with this modification—they are Prepositions, having their objects understood. But, as the Phrases of which they form parts, are always used adverbially, the Prepositions—as representatives of their Phrases, are Adverbs. Hence, when thus used, each Preposition performs a double office—Prepositional, as leader of the Phrase—Adverbial, as representative of the Phrase.

OBS. 6.—The Preposition is often understood—generally when its Phrase follows verbs of giving, selling, coming, &c.

Examples—Mary gave [ ] me a rose—Mary gave a rose to me.
I sold [ ] Mr. Shepard my wheat—sold wheat to Shepard.
William has gone from home to-day—he will come [ ] home to-morrow.
These crowd around. Mary gave me a rose.

“Me” and “around” are—in the same sense, and by the same rule—Adverbs, viz.: as representatives of the Adverbial Phrases to which they severally belong. As words, simply, “me” is a Pronoun—object of to understood; “around” is a Preposition—showing a relation of “crowd” and “him,” understood.

OBS. 7.—Prepositions are sometimes incorporated with their Objects.

Examples—I go a-fishing. He fell a-sleep. Come a-board.

OBS. 8.—Prepositions are sometimes used in predication with Verbs.

Examples—Its idle hopes are o’er. That was not thought of.

OBS. 9.—A Preposition commonly indicates the office of the Phrase which it introduces.

In, on, under, above, &c., indicate a relation of place, including the idea of rest.

William’s hat is in the hall, on the stool, under the table.
From, to, into, through, out of, &c., indicate a relation of place, with the idea of motion.

"We came from New York to Boston."

Of, generally indicates a relation of possession.

"The lay of the last minstrel"—the last minstrel's lay.

As, like, than, &c., indicate a relation of comparison.

"Thou hast been wiser all the while than me."—Southey's Letters.

During, till, since, &c., indicate a relation of time.

"We have vacation during the whole month of July."

"Since Saturday, we have not seen him."

But, as the kind of relation expressed by a given Preposition is not uniform, no perfect classification can be made.

For other observations on Prepositions, see Part III—Prepositions.

Exercises.

"Where streams of earthly joy exhaustless rise."

Of....Shows a relation of "streams" and "joy."..Hence, a Preposition.

"O refuge
Meet for fainting pilgrims."

For..Shows a relation of "meet" and "pilgrims."..Hence, a Preposition.

"On the plains,
And spangled fields, and in the mazy vales,
The living throngs of earth before Him fall,
With thankful hymns, receiving from His hands
Immortal life and gladness."

On........Shows a relation of [existing, understood, which qualifies] "throngs," and "plains and fields." Hence,... a Preposition.

In........Shows a relation of [existing, understood, which qualifies] "throngs" and "vales." Hence,... a Preposition.

Of........Shows a relation of "throngs" and "earth"....a Preposition.

Before ....Shows a relation of "fall" and "him." Hence, a Preposition.

With .....Shows a relation of [worshipping, or some equivalent word understood, which qualifies] "throngs," and "hymns." Hence,..................a Preposition.

"The chief fault of Coleridge lies in the style, which has been justly objected to on account of its obscurity, general turgidness of diction, and a profusion of new-coined double epithets."

"Southey, among all our living poets, stands aloof, and 'alone in his glory.' For he alone of them all has adventured to illustrate, in poems of magnitude, the different characters, customs, and manners of nations."
CONJUNCTIONS.

Rem.—It should be remembered that Prepositions connect words by showing a relation.

Another class of words is used simply to connect words and phrases, similar in construction, and to introduce sentences. Hence,

Def. 101. A word used to join Words or Phrases, or to introduce a Sentence, is

A Conjunction.

Examples.—Homer and Henry have perfect lessons, because they study diligently.

Rem.—In this example, “and” connects “Homer” and “Henry”—two words having the same construction—and “because” introduces an Auxiliary Sentence.

List.—The following are the principal words which are commonly used as Conjunctions.

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Rem.—A few other words are sometimes used as Conjunctions.

Obs. 1.—Conjunctions used to introduce Auxiliary Sentences, and some others, constitute also an index or type of the office of the sentence which they introduce.

Examples—“If he repent, forgive him.”

“As you journey, sweetly sing.”

In these examples, “if,” renders its sentence conditional:—“as,” indicates that its sentence (“you journey”) modifies “sing,” in respect to time.

Note.—When, As, Since, and many other conjunctions used to introduce Auxiliary Sentences are called, by some Grammarians, Conjunctive Adverbs. “And the rest will I set in order when I come.” We are told that
"when," in the above example, is an Adverb of Time, relating to the two verbs "will set," and "come."

We are also told (and properly), that Adverbs of time are those which answer to the question "when?"

But does "when," in the above example, "answer to the question when?" Certainly not. Then it cannot be an Adverb of Time. But the Auxiliary Sentence, "when I come," does "answer to the question when." It tells when "I will set the rest in order." Hence the sentence, "when I come," is an Adverb of Time; and the word "when"—used only to introduce that sentence—connecting it to "will set," is a Conjunction. [See the preceding observation.]

Obs. 2.—The conjunction nor generally performs a secondary office—that of a negative Adverb—

"Man wants but little here below,
Nor wants that little long."

In this example, "nor" introduces the sentence, and also gives it a negative signification.

The conjunction "lest" has sometimes a similar construction.

"Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty."

Obs. 3.—Double Conjunctions.—Two conjunctions are sometimes used to introduce the same sentence.

Examples—"It seems as if they were instructed by some secret instinct."
"And yet, fair bow, no fabling dreams."

As though, but that, and some other words, are often used as double conjunctions.

Obs. 4.—But, when an Auxiliary Sentence precedes a Principal Sentence, the conjunctions introducing them are not to be regarded as double, although they may be in juxtaposition. [See this Obs.]

[For other observations, the student is referred to Part III. Conjunctions.]

Exercises.

"God created the heaven and the earth."
And. . . . . . . Connects "heaven" and "earth;" hence. . . . . . a Conjunction.
"Temperance and frugality promote health and secure happiness."
And. . . . . . . Connects "temperance" and "frugality;" hence, a Conjunction.
And. . . . . . . Connects "promote" and "secure;" hence. . . . a Conjunction.

"And the eyes of the sleepers waxed deadly and chill."
And. . . . . . . Introduces a sentence; hence. . . . . . . . . a Conjunction.
And. . . . . . . Connects "deadly" and "chill," hence. . . . a Conjunction.
"And oft have I the painful lesson conned,
    When disappointment mocked my wooing heart,
Still of its own delusion weakly fond,
    And from forbidden pleasures loth to part,
Though shrinking oft beneath correction's deepest smart."

And.....Introduces a Principal Sentence; hence......a Conjunction.
When.....Introduces an Auxiliary Sentence (which modifies "conned"—
denoting time); hence.....................a Conjunction.
And.....Connects "fond" and "both;" hence..............a Conjunction.
Though......Connects "both" and "shrinking;" hence......a Conjunction.

EXCLAMATION.

Def. 102. A word used to express a sudden or intense emotion, is

An Exclamation.

Obs. 1.—Exclamations may consist—
1. Of Letters—as, O! Oh! Ah! Lo!
2. Of Words—commonly used as Nouns, Adjectives,
    Verbs, and Adverbs—as, Wo! Strange! Hark!
    Really! Behold! Shocking!
3. Of Phrases—for shame!
4. Of Sentences—O, Ephraim! how can I give thee up!

Obs. 2.—Exclamations are followed by—
Words—"O, Liberty!" "Ah, the treasure!"
Phrases—"O, for a lodge in some vast wilderness!"
Sentences—"O, bear me to some solitary cell!"

Rem.—The term Exclamation is preferred to Interjection, as being
more appropriate to its office.

Exclaim—"to cry out." This we do with the use of Exclamations.
Interject—"to cast between." We very seldom cast these words
between others—they are generally placed before other words.

WORDS OF EUPHONY.

Def. 103. A word used chiefly for the sake of sound, is

A Word of Euphony.

Rem.—[For the various uses of Words of Euphony, see Part I., page 10.]
Obs.—Words of Euphony may be such as are commonly used
as any other "part of speech." In parsing, a word is to be called a Word of Euphony, only when its chief office is Rhetorical.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Adverbs—Prepositions—Conjunctions—Exclamations.

What is an Adverb?
Why are they used?
For what are they often substituted?
Adverbs may consist of what?
What are the classes of Adverbs?
Are Adverbs Modified? In what respect?
When is an Adverb used only for Euphony?
What is a Preposition?
What is the "Antecedent term of relation"?
The Antecedent may consist of what?
Is it always expressed? Examples?
When is it not to be expressed?
What is the "Consequent term of relation"?
The Consequent may consist of what?
Is it always expressed? Examples?
When not expressed, what offices does the Preposition perform?
Is the Preposition always expressed?
What is a Conjunction?
What Conjunctions are used only to introduce Auxiliary Sentences?
What is said of the Conjunctions nor, lest, &c.?
What are double Conjunctions?
What is an Exclamation?
Exclamations may consist of what?
Exclamations are followed by what?
What is a word of Euphony?

WORDS VARYING IN THEIR ETYMOLOGY.

Rem.—Words are similar in Orthoepy, when they are pronounced with the same sound of the same letter.

Examples—There, their; all, awl.

They are similar in Orthography, when they are formed by the same letters, similarly arranged.

Examples—Read, read; extract, extract.

They are similar in Etymology, when they perform a similar office in the construction of a phrase or sentence.

But it is plain that words similar in Orthoepy differ in their Orthography—and words of similar Orthography perform widely different offices in different connections.

It should always be remembered by the scholar, that the office of a word—not its shape—determines its Etymology.
Among the words of similar Orthography that differ in their Etymology, are the following:

A Adj Webster wrote a Dictionary—Walker wrote another.
A Prep Wild winds and mad waves drive the vessel a wreck.
About Prep He wandered about the country.
About Adv He is about fifty years of age.
Above Prep He stands above us.
Above Adv He is above forty years of age.
After Prep He that cometh after me.
After Conj He came after you left.
After Conj He was in the after part of the ship.
As Prep To redeem such a rebel as me.—Wesley.
As Conj Just as the twig is bent the tree's inclined.
As Adv Nature, as far as art can do it, should be imitated.
As Pron Such as I have give I unto thee.
Before Prep He stood before the people.
Before Conj They kneeled before they fought.
Both Adj Situated on both sides of the river.
Both Pron Lepidus flatters both, of both is flattered.
Both Conj And now he is both loved and respected.
But Prep All but me were rewarded.
But Conj I go—but I return.
But Adv If we go, we can but die.
But Verb I cannot but rejoice at his unexpected prosperity.
Ere Prep And ere another evening's close.
Ere Conj And ere we could arrive [at] the point proposed.
For Prep They traveled for pleasure.
For Conj He cannot be a scholar, for he will not study.
Like Prep Nature all blooming like thee.
Like Conj Like causes produce like effects.
Near Adj At the near approach of the star of day.
Near Prep We live near the springs.
Near Adv Books were never near so numerous.
Neither Adj He can debate on neither side of the question.
Neither Pron We saw neither of them.
Neither Conj The boy could neither read nor write.
Next Adj The next generation.
Next Prep Adjectives should be placed next their substantives.
Off Adj The off ox should keep the furrow.
Off Prep William fell off the load.
Only Conj Virtue only makes us happy.
Only Adv Only observe what a swarm is running after her.
Opposite Conj On the opposite bank of the river.
Opposite Prep We stood opposite the Exchange.
Past Conj A past transaction.
Past Prep It was past mid-day.
Round Conj Like the round ocean.
Round Prep Flung round the bier.
Still Conj Still waters reflect a milder light.
Still Adv Still struggling, he strives to stand.
Still Conj Still, the reflection has troubled me.
Since Prep Since yesterday, we have taken nothing.
Since .... Conj .... Since I cannot go, I will be contented here.
So .... Adj .... Solomon was wise—we are not so.
So .... Adj .... So calm, so bright.
Than .... Conj .... She is more nice than wise.
Than .... Prep .... Than whom none higher sat.
Than .... Pron .... We have more than heart can wish.
That .... Adj .... That book is mine.
That .... Pron. Rel. Him that cometh unto me.
That .... Pron. Adj. Forgive me my soul murder? that cannot be
That .... Conj .... I am glad that he has lived thus long.
Then .... Adv .... Then, when I am thy captive, talk of chains.
Then .... Conj .... Then I'll look up.
Then .... Pron .... Till then.
Till .... Prep .... They labored hard till night.
Till .... Conj .... Till I come, give attention to reading.
Until .... Prep .... From morn, even until night.
Until .... Conj .... Until the day dawn.
What .... Adj .... At what hour did you arrive?
What .... Inter. Pron What does it avail?
What .... Exclama. What! is thy servant a dog!
Within .... Prep .... To inscribe a circle within a circle.
Within .... Adj .... Received on the within bond, five hundred dollars.

OBSERVATIONS ON SOME OF THE FOREGOING WORDS.

As.... When this word introduces a sentence, it is properly called a Conjunction.

Example—“As ye journey, sweetly sing.”

When it introduces a phrase, it is a preposition, and is then generally equivalent to the preposition for.

Examples—“He gave me this as the latest news from the army.”
“I am always fearful, lest I should tell you that for news, with which you are well acquainted.”—Cooper.
“For example.”
“I mention these as a few exemplifications.”
“And melancholy marked him for her own.”—Gray.
“They will seek out some particular herb which they do not use as food.”—Taylor.
“His friends were counted as his enemies.”—Sigourney.
“All mark thee for a prey.”—Cooper.

The above examples clearly indicate that as is sometimes a Preposition.

Rem.—Many Grammarians insist that as, in the above and similar examples, “must be a Conjunction, because, in most cases, it connects words in opposition.
The same is true of other Prepositions.

Examples—In the city of New York.
"—thy shadowy hand was seen
Writing thy name of Death."—Pollock.

I thought you an honest man.
I took you for an honest man.
All, old and young, went.
All, from the oldest to the youngest, went.
And cries of—live forever—struck the skies."

We do not claim that these examples contain words precisely in apposition—*as much so, however, as any cases claimed to be connected by as."

As—is often used (by ellipsis of one or more words) as a Pronoun. [See Rem. on *than*, below.]

But... This word—like most Conjunctions—is derived from a Saxon Verb signifying "except"—"set aside"—"fail," &c. [See Webster’s Improved Grammar.]

In the list above given, the word retains its original signification and office.

**Examples**—"I cannot but rejoice."
I cannot fail—omit to rejoice.

Here "but" is a Verb—Potential Mode—and "rejoice" is a Verb—Infinitive Mode, depending on "but."

*But* is also used instead of the words, *if it were not.*

"And but for these vile guns, he would himself have been a soldier."

**Like...** When this word qualifies a word, it is an Adjective—when it represents its noun, it is an Adjective Pronoun. But when it shows a relation of two words, it is a Preposition.

**Examples**—"These armies once lived, and breathed, and felt like us."—Morgan.

"An hour like this, may well display the emptiness of human grandeur."

**Than...** This word always expresses comparison, and comparison implies a relation. When this relation is expressed by words, *than* is a Preposition. When it is expressed by sentences; and when words, phrases, or sentences, are merely connected by it, it is a Conjunction. The use of it as a Preposition is sanctioned by good authority—ancient and modern

**Examples**—"They are stronger than lions."
"Thou shalt have no other Gods than me."—Com. Prayer.
"But in faith, she had been wiser than me."—Southey.
"Their works are more perfect than those of men."—Taylor.
Many words are used as Prepositions or Conjunctions, according as they introduce Phrases or Sentences.

Examples—John arrived before me.
John arrived before I did.
John arrived a little earlier than I [than me].
John arrived a little earlier than I did.
John arrived as soon as I [as me].
John arrived as soon as I did.

Before me"... Is a Phrase, used to modify “arrived;” hence, an Adverb.
“Before I did”. Is a Sentence, used to modify “arrived;” hence, an Adverb.
“Than I”. ... Is a Phrase, used to modify “arrived;” hence, an Adverb.
“Than I did”. Is a Sentence, used to modify “arrived;” hence, an Adverb.
“As I”. ... Is a Phrase, used to modify “arrived;” hence, an Adverb.
“As I did”. ... Is a Sentence, used to modify “arrived;” hence, an Adverb.

Of the many words thus used as Prepositions and Conjunctions, custom allows two—as and than—to be followed by Pronouns in the Nominative form.

Examples—“Thou art wiser than I.”*

Than is also used as a Pronoun, when it is the subject or object of a Verb; as—“He does no more than is done by the rabbit.” “Than,” in this example, is the subject of “is done”—hence, a Pronoun. But in this and similar examples, it may become a Preposition by supplying the ellipsis; as—“He does no more than [that which] is done by the rabbit.” This is probably the more correct rendering.

That... This word is primarily an Adjective. But it is also used as a Pronoun. And, in consequence of the obscurity of an ellipsis (which may be generally supplied), it is often used as a Conjunction.

Examples—“He demanded that payment should be made.”

This may be resolved into two sentences.

“Payment should be made.”

“He demanded that.”

Here “that” is the object of “demanded,” and is substituted for the whole of the former sentence. But, as the sense is not

* Shall we—as some Grammarians insist—call “than” a Conjunction, and require the “ellipsis to be supplied?” Thou art wiser than I am wiser! Thou art wiser than I am wise!

Shall the modification of one word determine the etymology of another connected with it? Should not rather the office of each word determine its etymology, and the etymology thus determined, determine the form of another word depending on it for sense?
VARIABLE OFFICES OF WORDS.

105

obscured, and as a perplexing tautology is thereby obviated, I prefer to call it a Conjunction. It is commonly used to introduce an Auxiliary Sentence—and when it follows a Transitive Verb, the Auxiliary is the logical object of the Phrase or Sentence. (See Diagram 24, page 32.)

WORTH. Worth indicates value—and value implies a relation—and relation of words is commonly expressed by a Preposition.

Example—"He possessed an estate worth five hundred pounds per annum."

"He has an annuity of five hundred pounds."

This word is used also as a Noun.

Example—"He was a man of great worth."

So . . . . . The word so, is commonly used as an Adverb. But it is often used as a substitute for a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence.

Examples—You are industrious—not so.
John has become a good scholar.
So I predicted.

It is sometimes a Conjunction used for if.

Examples—"I'll frown, and be perverse, and say thee nay,
So thou wilt woo."—Juliet.

THE TWOFOLD OFFICE OF SOME WORDS.

Obs.—Some words perform, at the same time, two distinct offices—a primary and a secondary office.

"The surging billows and the gamboling storms
'Come, crouching, to his feet.'"

Here "surging"—being derived from the verb surge, and partaking of the nature of that verb by denoting a particular kind or mode of action—is a modification of a Verb—a Participle. But, because it is here used as descriptive of "billows"—denoting a condition of billows—it is an Adjective. And this being the principal use of the word in this connection, we call it a Verbal Adjective.

The same remarks apply to "gamboling," as descriptive of "storms."

"Crouching"—being derived from the verb crouch, and partaking of the nature of that verb by denoting a particular kind or mode of action—is a modification of a Verb—a Participle. But, because it is here used to modify "come"—denoting the manner of the action expressed by that word—it is an Adverb. And, this being the principal use of the word in this connection, we call it an Adverb.
Here the word "gold," being the name of a metal, is a Noun. But, because it is here used to indicate a kind of pen [not with respect to its shape or size, but] with respect to its material, it is an Adjective. And this last, being its principal office, is the office in which it is recognized—and we parse it accordingly. The Noun becomes an Adjective.

Nor—composed of not and other—retains the offices of its elements.

"Nor will I at my humble lot repine."

Here "nor"—being used to modify "repine"—is an Adverb of Negation. But, because it introduces a Sentence, additional to a former Sentence, it is a Conjunction: like many other conjunctions, it indicates the office of the sentence which it introduces, making it negative.

Obs.—Some words perform an individual office, and at the same time a representative office.

2. Bring to me that book.
3. Bring me that book.

Equivalent sentences, each correct.

In the examples above, "Hither" modifies "bring;" hence, it is an Adverb. "To me" modifies "bring;" hence, it is an Adverb. [To] "me" modifies "bring;" hence, it is an Adverb.

"Me," in the third example, as a representative for the Phrase (to me) of which it is a part, is an Adverb. But, being used for a Noun, it is a Pronoun; and, as the object of the phrase, is in the Objective Case.

"The captain had gone below."

"Below" shows a relation of "had gone" to deck understood. Hence, it is a Preposition.

"Below (deck)" Modifies "had gone" (denoting place). Hence, it is an Adverb.

"Below, "As a representative of its (Adverbial) Phrase, modifies "had gone" (denoting place). Hence, it is an Adverb.

For farther illustrations, see Obs. 5 and 6, page 95.

Rem.—A careful examination of the genius of the English language will disclose the fact, that a great majority of words perform at the same time two or more distinct offices. The Rule to be observed in parsing is, that a word should be parsed according to its principal office in the sentence.


Pru. "The office of a word in a Sentence determines its place in the Diagram." Then

Obs.—When a Sentence is properly placed in Diagram, the young pupil can easily determine the office (and consequently the class) of each word, and its most important modifications. Thus in the Diagram above, 1 and 25 occupy the place of Nouns or Pronouns, which must be in the Nominative Case.

2, 7, 11, and 26, are Verbs—2, 11, and 26, are Transitive—7 is Intransitive.

3 and 12 are Nouns or Pronouns, and must be in the Objective Case.

22 and 16 may be Nouns, Pronouns, or Infinitive Verbs, and are Objects of Prepositions.

4, 5, 13, 14, 20, are Adjectives.

8, 9, are Adverbs.

17, 18, 19, 23, 24, are Adjectives—if 22, 16, are Nouns or Pronouns. They are Adverbs—if 22, 16, are Infinitive Verbs.

6 and x are Relative Pronouns—6 is in the Nominative Case—x is in the Objective Case.

6 to 19, inclusive, constitute an Adjective Sentence, which describes (1.)

(25, 26, x,) constitute an Adjective Sentence, which describes (22.)

(21, 22, 23, 24,) and (15, 16, 17, 18, 19,) constitute Phrases—and, because they are attached to 3 and 12, they are Adjectives. 21 and 15 are Prepositions.

0 and 10 are Conjunctions—0 introduces a Sentence—10 connects two words.

The Sentence to which this Diagram is applicable is Complex. The Principal Sentence is Simple—Transitive—the Subject of which is qualified by two Words and one Sentence—the Object is qualified by one Word and one Phrase.
The Sentence which is Auxiliary to the Subject of the Principal Sentence is a Compound Mixed Sentence—its first Predicate being Intransitive, the second Transitive.

The Teacher will find exercises of this sort beneficial chiefly to beginners, who may be associated with more advanced scholars.

EXERCISES IN ETYMOLOGICAL ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

“Every motive therefore, of justice and of policy, of dignity and prudence, urges you to allay the ferment in America, by a removal of your troops from Boston; ‘by a repeal of your Acts of Parliament; and by a demonstration of amicable dispositions towards your Colonies.”—Pitt.

“From the shore,
Eat into caverns by the restless wave,
And forest-rustling mountains, comes a voice,
That solemn sounding, bids the world prepare.”

Thomson.

“There Joy gilds the mountains, all purple and bright;
And Peace, in the vales, rests in gentle repose;
And Love, like a spirit of beauty and light,
Breathes sweetness abroad, on the air as it blows”

F. S. Jewelle.

“There is a stern round tower of other days,
Firm as a fortress, with its fence of stone;
Such as an army’s baffled strength delays,
Standing with half its battlements alone,
And with two thousand years of Ivy overgrown.”—Byron.

“Amidst the murmuring fountains
Of everlasting life,
Thy spirit like a bounding bark,
With song and gladness rife,
Goes gliding to the palmy shore,
That lies in sunny light before.”—Hesperian.

“Let me hear thy voice awake, and bid her
Give me new and glorious hopes, like sunbeams,
Gleaming thro’ the dark, but scattering clouds;
And strength of soul, to outbrave the thunder blast,
And like the eagle, sunward, mount, o’er rock,
And cloud, and storm, forever.”—F. S. Jewelle.
“The firmament grows brighter
With every golden grain,
As handful after handful
Falls on the azure plain.”—G. Dusfield, Jr.

“He sang the fond,
The wild imaginings of his young heart,
For which he gave up home, and friends, and all;
And his sweet tones were clear, and calmly proud:
But, when he told the life of misery,
The breaking bubble, the sad heart, the fame,
Of which too late he proved the emptiness,
His notes were faint and cheerless as the heart
Which sang them.”—Miss Timble.

“The walls
That close the Universe with crystal in,
Are eloquent with voices that proclaim
The unseen glories of immensity,
In harmonies, too perfect and too high
For aught but beings of celestial mould,
And speak to man in one eternal hymn,
Unfading beauty, and unyielding power.”—Percvai.

“The silver tide will bear thee,
Amid the sound and bloom,
Of many a green and blessed isle,
Whose shining banks illume
Each wandering bark, and pathway dim
Along the passing billows' brim.”—Hesperian.

“For lo! ten thousand torches flame and flare
Upon the midnight air,
Blotting the lights of heaven
With one portentous glare.
Behold the fragrant smoke in many a fold
Ascending floats along the fiery sky,
And hangeth visible on high,
A dark, and waving canopy!”—Southey.

“O liberty! I wait for thee,
To break this chain and dungeon bar;
I hear thy spirit calling me,
Deep in the frozen north afar,
With voice like God’s, and visage like a star.”

_Excelsior_
"A sound system of government requires the people to read, and inform themselves upon political subjects; else they are the prey of every quack, every imposter, and every agitator, who may practise his trade in the country."—Ld. Brougham.

"His Lordship knew full well, that the circulation of Newspapers would create a spirit of inquiry, that would search all the hidden abominations of royalty; would rouse to free thought the slaves of custom and despotic favor; would strip from titled oppressors the gaudy covering which dazzles the unthinking multitude; would develop a moral power, that would sweep away every stronghold of error and wrong."

H. T. B—

"Greece has had most abundant cause to mourn on account of the wide-spread influence of this great enemy of the human race."—Dwight.

"Our ablest patriots are looking out on the deep vexed with storms, with great forebodings and failings of heart, for fear of the things that are coming upon us."—Bucher.

"It has been the work of the Coalition to destroy all; to place Italy again under the galling yoke of Austria; to take from her, with political liberty, civil and religious freedom, and even freedom of thought; to corrupt her morals, and to heap upon her the utmost degree of degradation."—Sismondi.

"What we do at home, we do for Europe, and in Europe."—Mitchell.

"After some hours' carnage, during which the streets ran with blood, peace was restored."—Sumner.

"I firmly believe, that the salvation of our country is the hope of the world."—Howes.

"Suddenly the clouds broke and the storm rolled off toward Franconia, to burst upon the plains of Saxony."—Schiller.

"With peculiar satisfaction I add, that information has been received from an agent deputed on our part to Algiers, importing that the terms of a treaty with the Dey and regency of that country have been adjusted in such a manner as to authorize the expectation of a speedy peace, and the restoration of our unfortunate fellow-citizens from a grievous captivity."

Washington.

"The Barbary States, after the decline of the Arabian power, seem to be enveloped in darkness, rendered more palpable by the increasing light among the Christian nations."—Sumner.
PART III.

Six treats of the construction of sentences determining the relation, agreement, and relation of words.

I. Principles and Definitions to be noticed in Analysis and Construction.

SENTENCES.

A Sentence is an assemblage of words so arranged as to express an entire proposition.

A Sentence consists of

- Principal Parts
- Adjectives

The Principal Parts of a Sentence are those words necessary to make the unqualified assertion.

The Adjectives of a Sentence are the words used to modify or describe other words in the Sentence.

The Principal Parts of a Sentence are

- The Subject,
- The Predicate,
- The Object.

The Subject of a Sentence is that concerning which something is asserted.

The Predicate is the word or words that assert something of the Subject.

The Object of a Sentence is that on which the act expressed by the Predicate terminates.

X. The Subject of a Sentence may be

A Word, A Phrase, or A Sentence.
XI. A Word used as the Subject or Object of a Sentence may be A NOUN, or A PRONOUN.

Common or Proper.
Personal, Relative, Interrogative, Adjective.

XII. Nouns and Pronouns are of the Masculine Gender, Feminine Gender, or Neuter Gender.

XIII. Nouns and Pronouns are of the First Person, Second Person, or Third Person.

XIV. Nouns and Pronouns are of the Singular Number, or Plural Number.

XV. The Subject of a Sentence is in the Nominative Case.

XVI. The Object of a Sentence is in the Objective Case.

XVII. The Grammatical Predicate of a Sentence is A VERB.

with or without Another VERB, A PARTICIPLE, An ADJECTIVE, A NOUN, A PRONOUN, or A PREPOSITION.

Indicative Mode, Potential Mode, Subjunctive Mode, Imperative Mode.

XVIII. A VERB in Predication may be in the

Prior Past Tense, Past Tense, Present Tense, Present Tense, Future Tense, Future Tense.

Prior Past Tense, Past Tense, Present Tense, Present Tense, Past Tense, Present Tense.

XIX. A VERB in Predication must agree with its Subject in Person and Number.
XX. The Adjuncts of a Sentence are \{ Primary \}
\{ Secondary. \}

XXI. Primary Adjuncts are attached to the Principal Parts of a Sentence or Phrase.

XXII. Secondary Adjuncts are attached to other Adjuncts.

XXIII. Adjuncts may consist of \{ Words, Phrases, or Sentences. \}
\{ Qualifying, \}
\{ Specifying, \}
\{ Verbal. \}
\{ Time, Place, Degree, Manner, Cause, etc., etc. \}

XXIV. Words, Phrases, and Sentences used as Adjuncts are
\{ ADJ. \}
\{ specifying, \}
\{ Verbal. \}
\{ Time, Place, Degree, Manner, Cause, etc., etc. \}

XXV. A Sentence may be \{ Intransitive or Transitive, Simple or Compound, Principal or Auxiliary. \}

XXVI. An Intransitive Sentence has no Object.

XXVII. A Transitive Sentence has an Object.

XXVIII. A Simple Sentence has all its Principal Parts Single.

XXIX. A Compound Sentence has some of its Principal Parts Compound.

XXX. A Principal Sentence asserts a Principal Proposition.

XXXI. An Auxiliary Sentence asserts a Dependent Proposition.

XXXII. Conjunctions introduce Sentences, and connect Words and Phrases.
XXXIII. A Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

XXXIV. An Exclamation has no dependent Construction.

XXXV. A Word of Euphony is, in its office, chiefly rhetorical.

II. PHRASES.

XXXVI. A Phrase is two or more words properly arranged, not constituting an entire proposition; but performing a distinct etymological office.

XXXVII. A Phrase consists of Principal Parts and Adjuncts

XXXVIII. The Principal Parts of a Phrase are those words necessary to its structure.

XXXIX. The Adjuncts of a Phrase are words used to modify or describe other words.

XL. The Principal Parts { The Leading Word, of a Phrase are } The Subsequent Word.

XLI. The Leading Word of a Phrase, is the word used to introduce the Phrase—generally connecting its Subsequent to the word which the Phrase qualifies.

XLII. The Subsequent Word of a Phrase, is the word which follows the Leading Word as its object—depending on it for sense.

XLIII. The Adjuncts may consist of Adjective Words, or Adverbial Phrases, or Sentences.

XLIV. A Phrase is Transitive or Intransitive.

XLV. A Transitive Phrase is one whose Subsequent (Infinitive Verb or Participle) asserts an action which terminates on an Object.

XLVI. An Intransitive Phrase is one whose Subsequent is a Noun or Pronoun, or a Verb or Participle having no Object.
XLVII. A Phrase is, in form, \{ \text{Prepositional,} \\
\text{Participial,} \\
\text{Infinitive, or} \\
\text{Independent.} \}

XLVIII. A Prepositional Phrase is one that is introduced by a Preposition—having a Noun, a Pronoun (Word, Phrase, or Sentence), or a Participle, for its object of relation.

XLIX. A Participial Phrase is one that is introduced by a Participle—being followed by an Object of an action, or by an Adjunct.

L. An Infinitive Phrase is one that is introduced by the preposition to—having a Verb in the Infinitive Mode as its Object of relation.

LI. An Independent Phrase is one that is introduced by a Noun or Pronoun—having a Participle depending on it.

LII. A Phrase is Compound, when it has two or more Leaders or Subsequents.

LIII. A Phrase is Complex, when one of its Principal Parts is qualified by another Phrase.

Remark.—Words combined into a Sentence, have a relation to each other—a relation which often determines their forms. The principal Modifications of words as treated in Part II. of this work, are those of form—and these forms vary according to their relation to other words. Thus, in speaking of Frederick, I may say, "he assisted James." Here "he" stands for the name of Frederick; and that form of the Pronoun is used to denote that Frederick was the agent of the action—the Subject of the Verb. But if I say, "him James assisted," I make quite a different assertion, not because I speak of different persons or of a different act, but, because I use a different modification of the word "he."

But the form does not always determine the office of words in a Sentence.

I may say, Frederick assisted James,
And, James assisted Frederick.

Here, although I use the same words, and the same form of those words, I make two widely different assertions. The difference in the assertions in these examples, is caused by the change of position of the words. Hence, the laws of Agreement and Arrangement of words in the construction of Sentences.

Rem.—As Diagrams are of great service in constructing sentences, by serving as tests of the grammatical correctness of a composition, they are inserted in Part III. It is hoped that the teacher will not fail to require the class to write sentences which shall contain words in every possible condition, and in every variety of modification. Young pupils should be required to place the sentences in Diagrams.
ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

BY THE CHART.

EXERCISES ON THE CHART

The following exercises will exhibit the proper method of using the Chart in Etymological parsing.

If the large Chart is used, the attention of the whole class should be directed to it—one of the students using a "pointer" as he repeats the construction of each word, according to the formulae given below.

It is well for beginners in Etymological parsing to have the sentence to be parsed, first placed in Diagram on the black-board.

In the following exercises, the words or parts of words which are printed in capitals, may be found on the Chart.

1. Animals run.

Animals...Part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Subject—Word—Noun—Com. (common)—Mas. (masculine) Gender—Third Person—Plur. (plural) Number—Nominative Case.

Run......Part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Predicate—Verb—Indicative Mode—Present Tense.

2. Mary is reading.

Mary.......Part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Subject—Word—Noun—Proper—Fem. (feminine) Gender—Third Person—Sing. (singular) Number—Nominative Case.

Is reading....Part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Predicate—Verb and Part. (participle)—Verb is in the Indicative Mode—Present Tense.

Reading.....Part of the Sentence—Principal Part—used in Predicat. (predication) with "is."

3. He might have been respected.

He.........Part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Subject—Word—Pron. (pronoun)—Pers. (personal)—Mas. (masculine) Gender—Third Person—Sing. (singular) Number—Nominative Case.
Might have been respected. Part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Predicate—(two verbs and two Part. (participles)—Verb is in the Potential Mode—Prior Past Tense.

4. His palsied hand waxed strong.

His........ Part of the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—Word—Adjective—Spec. (specifying)—Posses. (possessive.)

Palsied........ Part of the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—Word—Adjective—Verbal—Intran. (intransitive.)


Waxed strong. Part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Predicate—(Verb and Adj. (adjective)—Verb is in the Indicative Mode—Past Tense.

Strong......... Part of the Sentence—Adj. (adjective)—used in Predicat. (predication) with "waxed."

5. That good men sometimes commit faults cannot be denied.

That good men sometimes commit faults is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Subject—Sentence—Substantive—Simple—Trans. 

Cannot be denied... is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Predicate—(two verbs and a Part. (participle)—Verb is in the Potential Mode—Present Tense.

Not............ is a part of the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—Word—Adverb—of Negation.

6. He hears the thunder ere the tempest lowers.

He ............ is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Subject—Word—Pron. (pronoun)—Pers. (personal)—Mas. (masculine) Gender—Third Person—Sing. (singular) Number—Nominative Case.

Hears........ is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Predicate—Verb—Indicative Mode—Present Tense.

The............ is a part of the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—Word—Adj. (adjective)—Spec. (specifying)—Pure.

Thunder....... is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Object—Word—Noun—Com. (common)—Neut. (neuter) Gender—Third Person—Sing. (singular) Number—Object Case.

Ere the tempest lowers is a part of the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—Sentence—Adv. (adverbial)—Simple (simple)—Intrans (intransitive.)

7. Too low they build who build beneath the stars.

Too......... is a part of the Sentence—Adjunct—Secondary—Word—Adverb—of degree.
EXERCISES ON THE CHART.

Low ........ is a part of the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—Word—Adverb—of Place.
They....... is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Subject—Word—Pron. (pronoun)—Pers. (personal)—Mas. (masculine) Gender—Third Person—Plur. (plural) Number—Nominative Case.
Build....... is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Predicate—Verb—Indicative Mode—Present Tense.
Who build beneath the stars ...... }—Adjunct—Primary—Sentence—Adject. (adjective)—Simple—Intrans. (intransitive.)
Who ....... is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Subject—Word—Pron. (pronoun)—Rel. (relative)—Mas. (masculine) Gender—Third Person—Plur. (plural) Number—Nominative Case.
Build....... is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Predicate—Verb—Indicative Mode—Present Tense.
Beneath ... is a part of the Sentence—Adjunct—Secondary—Phrase the stars.. }—Adv. (adverbal)—Prep. (prepositional)—Intran. (intransitive.)

8. “Scaling yonder peak,
I saw an eagle, wheeling near its brow.”

Scaling yonder is a part of the Sentence—an Adjunct—Primary—peak ........ is a Phrase—Adject. (adjective)—Part. (participial)—Trans. (transitive.)
I................ is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Subject—Word—Pron. (pronoun)—Pers. (personal)—Mas. (masculine) Gender—First Person—Sing. (singular) Number—Nominative Case.
Saw ........... is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Predicate—Verb—Indicative Mode—Past Tense.
An............ is a part of the Sentence—an Adjunct—Primary—Word—Adjective—Spec. (specifying)—Pure.
Eagle ........ is a part of the Sentence—Principal Part—Object—Word—Noun—Com. (common)—Mas. (masculine) Gender—Third Person—Sing. (singular) Number—Objective Case.
Wheeling near is a part of the Sentence—an Adjunct—Primary—its brow ...... is a Phrase—Adject. (adjective)—Part. (participial)—Intran. (intransitive.)
Near its brow is a part of the Sentence—an Adjunct—Secondary—Phrase—Adv. (adverbal)—Prep. (prepositional)—Intran. (intransitive.)

Rem.—In the Analysis of a Complex Sentence [see Def. 33] an Auxiliary Sentence is found to perform an individual office, and accordingly it is parsed as one Etymological element of the Principal Sentence. After it has been thus parsed, it may itself be analyzed, and the words
and phrases of which it is composed be parsed according to their respective offices. The same Remark is applicable to Phrases. [See Exercise 7, above, and 2, below.]

ANALYSIS OF PHRASES BY THE CHART.

Exercises.

1. *In the beginning* [a Prepositional Phrase].

In .......... is a part of the Phrase—Principal Part—the Leader—a Prep. (preposition.)
The .......... is a part of the Phrase—an Adjunct—Word—Adj. (adjective.)
Beginning .......... is a part of the Phrase—Principal Part—the Subsequent—a Word—Noun—Object.

2. "Scaling yonder peak" [a Participial Phrase].

Scaling .......... is a part of the Phrase—Principal Part—the Leader—a Part. (participle)—Trans. (transitive.)
Yonder .......... is a part of the Phrase—an Adjunct—Word—Adj. (adjective.)
Peak .......... is a part of the Phrase—Principal Part—the Subsequent—a Word—Noun—Object.

3. "The time having arrived" [an Independent Phrase].

The ............ is a part of the Phrase—an Adjunct—Word—Adj. (adjective.)
Time ............ is a part of the Phrase—Principal Part—the Leader—a Noun—Independent Case.
Having arrived .. is a part of the Phrase—Principal Part—the Subsequent—a Part. (participle)—Intran. (intransitive.)

4. *To bestow many favors* [an Infinitive Phrase].

To .......... is a part of the Phrase—Principal Part—the Leader—a Prep. (preposition.)
Bestow .......... is a part of the Phrase—Principal Part—a part of the Subsequent—a Verb—Infin. (infinite) Mode—Trans. (transitive.)
Many .......... is a part of the Phrase—an Adjunct—Adj. (adjective.)
Favors .......... is a part of the Phrase—Principal Part—a part of the Subsequent—Object—Word—Noun.

Rem.—Exercises like the above are well calculated to prepare the student for Exercises in Syntax; and when he shall have learned the Rules of Syntax, he should combine the above Exercises with the application of those Rules.
PART III.—SYNTAX—SUBJECT.

THE SUBJECT OF A SENTENCE.

Rule 1. The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case.

**S U B J E C T**

Obs. 1.—The Subject of a Sentence may be a Noun, Pronoun, Phrase, or Sentence.

**Examples**—1. A Noun..... *Virtue secures happiness.*
   2. A Pronoun...*He plants his footsteps in the sea.*
   3. A Phrase...*"To be able to read well, is a valuable accomplishment."*
   4. A Sentence...*"That good men sometimes commit faults, cannot be denied.*

Obs. 2.—The subject of an imperative verb is commonly understood.

**Example**—"[ ] Take each man’s censure, but [ ] reserve thy judgment."

Obs. 3.—It is often expressed.

**Example**—"Go ye into all the world."

Obs. 4.—It is sometimes accompanied by an explanatory word.

**Example**—"Ye rapid floods, give way." [See "Independent Case."]

POSITION OF THE NOMINATIVE.

Note I. In position, the nominative commonly precedes the verb.

**Examples**—*Animals run. Resources are developed.*

Obs. 1.—In *Interrogative Sentences*, it is placed after the verb, when the verb constitutes a complete predicate.

**Example**—"*Heeds he not the bursting anguish?*

Obs. 2.—When the predicate consists of two verbs, or a verb and participle, adjective, noun, &c., the Nominative is placed after the first word of the predicate.

**Examples**—*Is he injured? Is she kind? Is he a scholar? Must I leave thee?*

Obs. 3.—The Interrogatives *who, which, and what*, used as Subjects, precede their verbs.

**Examples**—*"Who will show us any good?*"
   *"What can compensate for loss of character.*"
   *"Which shall be taken first?"*
SUBJECT—POSITION.

Obs. 4.—The subject follows the predicate, or the first word of the predicate, in the declarative modes.—
1. When the conjunction if, used to introduce a conditional or modifying sentence, is omitted.

Example—"Dost thou not, Hassan, lay these dreams aside, I'll plunge thee headlong in the whelming tide."

2. When the word there is used to introduce the Sentence.

Example—There is a calm for those who weep.
3. When the verb is in the Imperative Mode.

Example—*Turn ye, turn ye at my reproof.

4. By the poets and public speakers, for rhetorical effect.

Examples—"Loud peals the thunder."
"Perish the groveling thought."

Obs. 4.—When a Substantive Phrase or Sentence is the subject of a Principal Sentence, it is commonly placed before the predicate.

Examples—"To do good, is the duty of all men."
"That we differ in opinion, is not strange."

Obs. 5.—The Non-inactive Phrase sometimes follows the predicate.

Example—"The sure way to be cheated is, to fancy ourselves more cunning than others."

This position generally obtains, when the indefinite pronoun it is placed instead of the phrase. "It" precedes, and the phrase follows the verb.

Example—It is the duty of all, to do good to others.

Rem.—In parsing examples like these, the Phrase is to be regarded as explanatory of the Pronoun *it*—to define the indefinite word—and is, in its office, analogous to a word used to explain a preceding Noun. [See Independent Case, Obs. 1, p. 51.]

Obs. 6.—When one word includes in its signification many others, expressed in the same connection, the general term is the proper subject of the verb; and the included terms may be regarded as explanatory; and, therefore, independent in construction. [See Independent Case, p. 51.]

Example—"All sink before it—comfort, joy, and wealth."

Some Teachers prefer to supply the ellipsis—which is not improper.

Note II.—Unnecessary repetition of a subject should be avoided.
Obs. 1.—This principle is violated in the following example:  
"His teeth, they chatter, chatter still."

Obs. 2.—But this practice is allowable, when necessary to a proper rhetorical effect.

Examples—Our Fathers, where are they? And the Prophets, do they live for ever?

Rem.—The agent of an action expressed by an Infinitive Verb, may be in the Nominative or Objective Case.

1. I purpose to go.
2. I invited him to go.

Rem. 2.—The agent of an action expressed by a Participle, may be in the Possessive or Objective Case.

1. I heard of your going to Boston.
2. The plowing of the wicked is sin.

Exercises.

Let the class make Sentences which shall be correct examples of the several Notes, Observations, and Remarks, under Rule 1.

Examples for Parsing.

"Friend after friend departs;  
Who has not lost a friend?  
There is no union here of hearts,  
That finds not here an end;  
Were this frail world our final rest,  
Living or dying none were blest.  

Thus star by star declines,  
Till all are passed away;  
As morning high and higher shines,  
To pure and perfect day;  
Nor sink those stars in empty night,  
But hide themselves in heaven's own light."

Montgomery.

First Model.

"Friend after friend departs."

Analysis.

Principal Parts... { Friend ..... Subject of "departs," } Simple Sentence,  
{ Departs ..... Predicate of "friend." } Intransitive.  
Adjunct.........After friend. Adjunct of "departs."
PARSING.

Friend is a name. Hence, a Noun.
name of a class of persons. Hence, Common.

[The gender is not indicated; and, whenever it is not, no mention of the gender should be made.]

spoken of. Hence, Third Person.
denotes but one. Hence, Singular Number.
subject of departs. Hence, Nominative Case.

After friend modifies "departs"—denoting time, or order of time. Hence, an Adverb.

After expresses a relation of "departs" and "friend". Hence, a Preposition.

Friend is a name. Hence, a Noun.
name of a class. Hence, Common.
spoken of. Hence, Third Person.
denotes but one. Hence, Singular Number.
object of the relation expressed by "after". Hence, Objective Case.

Departs expresses an action. Hence, a Verb.
action has no object. Hence, Intransitive.
simply declares. Hence, Indicative Mode.
denotes present time. Hence, Present Tense.
predicate of "friend". Hence, {Third Person, Singular Number.

SECOND MODEL.

"Who has not lost a friend."

ANALYSIS.

Principal Parts. { Who. . . . Subject, } Has lost. . . . Predicate, Hence, a Transitive Sentence.
{ Friend. . . . Object, } Simple.

Adjuncts. { Not. . . . Adjunct of "has lost." }
{ A. . . . Adjunct of "friend." }

PARSED.

Who is a Pronoun—Interrogative—Third Person—Singular Number—Nominative Case to "has lost."

"The subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case."

Has lost. Is a Verb—Irregular [lose, lost, losing, lost]—Transitive—Active Voice—Indicative Mode—Past Tense Indefinite—Third Person—Singular Number, to agree with its Subject "who."

Not is an Adverb—Negative—Modifies "has lost."

A is an Adjective—Specifying—Specifies "friend."
PART III.—SYNTAX.—PREDICATES—VERBS.

Friend...is a Noun—Common—Third Person—Singular Number—Objective Case to “has lost.”

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

“Rewarding and punishing actions by any other rule, would appear much harder to be accounted for by minds formed as he has formed ours.”—Bp. Butler.

“What time he took orders, doth not appear.”—Life of Butler

“That every day has its pains and sorrows, is universally experienced.”

Rem.—For examples of False Syntax, see Appendix, Note G.

PREDICATES.

Prin. Predicates describe their Subjects by asserting facts concerning them.

SUBJECT  PREDICATE

Oss.—Every Predicate must consist of a verb.—Robert studies. And, in addition, it may have
A second Verb...Robert does study.
A Participle...Robert is studying.
An Adjective...Robert is studious.
A Noun...Robert is a scholar.
A Pronoun...It is I. If I were you.
A Preposition...Its idle hopes are o'er.

It may also consist of two verbs and one or more participles,
&c.—We might have walked. We might have been loved.

VERBS.

Rule 2. A verb must agree with its subject in Number and Person.

Rem.—This rule requires that the form of a verb be determined by its Subject. Strictly speaking, Verbs have no Number and Person. The term is used to denote a variation in the form of a verb to correspond with the Number and Person of its Subject. Thus,

In the Singular number no suffix is used for the First Person; as, I walk. Est or ā is added for the Second Person, solómn style; as, Thou walkst.
S is added for the Third Person; as, John walks.

In the Plural Number, verbs are not varied to denote the Person of their Subjects.
NUMBER.

Note I. A verb must have a Singular form,

1. When it has one Subject in the Singular Number.
   Examples—"Earth keeps me here awhile."
   "Man needs but little here below."

2. When it has two or more Singular Subjects taken separately.
   Examples—Philip or Edward has gone to the post-office.
   "The saint, the father, and the husband prays."

3. When its Subject is a single Phrase or Sentence.
   Examples—To do good is the duty of all.
   His being a scholar entitles him to respect.
   That all men are created equal is a self-evident truth.

4. When it is a Collective Noun conveying the idea of unity.
   Examples—"Congress has adjourned."
   "The regiment has been disbanded."

Note II. A verb must have a Plural form,

1. When it has one Subject in the Plural Number, or indicating plurality.
   Examples—They live—Birds fly.
   The committee are divided in opinion.

2. When it has two or more Subjects, taken collectively.
   Examples—Lucy and Jane have returned.
   Justice and Mercy sweetly have embraced.
   To give good gifts, and to be benevolent, are often different things.

Obs.—The logical Subject of a Sentence is sometimes the Object of a Phrase used to qualify the grammatical Subject. Then,

1. When the Object of the Phrase is Plural in form, and indicates that the parts of which the number is composed are taken severally, the verb should be Plural.
   Example—A part of the students have left.

   Here "students"—the name of many taken severally—is the logical Subject of "have left," and requires the verb to be Plural, although "part," the grammatical subject, is Singular.

2. When the Object of the Phrase is Singular, or the name of
an aggregate number taken collectively, the verb should be Singular.

Example—Two-thirds of my hair has fallen off.

Here "hair"—the name of many taken collectively—is the logical Subject of "has fallen," and requires the verb to be Singular, although "two-thirds," the grammatical Subject, is Plural.

PERSON.

Note. III. Two or more Subjects taken separately and differing in Person, should have separate verbs, when the verb is varied to denote the Person of its Subject.

Example—You are in error, or I am.

Obs.—But, when the verb is not varied to denote the person, it need not be repeated.

Examples—You or I must go. The doctors or you are in error.

Note IV. When the Subject of a verb differs in Person or Number (or both) from a Noun or Pronoun in predication, the verb should agree with its Subject rather than with the word in predication.

Examples—"Thou art the man." "Who art thou?"
"His meal was locusts and wild honey."
"The wages of sin is death."

MODE AND TENSE.

Note V. That Mode and Tense of a verb should be used which will most clearly convey the sense intended.

Obs. 1.—A verb used to denote a conditional fact or a contingency, should have the Subjunctive or Potential form.

Examples—"Were I Alexander, I would accept the terms."
"So would I, were I Parmenio."
If we would improve, we must study.

Obs. 2.—But if the condition be assumed as unquestionable, the verb may be in the Indicative Mode.

Examples—"If thou hadst known."
If John has offended you, he will make due apology.
VERBS—MODE.  

OBS. 3.—The variations for the Potential Mode are rather variations of form, than to indicate distinctions of tense—this mode being generally indifferent as to time.

Example—"O would the scandal vanish with my life, Then happy were to me ensuing death."

OBS. 4.—The Infinitive present generally indicates indefinite time—the finite verb on which it depends, commonly determines its Tense.

Examples—"I went to see him"—present in form, but past in sense. "I shall go to see him"—present in form, but future in sense.

OBS. 5.—But, generally, to indicate past time, the Past Infinitive is used, except when the Infinitive follows verbs denoting purpose, expectation, wish, &c.

Examples—We ought to have gone. I purposed to write many days ago. I expected to meet him yesterday.

Note VI. A verb should not be used for its participle in predication.

Example—James ought not to have went. Corrected—James ought not to have gone.

Note VII. A participle should not take the place of its verb.

Example—I done that sum correctly. Corrected—I did that sum correctly.

INFINITIVE.

Rule 3. A verb in the Infinitive Mode, is the object of the preposition to, expressed or understood.

OBS. 1.—The Infinitive Verb partakes much of a Substantive character—generally expressing the name of an act.

Examples—{ We are prepared to act. } We are prepared for action.

OBS. 2.—The Infinitive Verb is never used as a grammatical Predicate—but it is often the logical predicate of a Noun or Pronoun in the Objective Case.

Example—I requested him to go.
PART III.—SYNTAX—VERBS.

Obs. 3.—An Infinitive Verb with its preposition is used as a Phrase, and may be construed as

A Noun ....... To enjoy is to obey.
An Adjective... Henry has a desire to improve.
An Adverb ....... We love to study.

Obs. 4.—The Infinitive is sometimes elegantly used for one of the other modes.

Examples—

"If I am to settle this business."—Arthur.
I must settle this business.
"The hour had come, for him to go."—Abbott.
The hour had come, when he must go.
"What is more necessary than for a people to preserve what they themselves have created."—Story.

.... than that a people should preserve, &c.

Obs. 5.—An Infinitive Phrase may be an Adjunct to

1. A Noun ....... "Isaac has a desire to improve."
2. A Pronoun.... "Enough for me to know."
3. An Adjective... "Ready to depart on the morrow."
4. A Verb ....... "Students ought to improve the time."
5. An Adverb ....... "He is too wise to err, and too good to be unkind."

Obs. 6.—The Infinitive Verb often follows the words as and than.

Examples—

"An object so high as to be invisible."
"He said nothing farther than to give an apology for his vote."

Rem.—In the above and similar examples, as and than are to be regarded as Prepositions, having for their objects the Infinitive Phrases following. In like manner it sometimes follows other Prepositions.

Example—we are about to recite.

Obs. 7.—The Infinitive Phrase, like other Phrases, is sometimes independent in construction.

Example—"And to be plain with you, I think you the most unreasonable of the two."

Obs. 3.—The Infinitive Mode of verbs following the verbs bid, but, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need, see, and sometimes behold, have, known, ielp, observe, preserve, and some others, do not require the preposition to.

Examples—"I plunged in, and bade him follow."—Shakspeare.
"Necessity commands me name myself."—Idem.
He dares not do it. I let him go.
Jane helped me work that problem.
I cannot but suspect that she assisted Lucy too.
OBS. 9.—The Infinitive verb following these verbs is often understood.

Example—Some deemed him [ ] wondrous wise.

PARTICIPLES.

Rule 4. A Participle has the same construction as the "part of speech" for which it is used.

I. Participles used as Nouns.

Note I. A Participle used as a Noun may be,

1. The Subject of a sentence.

Examples—"The beginning of strife is as when one letteth out water."
"The plowing of the wicked is sin."

2. The Object of a verb.

Example—"While you strive to bear being laughed at."—Young Ladies' Friend.

3. The Object of a preposition.

Examples—"In the beginning."
"I return to your inviting me to your forests."—Pope.
"Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants: Riches, upon enjoying our superfluitities."
Addison.

Note II. A Participle used as a Noun, i.e., as the name of an action, may be followed by an Object when it is the leader of a participial Phrase.

Examples—"They could not avoid giving offence."
"Its excesses may be restrained without destroying its existence."
Receiving goods, known to be stolen, is a criminal offence.
"Taking a madman’s sword to prevent his doing mischief, cannot be regarded as robbing him."
We have succeeded in making a beginning.

OBS. 1.—Whenever a Participle is the name of an act, being, or state, it is properly called a Verbal Noun. Retaining its verbal character, it may have a Subject. It differs from a verb, however, in allowing its Subject to be in the Possessive or Objective cases. The Adjunct of a Participle is its logical Subject.
EXAMPLES.

1. Possessive.—We have heard of his going to the falls.
   In the event of William's gaining a fortune.
2. Objective.—By the crowing of the cock we knew that morning was
   nigh.

Obs. 2.—The definitive, the, should be placed before a Verbal
Noun whose logical Subject is the Object of the preposition of.
EXAMPLE—The flowing of the wicked is sin.

Obs. 3.—The definitive, the, should not be placed before a
Verbal Noun whose logical Subject is in the Possessive case.
EXAMPLE—You object to my flowing the garden so early.

II. Participles used as Adjectives.

Note III. A Participle used as an Adjective, belongs to Nouns and Pronouns which it describes; and may be modified by Adverbs.

EXAMPLE.
Whose visages
Do cream and mantle like a standing pond.

Obs.—A Participle used to introduce a Participial Phrase performs an office more peculiar to itself than in any other condition. But even then it answers to the definition of some other part of speech.

EXAMPLE.

"Suspecting the treachery of our guide, we made preparations
for defending ourselves from any hostile attacks."

Here "Suspecting" and "defending" are Participles, each used to introduce a Participial Phrase; but

"Suspecting the treachery of our guide," shows a condition of "we." Hence, ......... an Adjective Phrase.
"Suspecting" describes "we," by expressing, incidentally, an act of "we." Hence, a Verbal Adjective.

Suspicious of the treachery of our guides, we made preparations
for defense.

"Suspicious" describes "we," by expressing a condition or state of "we." Hence, ......... an Adjective.

"For defending ourselves," limits the action expressed by "preparations." Hence, an Adjective Phrase.
"Defending" is the name of an act [object of the preposition "for]." Hence, ........... a Verbal Noun.

"Defense" is a name, object of the preposition "for." Hence, a Noun.
III. Participles used as Adverbs.

Note IV. A Participle used Adverbially belongs to Verbs, Adjectives, or Adverbs, which it modifies.

Example—"Tis strange! 'tis passing strange!

Obs.—Participles are seldom used Adverbially without the termination ly.

Example—"He spoke feelingly on that subject."

IV. Participles used as Prepositions.

Note V. A Participle used as a Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its phrase qualifies.

Example—"He said nothing concerning his temporal affairs."

Obs.—The young scholar often finds it difficult to determine whether a Participle is used as a Preposition or an Adjective. His difficulties on this subject will vanish when he recollects that—

1. A Participle used as a Preposition, does not relate to a Noun or Pronoun—it generally introduces an Adverbial Phrase.

2. A Participle used as an Adjective, always relates to a Noun or Pronoun—it generally introduces an Adjective Phrase.

V. Participles used in Predication with Verbs.

Note VI. A Participle used in predication asserts an act, being, or state; and may be modified by Adverbs.

Example—"We are anxiously expecting to hear from William."

Obs. 1.—The Present (or First) Participle always ends in ing, and is limited to the Active Voice.

Obs. 2.—The Past (or Second) Participle of Regular Verbs ends in d or ed, and is limited to the Passive Voice.

Obs. 3.—The Compound (or Third) Participle is composed of the second Participle of a verb added to the word having—and is then Active; or to the word being, or the two words having been—and is then Passive. Hence,

Note VII. In the use of Participles in predication, the proper modification should be used.
(1.) When an action is to be predicated of the Subject, i. e., when the Subject performs the act, the Active Participle should be used.

Example—Henry is reciting his lesson.

(2.) When the Subject is to be represented as receiving the action, the Passive Participle should be used.

Example—Henry’s lesson is being recited.

Note VIII. Participles should not be used as the Object of a verb when an Infinitive verb would be more elegant.

Examples—He refused complying with the regulations.
He refused to comply with the regulations.

Voice.

Note IX. That form of a verb should be used which will correctly and fully express the fact intended.

1. When the person or thing which is the Subject of a sentence, is the agent of an act expressed by the predicate, the verb should be in the Active Voice.

Example—Columbus was a native of Genoa. Historians represent him as having been a man of science. He discovered America.

2. When the person or thing which is the Subject of a sentence, is passive, i. e., suffers or receives the result of the action, the verb should be in the Passive Voice.

Example—America is called the new world. It was not known to the ancients.

Obs. 1.—Generally either voice can be used to express the same fact.

Examples.

Active…….Morse invented the Telegraph.
Passive…….The Telegraph was invented by Morse.

When the Passive Voice is used, the name of the agent becomes the object of an Adverbial Phrase.

Obs. 2.—The Passive Voice is sometimes used instead of the Active, without any other change in the construction.
EXAMPLES—

1. "I'm afraid I have caught the consumption too."
2. I fear I have caught the consumption too.
3. "Now that you are gone, who will take your place."
4. Now that you have gone, who will take your place.

Obs. 3.—By an idiom of respectable authority, the object of a qualifying Phrase sometimes becomes the subject of a passive verb, while the preposition is retained in predication.

EXAMPLE—

1. They took possession of the city.
2. Possession of the city was taken possession of by them.

Obs. 4.—Action is sometimes predicated of a passive subject.

EXAMPLES.

You are mistaken.

for . . . . . . . . You mistake.

"The house is building."

for . . . . . . . The house is being built.

which means. The house is being built, i.e., people are at work upon it; but the house does not act.

Rem.—This is one of the instances in which Authority is against Philosophy. For an act cannot properly be predicated of a passive agent. Many good writers properly reject this idiom.

"Mansfield's prophecy is being realized."—Michelet's Luther.

Obs. 5.—Parts of the predicate of a sentence may be omitted by ellipsis.

1. The leading word.

"If [ ] heard aright,
   It is the knoll of my departed hours."

2. The second word.

"They may [ ] and should return to allegiance."

3. The whole predicate.

"While [ ] there we visited the Asylum."

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

COMPLEX SENTENCES—MODES.

Obs. 1.—In the use of Complex Sentences, the Principal Sentence must be expressed by verbs in the Indicative, Imperative, or Potential Modes.

EXAMPLES—

1. Indicative.... "They knelt before they fought."
2. Imperative.... "Come when the heart beats high and warm."
3. Potential.... We may learn if we study.
PART III.—SYNTAX—VERBS.

OBS. 2.—The Auxiliary Sentence may be expressed by verbs in the Indicative, Potential, and Subjunctive Modes.

EXAMPLES—1. Indicative. . . . They kneeled before they fought.
2. Potential. . . . I would go if I could.
3. Subjunctive. . . . If I were a student, I should be ambitious to improve.

INDICATIVE MODE.

OBS. 3.—We use the Indicative Mode in Declarative and Interrogative Sentences.

EXAMPLES—"God created the heaven and the earth."
"Have you been to the Post Office?"

OBS. 4.—The Indicative form is also used in conditional Sentences, when we represent the conditional as true or granted.

EXAMPLES—"If he has declared." "If the reality is proved."—Porteus.

POTENTIAL MODE.

OBS. 5.—This Mode properly indicates an opinion, or a purpose—a mental or moral emotion—or physical power.

EXAMPLES—"I may go—You can go—He should go—I will go."
"What readiest way would bring me to that place?"

OBS. 6.—It is also used in Interrogative Sentences.

EXAMPLE—"And can I leave thee?"
"For what can war but endless war still breed?"

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

OBS. 7.—This Mode is used when we express a conditional circumstance hypothetically.

EXAMPLES—"Were I Alexander, I would accept the terms."
So would I, were I Parmenio.

Rem.—In this use of the Subjunctive Past Tense, a fact contrary to the assertion is always implied. Thus, "were I Alexander," implies that I am not Alexander.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

OBS. 8.—When we command or entreat, we use the Imperative Mode.

EXAMPLES—"Arise! arise! or be forever fallen."
"Come to the bridal chamber, Death."

THE TENSES OF THE SEVERAL MODES.

Rem.—Perhaps no part of the Science of the English language occasions more perplexity to the student, than that which relates to the use of the Tenses—for
1. The variations of verbs to indicate distinctions of time, do not correspond to the natural divisions of time.

There are—as stated in Part I.—but three distinctions of time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PAST</th>
<th>PRESENT</th>
<th>FUTURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PASTE</td>
<td>PRESENT</td>
<td>FUTURE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yet we have forms of the Verb, to denote six distinctions.

With all these variations of the Verb to denote distinctions of time, we still have nothing which will designate time with absolute precision. Adjuncts (Words, Phrases, or Sentences) are necessary—and these we call Adverbs of time.

2. The form of a Verb appropriated to one Tense, is not always used to denote the time of its tense. Thus, would is the Past Tense of will.

**Example**—John would not study—consequently, he had no lesson.

But the same form is also used to denote present time.

**Example**—John would study better than he does, if he felt the importance of an education as he should.

This form may also refer to a future act.

**Example**—John will accompany you—I would go myself if I had not another appointment at that hour.

**Rem.**—Examples might be multiplied—showing the great confusion and instability of the Tenses of English Verbs.

In the exercise of composition, special rules can be of little service to the student. The following observations on the uses of the tenses of the Indicative Mode, it may be proper to notice. They are, however, of a general character, and subject to exception, which may be best learned by a careful attention to the practice of the best writers and speakers.
Obs. 1.—In denoting present time, the simple form of the Present Tense should be used when the time is indefinite.

Example.—Virtue is commendable—Education elevates man.

Obs. 2.—When the act, being, or state, expressed by the verb, is to be represented as definitely present or continuing, the compound form of the Present Tense should be used.

Examples—I am writing—Daniel’s predictions are now being fulfilled.

Obs. 3.—In expressing a past transaction which is finished, and which is definite in the mind of the speaker, we use the simple form of the Past Tense.

Example—I went to Newark, to attend the Convention.

Obs. 4.—In expressing a past event, definite and continuous (in a present and continuous state at a past time), we use the compound form of the Past Tense.

Example—I was writing William a letter as he entered the room.

Obs. 5.—Generally, the compound form of a tense denotes a present state of an event (by virtue of the office of the Present Participle in predication), but the variety of time when the event was, is, or shall be, is indicated by the auxiliary verb be.

Examples.

I am reading.

Reading denotes present time, \{ Hence, a present act at the present time.
Am “ “ “
I was reading.

Reading denotes present time, \{ Hence, an act present at a past time.
Was “ past “
I have been reading.

Reading denotes present time, \{ Hence, an act present at a past time—but in a period reaching to the present.
Been “ past “
Have “ present “
I had been reading.

Reading denotes present time, \{ Hence, an act present at a past time terminating at a period before another past time.
Been “ past “
Had “ “ “
I shall be reading.

Reading denotes present time, \{ Hence, an act present at a time which will be present at a future time.
Be “ “ “
Shall “ future “
I shall have been reading.

Reading denotes present time, \{ Hence, an act present at a time past, when some future time will be present.
Been “ past “
Have “ present “
Shall “ future “
Exercises.

"Scaling yonder peak,
I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow."

**ANALYSIS.**

Principal Parts

- I .......... Subject, Simple Sentence, Transitive.
- Saw .......... Predicate, Transitive.
- Eagle ........ Object.

Adjuncts

- Scaling yonder peak—Adjunct of "I."
- An, Adjuncts of "eagle."
- Wheeling near its brow.

**PARSED.**

Scaling .......... is [a Participle from the verb *scale*] used here to describe "I," Hence.. an Adjective.

" describes by expressing incidentally an act of "I." Hence.. Verbal Adjective.

" action terminates an object Hence.. Transitive.

Yonder.......... describes peak. Hence.. an Adjective.

" describes by simply pointing out. Hence.. Specifying.

Peak............ is a name. Hence.. a Noun.

" name of a class of things. Hence.. Common.

" spoken of. Hence.. Third Person.

" denotes but one. Hence.. Singular Number.

" object of the action expressed by "scaling." Hence.. Objective Case.

I .......... is used for a name. Hence.. a Pronoun.

" denotes by its form the Person. Hence.. Personal.

" denotes the speaker. Hence.. First Person.

" denotes but one. Hence.. Singular Number.

" subject of "saw." Hence.. Nominative Case.

**Rule**—"The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case."
Saw asserts an act. Hence a Verb.

" an act which passes to an object. Hence Transitive.

" simply declares. Hence Indicative Mode.

" denotes time past. Hence Past Tense.

" Predicate of "I" [which is of the First Person, Singular] first Person, Singular Number. Hence Singular Number.

Rule—"A verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

An describes "eagle." Hence an Adjective.

" simply specifies. Hence Specifying.

Eagle is a name. Hence a Noun.

" name of a class of animals. Hence Common.

" spoken of. Hence Third Person.

" denotes but one. Hence Singular Number.

" object of action expressed by "saw." Hence Objective Case.

Wheeling is [a Participle from the verb wheel] used here to describe "eagle." Hence an Adjective.

" describes by expressing, incidentally, an act of "eagle." Hence a Verbal Adjective act does not pass to an object. Hence Intransitive.

Near its brow modifies "wheeling;" denoting place. Hence an Adverb.

Near shows a relation of "wheeling" and "brow." Hence a Preposition.

Its describes "brow." Hence an Adjective.

" describes by simply limiting "brow." Hence Specifying.

" limits by indicating a relation of possession. Hence Possessive.

Brow is a name. Hence a Noun.

" name of a class. Hence Common.

" spoken of. Hence Third Person.

" denotes but one. Hence Singular Number.

" object of relation expressed by "near." Hence Objective Case.

" Leaning against a tree, thoughts crowding thoughts,
I looked far out upon the ominous plain."
He maketh the storm a calm.

**Analysis.**

**Principal Parts.**  
- **Subject,**  
- **Predicate,**  
- **Object.**  
- **Simple Sentence—Transitive.**
- **Subject,**  
- **Predicate,**  
- **Object.**
- **The**  
- **Adverb**
- **To become a calm**  
- **Adverb**
- **A**  
- **Adjective**

**Adjuncts.**
- **To become a calm**  
- **Adverb**
- **A**  
- **Adjective**

**Parsed.**

**He.**
- **is used for a Noun**  
- **Hence,**  
- **a Pronoun.**
  
  its form determines its  
  **Person**  
  **Hence,**  
  **Personal.**
  
  **spoken of**  
  **Hence,**  
  **Third Person.**
  
  **denotes but one**  
  **Hence,**  
  **Singular Number.**
  
  **subject of maketh**  
  **Hence,**  
  **Nominative Case.**

**Rule—** "The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case."

**Maketh.**
- **asserts an act**  
- **Hence,**  
- **a Verb.**
  
  act passes to an object  
  **Hence,**  
  **Transitive.**
  
  act done by its subject  
  **Hence,**  
  **Active Voice.**
  
  simply declares  
  **Hence,**  
  **Indicative Mode.**
  
  denotes a present act  
  **Hence,**  
  **Present Tense.**
  
  Predicate of "he," which  
  **is of the**  
  **Third Person**  
  **Third Person**  
  **Singular Number**  
  **Hence,**  
  **Sing'r Numb.**

**Rule—** "A verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

**The.**
- **describes "storm"**  
- **Hence,**  
- **an Adjective.**
  
  describes by simply specifying  
  **Hence,**  
  **Specifying.**

**Storm.**
- **is a name**  
- **Hence,**  
- **a Noun.**
  
  name of a class of things  
  **Hence,**  
  **Common.**
  
  spoken of  
  **Hence,**  
  **Third Person.**
  
  denotes but one  
  **Hence,**  
  **Singular Number.**
  
  object of action expressed  
  by "maketh"  
  **Hence,**  
  **Objective Case.**

**Rule—** "The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."
[To become] a calm modifies "maketh"—limiting the act as to its result... Hence, an Adverb.

A........................ describes "calm"........ Hence, an Adjective.

"describes by simply specifying........ Hence, Specifying.

Calm.................. is a name............. Hence, a Noun.

"name of a class of things... Hence, Common.

"spoken of.................. Hence, Third Person.

"denotes but one............. Hence, Singular Numb.

"used in predication with

"become".................. Hence, Indep'nd't Case.

Rule—Note.—"A noun or pronoun used in predication with a verb is in the Independent Case."

Rem.—The above is the correct grammatical construction of the sentence, and it is correctly parsed. But without the Adjunct phrase "to become a calm," the word "maketh" could not properly have "storm" as its object. "Storm" is the Object of the modified Predicate "maketh [causeth to become] a calm."

Examples for Parsing.

"Some deemed him [     ] wondrous wise."
I do not consider him to blame.
I do not consider him to [be worthy of] blame.
The plan proved [    ] ineffectual.
"Man's inhumanity to man makes countless millions[    ] mourn."
Teach them [to yield] obedience to the laws.
"I found company [    ] an interruption, rather than a relief."
"One of his sovereigns thought royalty so impaired in his presence that he conspired to remove him, in order to be relieved from his superiority."—Robertson's Character of Pitt.

"Scolding has long been considered ungenteel."—Y. L. Friend.

"A scrupulous attention to politeness is not only useful to prevent hurting the feelings of others, but it is the best shield to our own delicacy."—Young Ladies' Friend.

"In the matter of giving and receiving presents, much wisdom is required."—Mrs. Farrar.

"Much time is frittered away in receiving and paying unmeaning visits. in stopping to talk when you ought to be doing something useful.—Young Ladies' Friend.

"A task is rendered doubly burdensome by being done at an inconvenient time."—Irvng.

"Possibly, your neighbor, by being less scrupulous than yourself, may invent a more expeditious way of acquiring a fortune.—Hawes.
"Summer's dim cloud that, slowly rising, holds
The sweeping tempest in its rising folds,
Though o'er the ridges of its thundering breast
The King of Terrors lifts his lightning crest,
Pleased we behold, when those dark folds we find
Fringed with the golden light that glows behind."—Pierpont.

"Ye once were justly famed for bringing forth
Undoubted scholarship and genuine worth."

"For this surrendering the manuscripts, I received the warm thanks of
the trustees for the family."—Wilson's Burns, p. 21.

"It is impossible to form a just estimate of any individual character,
without having divested ourselves of all those passions or prejudices which
may tend to pervert our judgment."

"Had a stranger, at this time, gone into the province, ignorant of all
that had happened in the short interval, and observing the wide and gen-
eral devastation, and all the horrors of the scene; of plains unclothed and
brown; of vegetables burnt up and extinguished; of villages depopulated
and in ruin; of temples unroofed and perishing; of reservoirs broken
down and dry; he would naturally inquire, what war has thus laid waste
the fertile fields of this once beautiful and opulent country?"

"No youth could rein the horse, hurl the javelin, chase the lion, or del-
glithe social circle like this son."—Todd.

"For a time he stormed about the Moorish halls, and vaporied about
the bastions, and looked down fire and sword upon the palace of the
Captain-General."—Irving.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Let the pupil in answering these questions, give a reason for his
answer, by repeating the appropriate Rule, Note, or Observation.

**Earth keeps me here awhile.**

Why is "keeps" put in the form of the Singular Number?—Third Person?

Philip or Edward has gone to the Post Office.

Why is "has gone" put in the Singular Number?

His being a scholar, entitles him to respect.

Why is "entitles" put in the Singular Number?

Congress has adjourned.

Why is "has adjourned" put in the Singular Number?

They live—Birds fly.

Why are "live" and "fly," not written lives and flies?

The committee are divided in opinion.

Why may we not say—is divided?

Jane and I. Lucy have returned.

Why may we not say—has returned?
PART III.—SYNTAX—QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

A part of the books have been misprinted.
Why may we not say—has been misprinted?

The wages of sin is death.
Why may we not say—are death?

I purposed to write many days ago.
Why may we not say—I purposed to have written?

We ought to have gone there yesterday.
Why may we not say—ought to go there yesterday?

I did that business according to orders.
Why may we not say—I done that business?

I came yesterday and am to return to-day.
What equivalent assertion may be made by a change of Mode?

I saw him to rise and heard him to speak.
What words in this Sentence are unnecessary and improper?

Much learning doth make thee to be mad.
What words in this Sentence are unnecessary?

The reasoning of a savage is not presumed to be philosophical.
What is the Subject of this sentence?

I doubted his having been a soldier.
What is the object of “doubted?”

The Superintendent exhibited his method of parsing.
What is the object of “of?”

We could not avoid giving offence.
What is the object of “avoid?”

What is the object of “giving?”

We have heard of his going to the falls.
Why may we not say—of him going to the falls?

William was censured for joining the society.
Why may we not say—for joining of the society?

Why may we not say—for the joining the society?
Why may we not say—for the joining of the society?

Henry is reciting his lesson.
Why may we not say—Henry is recited his lesson?
Why may we not say—Henry’s lesson is reciting?

That is an example worthy to be followed.
Why may we not say worthy to follow?

The Teacher will extend this exercise at his pleasure, by giving examples from a reading lesson, or by calling the attention of the class to some of the most common errors in the use of Predicates.
OBJECT.

Rule 5. The Object of an action or relation must be in the Objective case.

SUBJECT  PREDICATE  OBJECT

Examples—Virtue secures happiness.
We are writing letters.
"Wishing them much joy, we departed."
The book is on the table.
Edward loves to study mathematics.
"Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow."—Knowles.

Rem.—A few exceptions to this rule are noticed at page 104.

Obs. 1. Action is expressed by Verbs or by Participles, Relation is expressed by Prepositions. [See the above examples.]

Obs. 2.—The Object of an action or relation may be a Noun, a Pronoun, a Phrase, or a Sentence.
1. A Noun...."I gave the book to Charles."
2. A Pronoun ...."He received it from me."
3. A Phrase...."Avoid wounding the feelings of others."
4. A Sentence...."He said, I go, sir."

Obs. 3.—An Auxiliary Sentence is often the logical Object of a Verb. [See Diagram 24.]

Examples—"And show mankind that truth has yet a friend."—Pope.
"As foplings grin to show their teeth are white."

Obs. 4.—Sometimes a Principal Sentence is thrown in between the parts of an Objective Sentence.

Examples—1. "Whose charms, me thought, could never fade."
2. "This explanation, I doubt not, will satisfy him."
3. "But confidence, he added, is a plant of slow growth."
4. "Lucy's economical education, as you call it, sir, has been going on all this time."

Rem.—The scholar often finds it difficult to decide as to the proper construction of some Sentences thus placed.

Sentences of this class change by imperceptible gradations from a Principal Sentence to an unimportant Auxiliary, so that no rule can be given which will apply in all cases. Generally, however, it may be decided that when a Sentence, thus thrown in, is in its nature, as well as in its form, Principal (as Example 3 above), it should be so construed. But when it is obviously equivalent to an Adverb (as Example 2), it should be parsed as an Adjunct. "This explanation will doubtless satisfy him."
PART III.—SYNTAX—NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

Obs. 5.—In position, the Objective case is commonly after the word of which it is the Object.
Examples—Dennis assists James.
We love to study Grammar.

By the poets, it is often placed before its Verb or Preposition.
Examples—"Him, from my childhood, I have known."
"He wanders earth around."
"New ills that latter stage await."—Southey.
"And all the air a solemn stillness holds."—Gray.

Obs. 6.—A Relative Pronoun in the Objective case precedes the Verb of which it is the Object.
Example—"The evil which he feared has come upon him."

Obs. 7.—Where a Relative is the Object of a Phrase it precedes the Verb which the Phrase qualifies.
Example—I know in whom I have believed.

Rem.—"In whom," modifies "have believed"—and relates to person, understood.

NOTE I. A Verb may have two or more Objects,
(1.) When they are connected by Conjunctions expressed or understood.
Example—"God created the heaven and the earth."

(2.) When they are the names of distinct titles or attributes of the same person or thing.
Example—By this dispensation we have lost a neighbor, a friend, a brother.

(3.) When one object is the name of a person or thing, and the other a title, acquired by the action of the verb.
Example—They named him John.

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Note II. When a verb in the Active Voice is followed by two Objects, it retains the latter in the Passive.
Example—He shall be named John.
Note III. But two or more Nouns or Pronouns, not in a similar construction, cannot be objects of the same verb.

Obs. 1.—Custom has rendered the omission of Prepositions proper after certain verbs; but in parsing their Objects, the ellipsis should be supplied.

Example—"They carried the child home."

Rem.—"Child" is the name of a young being, and, in this connection, is the proper object of "carried." But "home" is a name applied to a habitation, a building, and "they" probably did not "carry" that. They carried the child to some place—and that place was its home.

"He told me his history."
He related to me his history.
I asked him his opinion.
"Our dear Joachim has asked me for my opinion."—Michelet's Luther
He gave me a book.
"To whom I gave the ring."

Obs. 2.—The verbs make, esteem, regard, consider, elect, bid, dare, feel, hear, see, and some others, are often followed by an Infinitive Phrase, having its Preposition (and sometimes its Subsequent) understood.

Examples—"Lorenzo, these are thoughts that make* man man."—Young.
....these are thoughts that make man [to be] man.

Teach them obedience to the laws.
Teach them [to yield obedience] to the laws.

Rem.—In examples like these the second Noun or Pronoun is the Object of the Verb understood or used in predication with it. Thus "man" is used in predication with "to be" or "to become" understood; and "obedience" is the object of "yield."

Examples—Intemperance makes a man [to become] a fool.
He maketh the storm [ ] a calm.
The people elected Harrison [to be, or for] President.

Note IV. Intransitive Verbs have no object.

Examples—I sit—Thou art—He sleeps.

Obs. 1.—But some Verbs commonly used Intransitively, sometimes have objects of their own signification.

Examples—I have fought a good fight.
We ran a race.
"Luther * * * * blew a blast."
"[They] shout their raptures to the cloudless skies."

* The word make is generally thus used, when it signifies "to cause to be," "to cause to become."
Note V. A few Verbs may be used Transitively or Intransitively.

Examples—The sun set in the west.
He set the inkstand on the table.
Cool blows the wind.
The wind blows the dust.
"Transitive Verbs do not admit of a Preposition after them."—Bullion's Grammar, p. 91.
We do not admit spectators.
Sonorous metal blowing martial sounds.

Possessive Case.

Rule 6. A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive Case, is used Adjectively.

Examples—Webster's Dictionary—Our neighbor.

Obs. 1.—The Possessive Case is a term applied by grammarians, with reference to the form of Nouns and Pronouns. Nouns and Pronouns in this Case do not always indicate possession; and they are also in the Nominative, Objective, and Independent Cases.

Examples—The pedler deals in boy's caps and children's shoes.
"And they both beat alike—only, mine was the quickest."
"He is a friend of mine," and lives next door to Smith's.
"He related an anecdote of Dr. Franklin's."
"Thine is the kingdom."

Obs. 2.—The sign of the Possessive Case is not always annexed to the name of the possessor.

1. It may be transferred to an attribute following the name of the possessor.

Examples—"The Pope of Rome's legate.
Whether it be owing to the Author of nature's acting upon us every moment.—Bp. Butler.

2. When two or more Possessives, immediately following each other, are alike applicable to the same word, it is attached only to the last.

Examples—George, James, and William's father.
A. S. Barnes & Co.'s publications.

Obs. 3.—But the sign of the Possessive should be repeated.

1. When one Possessive is used to specify another.

Example—"Gould's Adams' Latin Grammar."

2. When the Possessives describe different things.

Example—"Heroes' and Heroines' shouts confusedly rise."
Nouns and Pronouns—Exercises.

Obs. 4.—A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive Case, is generally equivalent to an Adjective Phrase.

Examples.
The people's will ................. The will of the people.
Webster's Dictionary ............... A Dictionary written by Webster.
A father's love ........................ The love of a father.
Boy's caps ............................ Caps suitable for boys.
"He heard the king's command. The command of the king.
And saw that writing's truth." .... The truth of that writing.

Rem.---In the construction of Sentences, judgment and taste should decide as to the use of a Phrase, or a Possessive Adjective—no rule can be given which may be of general application.

Obs. 5.—Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive Case often retain their substantive character, and may be qualified by other Adjectives.

Example—"And saw that writing's truth." "That" specifies "writing." He saw the truth of that writing.

This observation is also applicable to other Adjectives, derived from Nouns.

"A cast iron hinge." "Cast" qualifies "iron"—and "iron" is an Adjective.

Obs. 6.—A word in the Possessive form, is often used to specify a Phrase.

Examples—"Upon Mr. Talbot's being made Lord Chancellor." Life of Butler.
"From our being born into the present world..." Butler's Analogy.

Obs. 7.—In constructions like the above, the Possessive sign should not be omitted.

Correct construction .... All presumption of death's being the destruction of living beings, must go upon the supposition that they are compounded.—Bp. Butler.

Incorrect construction... "Nor is there so much as any appearance of our limbs being endued with a power of moving," &c. Bp. Butler.

"A fair wind is the cause of a vessel sailing." Graham's Synonyms.

Rem.—In the last example, the author intended to say that wind is the cause of an act—an act expressed by the word "sailing."

But he makes himself say that wind is the cause of a thing—a thing named by the word "vessel."

Corrected ................. Wind is the cause of a vessel's sailing.
PART III.—SYNTAX—NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

Position of the Possessive.

Obs. 1.—When the Possessive is used Adjectively, it is placed before the Noun or Pronoun which it specifies.

Examples—The widow’s mile—The culprit’s confession. Our father and our mother.

Obs. 2.—Like other Specifying Adjectives, it precedes Qualifying Adjectives belonging to the same Noun or Pronoun.

Examples—“The brook’s bright wave.” “The wind’s low sigh.” Our devoted father, and our affectionate mother.

INDEPENDENT CASE.

Rule 7. A Noun or Pronoun not dependent on any other word in construction, is in the Independent Case.

Rem.—As the grammatical subject of a Sentence is limited to the Nominative Case of Nouns and Pronouns, so the Nominative Case is properly limited to the Subject of a Sentence. Hence the term “Nominative Case Independent” is inappropriate.

Note I: The name of a person or thing addressed is in the Independent Case.

Examples—“Friends, Romans, Countrymen.”

“Come, gentle spring—ethereal mildness, come.”

Obs. 1.—In the last example the word thou, understood, is the proper subject of “come.” The words “spring” and “mildness,” are addressed, and are independent in construction. The example is also applicable to Note II., because they explain who are indicated by the words “thou,” “thou,” understood.

Note II. A Noun or Pronoun used to explain a preceding Noun or Pronoun is in the Independent Case.

Examples—Paul, the Apostle, wrote to Timothy.

“Up springs the lark, shrill-voiced and shrewd,
The messenger of morn.”

Obs. 1.—This note applies also to Phrases and Sentences.

Examples—it is our duty to study.

“It is possible that we have misjudged.”

“I shall be dignified with this high honor—to bear my lady’s train.”
Obs. 2.—An Independent Noun or Pronoun is properly a logical Adjunct when it is used to describe or limit another word.

Examples—Paul the Apostle. Peter the Great.

Rem.—"Apostle" describes "Paul," by limiting the application of that name to a particular individual.

Note III. A Noun or Pronoun used as the leader of an independent phrase, is in the Independent Case.

Examples—The hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises. "Thus talking, hand in hand alone they passed On to their blissful bower."

Note IV. A Noun or Pronoun used in predication with a verb, is in the Independent Case.

Examples—"Thou art a scholar." It is I. "God is love." He maketh the storm a calm.

Obs.—A Noun or Pronoun used in predication, may have the form of the Nominative or Objective.

Examples—"I thought it to be him; but it was not him." "It was not me that you saw."

Rem.—This idiom is established by good authority—ancient and modern—and grammarians cannot well alter the custom. "Nescire quid acciderit antequam natus es, est semper esse puerum." "Not to know what happened before you were born, is always to be a boy." Here, "puerum" (boy) has the form of the Accusative Case (objective), and cannot be the Nominative.

Note V. A Noun or Pronoun used for Euphony, is in the Independent Case.

Example—"The moon herself is lost in heaven."

Obs.—In this note are properly included Nouns and Pronouns, repeated for the sake of emphasis. "This, this is thinking free."

Note VI. A Noun or Pronoun denoting the subject of remark—the title of a book—used in address, or in exclamation, &c., is in the Independent Case.

Examples—"Our Fathers! where are they? and the Prophets! do they live forever?"—"Wright's Orthography"—"Davies' Mathematics"—"J.Q. Adams, Quincy, Mass."
Exercises.

FIRST MODEL.

"Lend me your song, ye Nightingales!"

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
  \text{Y} & \text{E} & \text{L} \\
  \text{E} & \text{N} & \text{D} \\
  \text{N} & \text{I} & \text{G} \\
  \text{I} & \text{N} & \text{T} \\
  \text{I} & \text{N} & \text{G} \\
  \text{A} & \text{L} & \text{E} \\
  \text{S} & \text{O} & \text{N} \\
  \text{G} & \text{O} & \text{N} \\
  \text{Y} & \text{O} & \text{R} \\
  \text{U} & \text{R} & \text{Y} \\
\end{array}
\]

ANALYSIS:

Principal Parts.. \{ Ye............. Subject,  \}
\{ Lend........... Predicate, \}
\{ Song.......... Object, \} 'Transitive Sentence, Simple.

\{ [To] me..... Adjunct of "lend." \}
Adjuncts............ \{ Your.......... Adjunct of "song." \}
\{ Nightingales .. Adjunct of "ye." \}

PARSED.

Lend ............ expresses an act. ............ Hence.. a Verb.
" act passes to an object ............ Hence.. Transitive.
" act, not actually done, but com-
mmanded. .................. Hence.. Imperative Mode.
" denotes time present ............ Hence.. Present Tense.
" Predicate of "ye" ............ Hence \{ Second Person, \}
\{ Plural Number. \}

RULE—"A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

[To] me........ Phrase, modifies "lend," limiting the act by denoting direc-
tion .................. Hence.. an Adverb.

Me.............. is used for a name............ Hence.. a Pronoun.
" denotes, by its form, the person, Hence.. Personal.
" denotes the speaker ............ Hence.. First Person.
" denotes but one ............ Hence.. Singular Number.
" object of to understood .......... Hence.. Objective Case.

RULE—"The Object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

Your............. limits "song"............. Hence.. an Adjective.
" limits by specifying............ Hence.. Specifying.
" specifies by denoting the source or cause [it is put in the Poss-
sessive form] ............. Hence.. Possessive.

RULE—"A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive Case is used Adjectively."
Song .......... is a name ................. Hence.. a Noun.
" name of a class............ Hence.. Common.
" spoken of.................... Hence.. Third Person.
" denotes but one............. Hence.. Singular Number.
" Object of the action expressed by lend.................... Hence.. Objective Case.

 Rule—"The Object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

Ye........... is used for a name........... Hence.. a Pronoun.
" its form denotes its person.......... Hence.. Personal.
" spoken to.......................... Hence.. Second Person.
" denotes more than one.............. Hence.. Plural Number.
 Subject of "lend"................... Hence.. Nominative Case.

 Rule—"The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case."

Nightingales.. is a name ................. Hence.. a Noun.
" name of a class.................. Hence.. Common.
" spoken to.......................... Hence.. Second Person.
" denotes more than one............. Hence.. Plural Number.
" not dependent on any other word (but used incidentally to explain who are meant by "ye").......................... Hence.. Independent Case.

 Rule—"A Noun or Pronoun used to explain a preceding Noun or Pronoun, is in the Independent Case."

SECOND MODEL.

"Our Fathers! where are they?"

Analysis.

Principal Parts... { They............... Subject, } Intransitive Sentence,
{ Are.................. Predicate, } Simple.
Adjuncts.............. { Our............... Adjunct of "Fathers,"
{ Fathers............... Logical Adjunct of "they,"
{ Where............... Adjunct of "are."}

Our ......is an Adjective—Specifying—Possessive—Specifies "Fathers."
Fathers... is a Noun—Common—Masculine—Third Person—Plural Number—Independent Case—a logical Adjunct of "they."

 Rule—Note—"A Noun or Pronoun denoting the subject of remark, is in the Independent Case."

Where... Modifies "are"—hence, an Adverb—of place—Interrogative.
PART III.—SYNTAX—NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

Are... asserts being—hence, a Verb—Intransitive—Indicative Mode—Present Tense—Third Person—Plural Number—corresponds with "they."

RULE—"A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

They.... is used for a name; hence, a Pronoun—Personal—Third Person—Plural Number—Nominative Case to "are."

RULE—"The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case."

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

"They tell me of the Egyptian asp,—
The bite of which is death—
The victim yielding with a gasp,
His hot and hurried breath."

"Ye crags and peaks! I'm with you once again."
"Thus talking, hand in hand, alone they passed
On to their blissful bower."—Millon.
"And hoary peaks that proudly prop
The skies, thy dwellings are."—Percival.
"And echo conversations dull and dry,
Embellished with He said, and so said I."—Cowper.

"He evinced the elder brother's title to the estate, from the contradictory evidence of the witnesses, and the false reasoning of the pleaders; unraveled all the sophistry to the very bottom, and gained a complete victory in favor of truth and justice."—Anon.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

CASES.

What is the definition of the word case, as used in grammar?
To what class of words does the term apply?
How many cases of Nouns and Pronouns? Name them.

NOMINATIVE.

When must a Noun or Pronoun be in the Nominative Case?
The Subject of a Sentence may consist of what?
Is the Subject of a Sentence always expressed?
The Subjects of what Verbs are commonly understood?
What is the natural position of the Subject of a Sentence?
What is its position in Interrogative Sentences?
The position of who, which, and what, used as Interrogatives?
In Declaratives Modes, when may the Subject follow the Predicate?
A Phrase or Sentence used as the Subject of a Sentence, is placed where?
When may a Nominative Phrase follow its Predicate? May the subject be repeated?—When? The logical Subjects of Infinitive Verbs and Participles may be in what Cases?

**OBJECTIVE.**

When must a Noun or Pronoun be in the Objective Case? What words assert action? What express relation? What may constitute the Object of action or relation? How are we to decide when a sentence is Principal or Auxiliary? What is the natural position of the Object? When may a verb have two Objects? Are Prepositions sometimes omitted? What Verbs are often followed by Objective and Independent Cases? Do all Verbs have objects?

**POSSESSIVE.**

What is the office of a Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive Case? Do these words always indicate possession? When is the sign of the Possessive not to be annexed? A Possessive is generally equivalent to what? May they be qualified by other Adjectives? What should be the position of the Possessive?

**INDEPENDENT.**

When is a Noun or Pronoun in the Independent Case? What may be the form of words in this case? Name the various conditions of words in the Independent Case.

**PRONOUN.**

**Rule 8.** A Pronoun must agree with its Antecedent in Gender, Person, and Number.

Obs. 1.—The Antecedent of a Pronoun may be a Word, Phrase, or Sentence.

**EXAMPLES.**

1. A Word..."James has injured himself; he has studied too much."
2. A Phrase..."William's abandoning a good situation in hopes of a better, was never approved by me. It has been the prime cause of all his troubles."
   "It is good to be zealously affected in a good thing."
3. A Sentence..."I am glad that Charles has secured a liberal education—It is what few poor boys have the perseverance to accomplish."
Obs. 2.—A Pronoun may consist of a Word, Phrase, or Sentence.

EXAMPLES.
1. A Word .... I have treated him respectfully.
2. A Phrase....“His being a scholar entitles him to respect.”
3. A Sentence . That good men sometimes commit faults, cannot be denied.
   “Much learning shows
   How little mortals know.” —Young.

Note I. A Pronoun should have a Singular form,
(1.) When it represents one Singular Antecedent
   Example—Henry was quite well when I last saw him.
(2.) When it represents two or more Singular Antecedents taken separately.
   Example—“The oil of peppermint, or any other volatile oil, dropped on paper will soon evaporate; no trace of it will be left.”

Note II. A Pronoun should have a Plural form,
(1.) When it has one Antecedent indicating Plurality.
   Example—Few men are as wise as they might be.
(2.) When it has two or more Antecedents taken collectively.
   Example—Homer and Henry always accomplish what they undertake.

Personal Pronouns.

Note III. The form of a Personal Pronoun, should indicate its Person and Number.

Obs. 1.—The Pronouns I and we denote the person or persons speaking or writing—“I” Singular—“we” Plural. But,
Obs. 2.—“We” is used in the Singular by Editors and Emperors.
   Examples—“We, Nicholas I., Emperor of all the Russias.”
   “We shall present ourself as candidate at the next election.”
Obs. 3.—Thou is used in Solemn Style, to denote a person addressed.
   Example—“Thou didst weave this verdant roof.”
Obs. 4.—You was formerly limited to the Second Person
Plural; but is now used in the Second Person Singular and Plural. Its verb is commonly in the Plural form.

Examples—"You are come too late."
You have accomplished your object.

Obs. 5.—But it has sometimes a Singular form.

Examples—"On that happy day when you was given to the world." 
Dod’s Mas.
"When you was here comforting me.—Pope.
"Why was you glad."—Boswell’s Life of Johnson.

Obs. 6.—The Pronoun "it" often has an Indefinite or undetermined Antecedent; and may then represent any Gender, Person, or Number.

Examples—"It snows." "It rains."
"It was my father.
It was the students.
A pleasant thing it is, to behold the sun.
"If ever there was a ‘people’s man’ in the true sense, it was Dr. Chalmers."—B. B. Edwards.

Note IV. Pronouns of different Persons used in the same connection, should have their appropriate position.

Obs. 1.—The Second Person is used first—the Third next, and the First last.

Example—You and James and I have been invited.

Obs. 2.—But when a fault is confessed, this order is sometimes reversed.

Example—“I and my people have sinned.”

Note V. The Pronoun "them" should not be used Adjectively.

Incorrect.........Bring me them books.
Correct.........Bring me those books.

Relative Pronouns.

Obs. 1.—A Relative Pronoun always performs a double office, and is used,

1. Substantively.

Example—He who studies, will improve.

"Who" relates to "he," and is the Subject of studies—hence, a Substantive.
2. Conjunctively—introducing an Adjective Sentence.

Example—He who studies, will improve.

"Who studies," is a Sentence used to describe "he."

"Who" introduces the Sentence—hence, it is used Conjunctively.

Obs. 2.—Who and whom are applied to man, and to other intelligent beings; which, to things; that, to persons or things.

Examples—"He that attends to his interior self
That has a heart and keeps it, has a mind
That hungers, and supplies it, and who seeks
A social [ ] [ ] [ ] not a dissipated life,
Has business."

"Too low they build, who build beneath the stars."

"He whom sea-severed realms obey."

The books which I had lost have been returned.

——— "where is the patience now
That you so oft have boasted to retain."—Lear, III., 6.

Obs. 3.—But the name of a person taken as a name merely, or as a title, may be represented by the Relative which.

Example—Shylock—which is but another name for selfishness.

Obs. 4.—Which was formerly applied to intelligent beings.

Example—"Our Father, which art in Heaven."

Obs. 5.—When the Relative "what" is used substantively, it bears a part in the structure of two sentences at the same time. It is always equivalent to "that which," or "the things which."

The Antecedent part may be the Subject (A) or Object (B) of a Principal Sentence, the Object (c) of a Phrase in that Sentence, or used in Predication (D). The Consequent or Relative part introduces an Auxiliary Sentence, which qualifies the Antecedent, and may be the Subject (E) or Object (c) of that Sentence, the Object of a Phrase (H), or used in Predication with a Verb (I).

"What reason weaves, by passion is undone."

Pope.

"Deduct what is but vanity."—Idem.

"Each was favored with what he most delight.—"e

"It is not what I supposed it to be."
Obs. 6.—*What* is sometimes a Simple Relative.

*Example*—"And *what* love can do, that dares love attempt."—*Romeo*.

Obs. 7.—*Whoever, whosoever, whatever, whatsoever, and who* (used for whoever), have a construction similar to *what*.

*Examples*—"*Whatever* purifies, fortifies also the heart."
"*Who* lives to Nature, rarely can be poor,
*Who* lives to Fancy, never can be rich."

Obs. 8.—*What, whatever, and whatsoever* are often used Adjectively.

*Examples*—"*What* book have you." "*Whatever* object is most dear."
"*Whatsoever* things are honest."

Obs. 9.—*That* is sometimes improperly used for the Relative *what*.

*Example*—"Take *that* is thine."

Obs. 10.—*What* is sometimes substituted for an Adverbial Phrase.

*Example*—"*What* [in what respect] shall it profit a man."

Obs. 11.—*What* is sometimes used as an Exclamation.

*Example*—"*What!* Is thy servant a dog?"

Obs. 12.—The two words, *but what*, are sometimes improperly used for the Conjunction *that*.

*Examples*—"I did not doubt *but what* you would come."
Corrected—*I did not doubt that* you would come.

Obs. 13.—The Relatives *than* and *as* have Adjectives, or Adjective Pronouns, for their Antecedents.

*As*, when a Relative Pronoun, has for its Antecedent the word "*such*"—used Adjectively, or as an Adjective Pronoun.

*Than* follows more, or some other Adjective, in the Comparative Degree.

*Examples*.

"Nestled at his root
Is Beauty, *such as* blooms not in the glare
Of the broad sun."—*Bryant*.

"We request *such of you* as think we overland the ode, to point out one word in it that would be better away."—*Wilson’s Burns*.

"He has *less discretion than* he was famed for having."
"There is *more owing her than* is paid."—*All’s Well, 1, 3*.

*Rem.*—Let it be remembered that *than* and *as* are Substantives only when they constitute Subjects or Objects of Sentences. Most Teachers would regard those words in the examples above as thus used, but a rigid analysis of these sentences would require the ellipses to be supplied—then the words *as* and *than* would perform the office of Prepositions.

Beauty such as [that which] blooms not, &c.
Less discretion than [that which] he was famed for having.
PART III.—SYNTAX—PRONOUNS.

POSITION.

Note IV. The Position of Relative Pronouns should be such as most clearly to indicate their Antecedents.

Obs. 1.—When a Relative is the Subject or Object of an Auxiliary Sentence, it should be placed next its Antecedent.

Examples.

"Can all that optics teach, unfold
Thy form to please me so."

"The grave, that never spoke before
Hath found, at length, a tongue to chide."

Rem.—To this rule there are exceptions.

"O they love least that let men know their love."—Shakespeare.

Obs. 2.—When the Relative is the Object of a Phrase, it comes between its Antecedent and the Auxiliary Sentence with which that phrase is construed.

Example—We prize that most for which we labor most."

Rem.—"For which" modifies "labor"—"which" relates to "that."

Obs. 3.—The Relative—whether the Subject or Object of a Sentence, or the Object of a Phrase—can rarely be omitted without weakening the force of the expression.

Examples—"For is there aught in sleep [ ] can charm the wise?"

"The time may come [ ] you need not fly."

"It is a question [ ] I cannot answer."

"History is all the light we have in many cases, and we receive from it a great part of the useful truths we have."

INTERROGATIVES.

Note V. Interrogative Pronouns are construed-like Personal Pronouns.

Examples—1. As the Subject of a Sentence—Who has the lesson?
2. As the Object of a Sentence—Whom seek ye?
3. As the Object of a Phrase—For what do we labor?

Obs. 1.—The word which answers a question has a construction similar to that of the word which asks it.

Examples—Whose book have you? Mary's.
How long was you going? Three days.
Where did you see him? In Rochester.
Whence came they? From Ireland.

Rem.—"Mary's" specifies "book"—[during] "three days," modifies
PRONOUNS—ADJECTIVE.

"was gone"—"in Rochester," modifies "did see"—"from Ireland," modifies "came."

Obs. 2.—The Interrogative what, followed by the Conjunctions though, if, and some others, commonly belongs to a Principal Sentence understood, and on which the following sentence depends for sense.

Examples—"What if the foot aspired to be the head?"
What [would be the consequence] if the foot, &c.
"What though Destruction sweep these lovely plains."
What [occasion have we to despair?] though Destruction.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Rule 9. Adjective Pronouns are substituted for the Nouns which they qualify.

Note I. When used as Subjects, each, either, neither, this, that, and all other Adjective Pronouns indicating unity, require their verbs to be in the Singular Number.

Examples—"Each believes his own."
Either is sufficient.

Note II. These, those, many, others, several, and other Adjective Pronouns indicating plurality, require their verbs to be in the Plural.

Examples—"These are the things which defile."
"Those were halcyon days."

Note III. Any, all, like, some, none, more, and such, may have verbs in the Singular or Plural, according as they indicate unity or plurality.

Examples—"None but the upright in heart are capable of being true friends."—Y. L. Friend.
"None has arrived."
"All are but parts of one stupendous whole."
"What if the field be lost? All is not lost."
"The like were never seen before."
"Like produces like."
"Objects of importance must be portrayed by objects of importance; such as have grace, by things graceful."

"Nestled at its root
Is Beauty; such as blooms not in the glare
Of the broad sun."
Obs. 1.—Qualifying and some Specifying Adjectives receive the definitive "the" before them, on becoming Adjective Pronouns. They may be qualified by Adjectives or Adverbs, according as the thing or the quality is to be qualified.

Examples—"The good alone are great."
"The professedly good are not always really so."
"The much good done by him will not soon be forgotten."
"Professedly" modifies the quality—hence, is an Adverb.
"Much" limits the things done—hence, is an Adjective.

Obs. 2.—In the analysis of a Sentence, each other, one another, and similar distributives, are properly parsed as single words.

Examples—They assisted each other.
They assisted each [assisted] the other.

Obs. 3.—When two things are mentioned in contrast, and severally referred to by Adjective Pronouns—this and these, refer to the latter—that and those, to the former.

Examples.
"Here living tea-pots stand; one arm held out, One bent; the handle this, and that the spout."—Pope.
"Farewell, my friends; farewell, my foes; My peace with these, my love with those."—Burns.

Exercises.
"He that getteth wisdom loveth his own soul."

Analysis.
Principal Parts.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{He} & \quad \text{Subject of "loveth."} \\
\text{Loveth} & \quad \text{Predicate of "he."} \\
\text{Soul} & \quad \text{Object of "loveth."}
\end{align*}
\]

Complex Sentence, Principal, Simple, Transitive.

Adjuncts.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{That getteth wisdom} & \quad \text{Adjunct of "he."} \\
\text{His} & \quad \text{Adjuncts of "soul."} \\
\text{own} & \quad \text{Adjuncts of "soul."}
\end{align*}
\]

Auxiliary Sentence.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{That} & \quad \text{Subject of "getteth."} \\
\text{Getteth} & \quad \text{Predicate of "that."} \\
\text{Wisdom} & \quad \text{Object of "getteth."}
\end{align*}
\]

Auxil., Simple, Transitive.
He is used for a name. Hence, a Pronoun.
its form denotes its Person. Hence, Personal.
its has the form of the Masculine. Hence, Masculine Gender
spoken of. Hence, Third Person.
denotes but one. Hence, Singular Number.
Subject of "loveth". Hence, Nominative Case.

**RULE—** "The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case."

That introduces a sentence which qualifies
its Antecedent. Hence, Relative.
relates to "he" as its Antecedent. Hence, { Masculine Gen.,
{ Third Person,
{ Singular Numb.

**RULE—** "A pronoun must agree with its Antecedent in Gender, Person, and Number.
Subject of "getteth". Hence, Nominative Case.

**RULE—** "The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case."

Getteth expresses an action. Hence, a Verb.
act passes to an object. Hence, Transitive.
act done by its Subject. Hence, Active Voice.
simply declares. Hence, Indicative Mode.
denotes time present. Hence, Present Tense.
Predicate of "that". Hence, { Third Person,
{ Singular Numb.

**RULE—** "A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

Wisdom is a name. Hence, a Noun.
name of a quality. Hence, Abstract.
spoken of. Hence, Third Person.
denotes but one. Hence, Singular Numb.'
object of "getteth". Hence, Objective Case.

**RULE—** "The Object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

Loveth expresses an action. Hence, a Verb.
act passes to an object. Hence, Transitive.
simply declares. Hence, Indicative Mode.
denotes a present act. Hence, Present Tense.
Predicate of "that". Hence, { Third Person,
{ Singular Numb.
PART III.—SYNTAX—PRONOUNS.

Rule—"A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

His describes "soul"......Hence, an Adjective.
" describes by specifying............Hence, Specifying.
" specifies by denoting possession.....Hence, Possessive.

Own describes "soul"..............Hence, an Adjective.
" describes by specifying............Hence, Specifying.
" specifies by denoting possession.....Hence, Possessive.

Soul is a name.............Hence, a Noun.
" denotes one of a class...........Hence, Common.
" spoken of..................Hence, Third Person.
" denotes but one..............Hence, Singular Numb
" Object of "loveth"............Hence, Objective Case.

Rule—"The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

EXAMPLES.

The man who was present can give the particulars.
The person whom we met appeared very much alarmed.
I saw the wretch that did it.
We saw the man whom you described.
" Hesperus that led
The starry host rode brightest."—Millon.
" Mem'ry and Forecast just returns engage—
That pointing back to youth, this on to age."
" There is something in their hearts which passes speech."—Story.
" Behind the sea-girt rock, the star
That led him on from crown to crown
Has sunk."—Pierpont.
" The mountain cloud
That night hangs round him, and the breath
Of morning scatters, is the shroud
That wraps the conqueror's clay in death."—Pierpont.
" Mount the horse
Which I have chosen for thee."—Coleridge.
" Few be they who will stand out faithful to thee."—Idem.
" For cold and stiff and still are they, who wrought
Thy walls annoy."—Macaulay.
" Ishmael's wandering race, that rode
On camels o'er the spicy tract, that lay
From Persia to the Red Sea coast."—Pollok.
" The king granted the Jews which were in every city to gather themselves together and to stand for their life, to destroy, to slay, and to cause to perish all the power of the people and province that would assault them."—Bible.
" We have more than heart could wish."
" My punishment is greater than I can bear."
QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is a Pronoun?
What is the Antecedent of a Pronoun?
The Antecedent may consist of what?
The Pronoun may consist of what?
Why are Pronouns varied in form?
When should a Pronoun have a Singular form?
When should a Pronoun have a Plural form?

What is a Personal Pronoun?
In what style of Composition should thou be used?
In what, you? You is used in what Number?
The word it is used for what purposes?
What are the proper positions of the various Pronouns used in the same connection?

What common error in the use of the Pronoun them?

How many offices does a Relative Pronoun perform?
What are they? Give examples.
The proper use of Who? Whom? Which? That?
What is peculiar in the use of the word What?
The Antecedent part may be used in what offices?
The Consequent part may be used in what offices?
Illustrate by examples.
In what other offices is the word What used?
Are than and as ever used as Relatives?
For what are those words substituted when thus used?
What should be the position of Relative Pronouns?
How are Interrogative Pronouns construed?
When do Adjectives become Adjective Pronouns?

ADJUNCTS.

Prin.—Adjuncts belong to the words which they modify or describe.

Obs. 1.—Adjuncts are Adjectives or Adverbs, and may consist of Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

Examples—1. A Word—We were walking homeward.
2. A Phrase—We were walking towards home.
3. A Sentence—“Let me stand here till thou remember it.”

Romeo.

Obs. 2.—Adjuncts may belong to Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

Examples—1. Words—Honorable actions ultimately secure the greatest good.
2. Phrases—He went almost around the world.
3. Sentences—“Nor as the conqueror comes,
   They, the true hearted, came.”
ADJECTIVES.

Rule 10. Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe.

Obs. 1.—It should be remembered that any word whose most important office is to specify, qualify, or otherwise describe a Noun or Pronoun, is therefore an Adjective. See Def. 9. A word which is sometimes or generally used as some other “part of speech,” may, in certain connections, be used adjectively, and when thus used it is an Adjective.*

Examples—An iron fence. Working oxen.

Rem.—Every Adjective having its substantive understood, becomes pronominal. [See Adjective Pronouns.]

Obs. 2.—An Adjective may consist of a

Word—The recitation hour has arrived.

Phrase—The hour for recitation has arrived.

Sentence—The hour in which we recite has arrived.

POSITION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

Obs. 3.—An Adjective Word is commonly placed before its Noun, and after its Pronoun—an Adjective Phrase or Sentence, after its Noun or Pronoun.

Examples—An influential man.

A man of influence.

A man who possesses influence.

* Certain words are, by some Grammarians, called “Adjectives used as Adverbs.” But if the etymology of a word in a sentence is determined by its office in that Sentence—and there is no other proper criterion, it cannot be an Adjective when it is used as an Adverb. Some words are frequently so placed as to be somewhat ambiguous in their office, as

"Here sleeps he now alone."

Does “alone,” in this connection, modify the verb “sleeps,” or does it describe the Pronoun “he”? If the former, it is an Adverb—if the latter, it is an Adjective.

If, in the opinion of the Student, it has an influence on both those words, then he is to decide whether it more fully describes the condition of “he,” than modifies the action of “sleeps”—and parse it accordingly.
ADJECTIVES—NUMERALS.

Obs. 4.—But when an Adjective Word is limited or modified by a Phrase, it is commonly placed after its Noun.

Examples—"Seest thou a man diligent in his business."
"Truth, crushed to earth, will rise again."

Obs. 5.—When the same word is qualified by two or more Adjectives, the one denoting the most definite quality should be placed next it—and when one Adjective specifies, and the other qualifies, the qualifying Adjective is placed next the Noun.

Examples—An industrious young man. A large sweet apple.
"A noble, good old man."
"Sound the loud timbrel o'er Egypt's dark sea."

Common errors.... A new pair of shoes.
Corrected........ A pair of new shoes.

Obs. 6.—An Adjective used in predication, commonly follows the Verb.

Examples—"He grew old."
"The eyes of the sleepers waxed deadly and chill."

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Note I. Adjectives that imply number, should agree in number with their Nouns.

Rem.—Among the Adjectives implying unity, are the following:

A............ A book.          This......This book.

Obs. 1.—But a Noun having two or more Adjectives differing in number, may agree in number with the one placed next it.

Example—"Full many a gem of purest ray serene."

Obs. 2.—One Numeral Adjective may qualify another Numeral.

Examples—one hundred dollars. Four score years.
A hundred horses. Two dozen oranges.

Note II. The Noun should correspond in number with the Adjectives.

Examples—A two feet ruler. A ten feet pole.

Obs.—A few technical and figurative words are used, allowing a Singular Noun with a Plural Adjective.

Examples—A hundred head of cattle. Fifty sail of the line.
PART III.—SYNTAX—ADJECTIVES.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Note III. The Comparative Degree applies to two things or sets of things. The Superlative to more than two.

Obs. 1.—This rule is sometimes violated by good writers.
Example—The largest boat of the two was cut loose.”—Cooper.

Obs. 2.—Comparative and Superlative Adjectives require different constructions.

1. The Comparative Degree requires the former term to be excluded from the latter.
Example—Iron is more valuable than all other metals.

Rem.—In this example, “Iron” is put as one term of comparison, and “all other metals” as the other term—two things are compared. Hence, the Comparative form.

2. The Superlative Degree requires the former term to be included in the latter.
Example—Iron is the most valuable of all the metals.

Rem.—Here “all the metals” are taken severally. “Iron” is taken from the list, and put in comparison with the many others—more than two things are compared. Hence, the use of the Superlative form.

Obs. 3.—Adjectives whose significations do not admit of comparison, should not have the Comparative or Superlative form.
Examples—John’s hoop is much more circular than mine.
Corrected—John’s hoop is much more nearly circular than mine.

Obs. 4.—Double Comparatives and Superlatives are improper.
Example—in the calmest and most stillest night.

Obs. 5.—But lesser is often used by good writers.
Example—“The lesser co-efficient.”—Davies’ Algebra.

FORM.

Obs. 6.—Words used exclusively as Adverbs, should not be used as Adjectives.
Examples—For thine often infirmities.
Corrected—For thy many or frequent infirmities.

Rem.—The comparison of Adjectives is not commonly absolute, but relative. Thus, in saying this is the sweetest apple, I merely say that this apple possesses a higher degree of the quality than all other apples with which it is compared.
ADJECTIVES IN PREDICATION.

Note IV. An Adjective, like Participles, &c., is used in Predication with a Verb, when the Verb requires its aid to form the Predicate.

Examples—"His palsied hand wax'd strong."
"Canst thou grow sad, as Earth grows bright?"—Dana.
"Vanity often renders man contemptible."

Obs. 1.—Participles, like Verbs, sometimes require the use of Adjectives in Predication.

Example—"The desire of being happy, reigns in all hearts."

Obs. 2.—Adjectives used in Predication, should not take the Adverbiai form.

Example—I feel badly to-night.
Corrected—I feel bad to-night.

SPECIFYING ADJECTIVES.

Note V. Specifying Adjectives restrict their Nouns, without denoting quality.

Obs. 1.—Specifying Adjectives should not be used before Nouns taken in a general sense.

Examples—Wisdom is better than rubies—not the wisdom.
Iron is the most useful of metals—not the iron.

Obs. 2.—Either and neither always should relate to one of two, taken separately.
Each and every may relate to one or both of two things, taken separately.

Note VI. Possessive Adjectives describe Nouns and Pronouns, by indicating possession, fitness, origin, condition, &c., &c.

Examples.
Boys' caps........... "Boys'" denotes the size of the caps.
Webster's Dictionary.... "Webster's" denotes the author.
"Heaven's immortal Spring shall yet arrive,
And man's majestic beauty bloom again,
Bright through the eternal year of Love's majestic reign."—Beattie.
"I heard of Peter's buying John's horse."

Rem.—I heard of a certain act—an act of which Peter was the agent—hence, it was Peter's act. The act is expressed by the word "buying"—hence, the word "Peter's" limits, describes the word "buying;" and is, therefore, an Adjective
The object of Peter's act is "horse." The word "John's" is used to limit that object, not to a particular race, or color, or size, but to a particular condition. "John's," therefore, describes "horse"—hence, it is an Adjective.

Note VII. Possessive Adjectives derived from Pronouns, should correspond in Gender, Person, and Number to the Pronouns from which they are derived.

Examples—I have finished my work.  
            He has established his reputation.  
            They have accomplished their object.  
            We must attend to our interests.

Obs. 1.—Possessive Adjectives are sometimes qualified by Sentences introduced by Relative Pronouns, and by Phrases.

Examples.  
"How various his employments, whom the world calls idle."  
Wilson's Burns.

I have spoken of his eminence as a judge.

Obs. 2.—Possessive Adjectives, in addition to their primary office, sometimes introduce Auxiliary Sentences.

Examples.  
"All are but parts of one stupendous whole,  
Whose body Nature is—and God the soul."—Pope.

"Heaven be their resource, who have no other but the charity of the world.—Sterne.

Verbal Adjectives.

Note VIII. A Participle is an Adjective, whenever its principal office is to describe a Noun or Pronoun.

Examples—A standing tree. Blasted fruit. Crushed sugar. For the time being.

"Truth, crushed to earth, will rise again;  
But error, wounded, writhes in pain."

"The orator, standing on the platform, thus began."

"The doctor, being then in the house, was called to his bedside."

Rem.—That the first four Participles in the above examples, are Adjectives, all grammarians consent. But, in regard to the last form, there is not a general agreement. It is maintained that Participles having their appropriate position after the Nouns or Pronouns to which they belong, should not be regarded as Adjectives—but simply as Participles.
On the other hand, it is maintained, that Qualifying Adjectives often find a place after their Nouns—as he is a kind father, but an unkind husband—he is a man kind to his children, but often unkind to his wife. Here, it is allowed, that the change of position does not make a change in the office of the words. It is a general rule in the use of Adjectives—having, it is true, many exceptions—that they precede their Nouns when they are used without Adjunct Phrases; but when they are modified by Phrases, they follow the words which they qualify. (See page 159, obs. 4.)

The disagreement in regard to these words, is one of names merely, for all grammarians agree that they are Participles, and that they “belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe,” and they disagree only in this—one party insist upon adding the name Adjective to that of Participle, by virtue of their office; whereas, others do not think it expedient to add another name.

**Exercises**

“Truth, crushed to earth, will rise again.”

**Truth, Crushed, To Earth, Will Rise, Again.**

**Analysis.**

Principal Parts.... { Truth ............... Subject, } Simple Sentence,

{ Will rise ............ Predicate, } Intransitive.

{ Crushed to earth ...... Adjunct of “truth.” }

{ Again ................. Adjunct of “will rise.” }

**Parsed.**

Truth........is a name.................. Hence.. a Noun.

“ name of principle personified........ Hence.. Proper.

“ spoken of........................... Hence.. Third Person.

“ denotes but one....................... Hence.. Singular Number.

“ subject of “will rise.................. Hence.. Nominative Case.

**Rule**—“The Subject of a sentence must be in the Nominative Case.”

Crushed... describes “truth” as to condition. Hence.. an Adjective.

“ derived from the verb “crush”........ Hence.. Verbal.

“ has no object......................... Hence.. Intransitive.

**Rule**—Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns, which they describe.”

To earth... modifies “crushed”........... Hence.. an Adverb.

“ denotes direction..................... Hence.. Adverb of place.
To shows a relation of "crushed" and "earth". Hence, a Preposition.
Earth is a name. Hence, a Noun.
  " name common to a class. Hence, Common.
  " spoken of. Hence, Third Person.
  " denotes but one. Hence, Singular Number.
  " object of the relation expressed by "to". Hence, Objective Case.

**Rule**—"The Object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

Will rise asserts an action. Hence, a Verb.
  " act does not pass to an Object. Hence, Intransitive.
  " simply declares. Hence, Indicative Mode.
  " denotes a future act. Hence, Future Tense.
  " predicate of "truth". Hence, Third Person, Singular Number.

**Rule**—"A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

Again modifies "will rise". Hence, an Adverb.
  " denotes a future repetition. Hence, Adverb of time.

**Examples for Parsing.**

*Adjective Words.*

"The wild gazelle on Judah's hills,
Exulting, yet may bound,
And drink from all the living rills,
That gush on holy ground;
Its airy step and glorious eye,
May glance in timeless transport by."

*Adjective Phrases.*

"For the angel of death spread his wings on the blast,
And breathed in the face of the foe as he passed."

*Adjective Sentences.*

"Guard us, O Thou who never sleepest."
"Thou whose spell can raise the dead,
Bid the prophet's form appear."
"Who is he that calls the dead?"
"From the last hill that looks on thy once holy dome."
"O lovely voices of the sky,
Which hymned the Saviour's birth,
Are ye not singing still on high,
Yea, that sang, 'Peace on Earth'?"
"Among the faithless, faithful only he
Among innumerable false."—Million.
ADVERBS—NEGATIVE.

ADVERBS.

Rule 11. Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs, which they modify.

Obs. 1.—An Adverb may be a Word, Phrase, or Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

1. A Word.....I will go soon.
2. A Phrase....I will go in a short time.
3. A Sentence..."I shall go ere day departs."—Taylor.

Obs. 2.—An Adverb may modify a Word, Phrase, or Sentence.

1. A Word.....Heman studies diligently.
2. A Phrase....Robert went almost to Boston.
   "Practical knowledge can be gained only in this way."
3. A Sentence..Mozart, just before he died, said, "Now I begin to learn what might be done in music."

NEGATIVE ADVERBS.

Obs. 3.—Negative Adverbs are used primarily to modify Verbs.

EXAMPLE—"They wept not."

2. To modify Adjectives.

EXAMPLES—Not one of the family was there.
   "Not every one that saith unto me, Lord! Lord! shall enter into the kingdom of heaven."

3. To modify other Adverbs.

EXAMPLES—He is not generally in error.
   "They died not by hunger or lingering decay,
   The steel of the white man hath swept them away."
   "Not as the conqueror comes.
   They, the true hearted, came."

Rem.—The influence of the Negatives, not, neither, &c., is often exerted on Nouns, Phrases, or whole Sentences. And, generally, when a Negative occurs in connection with other Adjuncts, the influence of the Negative reaches the whole proposition, including the other Adjuncts.

Obs. 4.—The Adverbs yes, yea, no, nay, are independent in construction.

Rem.—The relation of these words to others in the sentence or period is logical, rather than grammatical.

Obs. 5.—A negation allows but one negative in the same connection.

EXAMPLE—He did not perceive them.
But double negatives are often elegantly used for an affirmative.

Example—"Such perplexities are not uncommon."

Obs. 6.—The words which Adverbs properly modify are sometimes understood.

Example—Thou canst but add one bitter wo
   To those [ ] already there.

Obs. 7. Adverbs sometimes take the place of verbs, which they modify.

Examples—"Off, off, I bid you!" "To arms!"
   "Back to thy punishment, false fugitive!"

Obs. 8.—Adverbs sometimes take the place of Nouns, and hence become Pronouns.

Examples—"Till then"—for, till that time.
   "From there"—for, from that place.
   "And I have made a pilgrimage from far."—Hosmer.
   "Oh, let the ungentle spirit learn from hence
   A small unkindness is a great offence."

Obs. 9.—Participles become Adverbs when they indicate the manner of an action, or modify a quality.

Examples.
   "The surging billows and the gamboling storms
   Come, crouching, to his feet."
   "Now it mounts the wave,
   And rises, threat'ning, to the frowning sky."
   "'Tis strange, 'tis passing strange."
   "A virtuous household, but exceeding poor."

Obs. 10.—A few words, commonly used as Prepositions, are sometimes used Adverbially.

Examples—"Thou didst look down upon the naked earth."
   "And may at last my weary age,
   Find out the peaceful hermitage."—Milton.

POSITION.

Note I. The position of Adverbs should be such as most clearly to convey the sense intended.

Obs.—In constructing a Sentence, judgment and taste are the only true criteria. No definite rule can be given. When Adverbs modify Adjectives and other Adverbs, they are commonly placed before the words which they modify. When they modify Verbs, they may generally be placed before or after. But Negatives are placed after the Verb.
The Adverb is placed immediately after the first word of a Predicate, when it consists of more than one word.

Examples—You are not the man.
I have often seen him.

Note II. In the use of Adverbs, that form of words should be adopted, which is in accordance with the best authority.

Obs. 1.—Most Adverbs are derivative words, and are generally formed by adding ly (formerly written lie—a contraction of like) to its primitive.

Examples—A just man will deal justly.
A foolish man will act foolishly.

Obs. 2.—Generally the Adjective form is given when the word expresses the result of the action of a verb upon its subject.

Examples—"The house was painted green."
"Open thy mouth wide."

Note III. Adjectives used in predication with verbs, should not take the Adverbial form.

Correct construction:.. etc. { The orange tasted sweet.
                                    { The velvet feels smooth.

Incorrect construction:.... { How sweetly did that orange taste.
                                    { William feels badly to-night.

Note IV. Adverbs of time should indicate the time intended.

Incorrect construction...... It was now, too, mid-winter.

ADVERBIAL PHRASES AND SENTENCES.

Obs.—Phrases and Sentences are properly called Adverbial, when they perform the office of Adverbs.

Rem.—Adverbs occur more frequently in the form of Phrases and Sentences, than in that of Words.

Examples.

"A sea
Of glory streams along the Alpine heights."

"To me they sow
The calm decay of nature."

"Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag,
And the waves are white below;
And on with a haste that cannot lag,
They rush in an endless flow."
Exercises.

"Robert went almost to Boston."

\[ \text{ROBERT} \quad \text{WENT} \quad \text{TO} \quad \text{BOSTON} \quad \text{ALMOST} \]

**ANALYSIS.**

Principal Parts

- Robert........... Subject,
- Went............. Predicate,

Adjuncts

- To Boston........ Adjunct of "went."
- Almost........... Adjunct of "to Boston."

**PARSED.**

Robert.........is a name.................. Hence.. a Noun.
  "appropriated to an individual....Hence.. Proper.
  "denotes a male....................Hence.. Masculine Gender
  "spoken of.........................Hence.. Third Person.
  "denotes but one...................Hence.. Singular Number.
  "subject of "went"................Hence.. Nominative Case.

**RULE—" The Subject of a sentence must be in the Nominative Case."**

Went.........asserts an act.................. Hence.. a Verb.
  "does not pass to an object........Hence.. Intransitive.
  "simply declares...................Hence.. Indicative Mode.
  "denotes a past act................Hence.. Past Tense.
  "predicate of "Robert".............Hence \{ Third Person;

**RULE—" A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."**

Almost........modifies "to Boston"........Hence.. an Adverb.

**RULE—" Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs, which they modify."**

To Boston.....modifies "went".............Hence.. an Adverb.
  "denotes place.....................Hence.. Adverb of place.

**RULE—" Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs, which they modify."**

To .............shows a relation of "went" and
  "Boston"............Hence.. a Preposition.
ADVERBS—EXERCISES—QUESTIONS.

Boston is a name. Hence, a Noun.

Hence, appropriated to one of many cities. Hence, Proper.

Hence, Third Person.

Hence, denotes but one. Hence, Singular Number.

Hence, object of the relation expressed by "to." Hence, Objective Case.

Rule—"The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

EXAMPLES.

Adverbial Words.

"Brilliantly"
The glassy waters mirror forth his smiles.

"How lightly mounts the Muse's wing,
Whose theme is in the skies."

Adverbial Phrases.

"For the angel of death spread his wings on the blast,
And breathed in the face of the foe as he passed."

"Fools die for lack of knowledge."

"From the last hill that looks on thy once holy dome."

"In an unexpected hour they were startled by the thunder of the cannon."

Adverbial Sentences.

"The man that dares traduce, because he can with safety to himself, is not a man."

"And breathed in the face of the foe as he passed."

"And truth is hushed, that heresy may preach."

"When the night storm gathers dim and dark,
With a shrill and boding scream,
Thou rushest by the foundering bark,
Quick as a passing dream."

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

What is an Adjunct of a Sentence?
What classes of words are used as Adjuncts?
Adjuncts may consist of what?
Adjuncts may belong to what?

ADJECTIVES.

What is an Adjective?
Adjectives belong to what classes of words?
When is a word an Adjective?

Adjectives may consist of what?
What is the natural position of Adjectives?
What is the position when it is limited by a Phrase?
The position when many Adjectives belong to the same Noun?
What is a Numerical Adjective?

May a Singular and a Plural Adjective belong to the same Noun?
May Numerals qualify or specify each other?
When may an Adjective be used in Predication?
What should be the form of Adjectives in Predication?
What is the office of Specifying Adjectives?
When is it improper to use Specifying Adjectives?
What is the office of Possessive Specifying Adjectives?
When is a Participle an Adjective?

ADVERBS.

What is an Adverb?
Adverbs modify what classes of words?
An Adverb may consist of what?
Negative Adverbs have what peculiarity?
What Adverbs are Independent in Construction?
When may two Negatives be allowed in a Sentence?
Adverbs may take the place of what other class of words?
When is a Participle an Adverb?
What should be the position of Adverbs?
What peculiarity in the form of Adverbs?
Adverb of Time should designate what?

PREPOSITION.

Rule 12. A Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

Obs. 1.—The object of a Preposition may be

A Noun. " " Comes there from Siberian wastes of snow."
A Pronoun. " " He that is not for me, is against me."
An Adjective. " " He has faded from earth like a star from on high."
An Adverb. " " A voice, from whence I knew not."
A Participle. " " Cora is always delighted with singing."
A Verb. " " To sleep—perchance to dream!"
A Phrase. " " From among thousand celestial arhors."
A Sentence. " " To where the river mixes with the main."

Rem.—A perfect construction of the last and similar examples would supply a Noun, as the object of the Preposition.

Example—"To [the point] where the river mixes with the main."

Rem.—Scholars often find it difficult to determine the Antecedent term of a relation expressed by a Preposition—examples sometimes occur in which the relation of the object of a Preposition seems to exist, not to any word, but to the whole Sentence. Generally, however, this question can be settled by ascertaining which word is qualified by the Phrase introduced by a Preposition—that word is the Antecedent term of relation.

Example.—"The doctor is a man of science."

Here the Phrase "of science" qualifies "man"—hence, "man" is the Antecedent term of relation—and the Phrase is Adjective.

"The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea."

Here "o'er the lea" modifies "winds"—hence, "winds" is the Antecedent—and the Phrase is Adverbia.
"And leave the world to darkness and to me."
Here "to darkness and to me" modifies "leave"—hence, leave is the Antecedent—and the Phrase is Adverbial.

"Which flung its purple o'er his path to heaven."
Here "to heaven" modifies leading (or a word of similar office), understood—hence, "leading" is the proper Antecedent—and the Phrase is Adverbial. But the Complex Phrase, "leading to heaven" qualifies "path"—hence, "path" is its Antecedent—and the Complex Phrase, "leading to heaven," is Adjective. [See page 94, note.]

Obs. 2.—Double Prepositions are sometimes allowed.
Examples—"Out of every grove the voice of pleasure warbles."
"There can be no question as to which party must yield."

Obs. 3.—But two Prepositions should not be used, when one of them will fully express the sense intended.
Examples—"Near to this dome is found a path so green."—Shenstone.
"Not for to hide it in a hedge."—Burns.

Obs. 4.—Prepositions are sometimes used in predication with Verbs.
Example—Its idle hopes are o'er.

Rem.—This construction of the Preposition obtains most frequently with the Passive Voice of Verbs whose Active form would be modified by a Phrase; on changing the voice of the Verb from Active to Passive, the Preposition introducing that Phrase is retained in predication.

Examples.
Active........I have attended to your business.
Passive........Your business has been attended to by me.

Position.
Obs. 5.—The proper place for a Preposition is (as its name implies) before the Phrase which it introduces.
Examples—"In dread, in danger, and alone,

  Famished and chilled through ways unknown."

Obs. 6.—But, by the poets, it is often placed after its object
Example.
"What seemed his head,
The likeness of a kingly crown had on."—Milton.

Obs. 7.—And sometimes in colloquial style.
Example—"You will have no mother or sister to go to."—Abbott.
Rem.—This idiom is inelegant, and not to be recommended.

Obs. 8.—A Preposition commonly indicates the office of the Phrase which it introduces.
Example—[See page 95.]
PART III.—SYNTAX—PREPOSITIONS.

Note: I. Care should be exercised in the choice of Prepositions.

Obs. 1.—The particular Preposition proper to introduce a given Phrase depends—
1. Usually on the word which the Phrase is to qualify.
2. Sometimes on the object of the Phrase.

Examples.

Accommodate to.
Accord with.
Accuse of.
Acquit of.
Acquainted with.
Ask of a person.
" for a thing.
Believe in the doctrine.
" on the name.
Bestow upon.
Betray to a person.
" into a thing.
Boast of.
Call on a person.
" at a place.
Compare with—to.
Concur with—in.
Copy after a person.
" from a thing.
Die by violence.
" of a disease.
Differ from.
Diminish from.
Dissent from.
Engaged to a person.
" for a time.
Engaged in a business.
Insist upon.
Made of a thing.
" by a person.
" in a place.
Rule over a person.
" in a manner.
Unite with—to—in.
Abhorrence of.
Agreeable to.
Averse to—from.
Compliance with.
Confounded to.
Dependent upon a person.
" for a thing.
Difficulty in—with.
Eager in—for.
Equal to—with.
Familiar to a person.
" with a thing.
Need of.
Prejudice against.
Regard to—for.
True to.
Value upon.
Worthy of.

Obs. 2.—When the second term of a Comparison is expressed by a Phrase—

After a Superlative, the Preposition of is commonly used.
After a Comparative, the Preposition than is commonly used.

Examples—Grammar is the most interesting of all my studies.
Grammar is more interesting than all my other studies.

Obs. 3.—When the second term of a Comparison of equality is a Noun, or Pronoun, the Preposition as is commonly used—sometimes like is used.

Examples—"He hath died to redeem such a rebel as me."—Wesley.
"An hour like this, may well display the emptiness of human grandeur."
PREPOSITIONS—CONJUNCTIONS.

OBS. 4.—Some writers substitute the words for and with.

EXAMPLES.

"It implies government of the very same kind with that which a master exercises over his servants."—Bp. Butler.

"Mr. Secor found means to have Mr. Butler recommended to him [Lord Talbot] for his chaplain."—Life of Dr. Butler.

OBS. 5.—Adverbal Conjunctions are sometimes used for Adverbal Phrases.

EXAMPLES—Where—for in which.
    Wher—for at which time.
    "O impos'd estate of human life,
    Where Hope and Fear maintain eternal strife!"
    "So said, he o'er his sceptre bowing, rose
    From the right hand of glory where he sat."—Milton.

CONJUNCTIONS.

Rule 13. Conjunctions introduce Sentences and connect Words and Phrases.

Rem.—Conjunctions differ from Prepositions in not expressing a relation of the words connected.

OBS. 1.—Conjunctions may be omitted when the connection is sufficiently clear without them.

EXAMPLES—"Ununb'ered systems, [ ] suns, and worlds,
    Unite to worship thee;
    While thy majestic greatness fills
    Space, [ . . ] Time, [ ] Eternity."

OBS. 2.—The position of Sentences often determines their connection.

EXAMPLES—"The time may come you need not run."—Thomson.
    "Milt'nn! thou shouldst be living at this hour—
    [For] England hath need of thee."—Wordsworth.

OBS. 3.—Relative Pronouns and Possessive Adjectives derived from them. serve, in addition to their primary office, to introduce Auxiliary Sentences.

EXAMPLES—"He who filches from me my good name
    Robs me of that which not enriches him."
    "Lo the poor Indian whose untutored mind
    Sees God in clouds or hears him in the wind."
    "Tho' had a voice whose sound was like the sea."

OBS. 4.—The Conjunction that often introduces a sentence which is the logical object of a verb or participle going before in construction.

EXAMPLE—"The creditor demanded that payment should be made."
    [See Diagram, p. 33.]
PART III.—SYNTAX—CONJUNCTIONS.

Obs. 5.—Conjunctions that introduce Auxiliary Sentences, and some others, indicate the offices of the Sentences which they introduce.

If, Unless, &c., indicate condition.
As, When, Before, &c., indicate time.
For, Hence, Therefore, &c., indicate an inference or cause.
But, Yet, Nevertheless, &c., indicates restriction or opposition.
Nor, Neither, &c., indicate a negation.

Examples—"If sinners entice thee, consent thou not."
Speak of me as I am—nothing extenuate
Nor set down aught-in malice."

Obs. 6.—The Adverb "how" is sometimes improperly used instead of the Conjunction "that."

Example—"She tells me how with eager speed
He flew to hear my vocal reed."—Shenstone.

Obs. 7.—Conjunctions sometimes introduce the remnant of a Sentence.

Example—Though [ ] afflicted he is happy.

Obs. 8.—Words connected by Conjunctions have a similar construction.

Examples—"God created the heaven and the earth."
"Time slept on flowers, and lent his glass to hope."
"A great and good man has fallen."

Rem.—"Heaven" and "earth" are alike Objects of "created."
"Slept" and "lent" are Predicates of "Time."
"Great" and "good" describe "man."

Obs. 9.—But they have not necessarily similar modifications.

Example—"Every teacher has and must have his own particular way of imparting knowledge."—McElligott.

Rem.—"Has" and "must have" are Predicates of "teacher"—but they are not of the same Mode nor Tense.

Obs. 10.—Position.—The proper place for a Conjunction is before the sentence which it introduces, and between the words or phrases which it connects.

Example—"And there lay the rider, distorted and pale,
With the dew on his brow and the rust on his mail."

Obs. 11.—But, in complex sentences, the Conjunction introducing the Principal Sentence is commonly placed first, and that introducing the Auxiliary Sentence immediately following

Example—"And when its yellow lustre smiled
O'er mountains yet untrod,
Each mother held aloft her child
To bless the bow of God."
CONJUNCTIONS—EXCLAMATIONS. 181

But to this rule there are exceptions.

EXAMPLES—"They kneeled before they fought."
"How vain are all these glories, all our pains,
Unless good sense preserve what beauty gains."—Pope.

CORRESPONDING CONJUNCTIONS.

Obs. 12.—Many Conjunctions correspond to Adverbs, to
Prepositions, and to other Conjunctions.
As...so..."As is the mother so is the daughter."
So...as..."Mary is not so cheerful as usual."
Both...and..."Both good and bad were gathered in one group."
Either...or..."Either you mistake, or I was misinformed."
Neither...nor..."Neither Alice nor Caroline has been here to day."
Whether...or..."I care not whether you go or stay."
So...that..."He called so loud that all the hollow deep."
Such...that..."My engagements are such that I cannot go."
If...then..."If you will take the right, then I will go to the left."
Not only...but also..."She was not only vain, but also extremely ignorant."
Though...yet..."Though man live a hundred years, yet is his life as vanity."
Because...therefore..."Therefore doth my father love me, because I lay down my life."

Rem.—The Antecedent corresponding word is sometimes expletive.

Obs. 13.—Double Conjunctions are sometimes used.

EXAMPLES—"As though he had not been anointed with oil."
"And yet, fair bow, no fabling dreams,
But words of the Most High
Have told why first thy robe of beams
Was woven in the sky."

Obs. 14.—But they may not be used when one of them would
fully express the connection.

EXAMPLE—"There would be no doubt but that they would remain."
The word "but" is unnecessary and improper.

EXCLAMATIONS.

Rule 14. Exclamations have no dependent con-
struction.

Obs.—Exclamations may be followed by Words, Phrases, or
Sentences.

EXAMPLES—"O Scotia! my dear, my native soil!
Wo! Wo! to the riders that trample thee down."
"O that I could again recall
My early joys, companions, q!!!"
EUPHONY.

Prin.—Words of Euphony are in their offices chiefly rhetorical.

Rem.—The principles of Euphony are much required in the structure of all languages. For Euphony, words are altered in form, position, and office—and they are for Euphony created or omitted.

Obs.—Euphony allows—
1. The transposition of words in a Sentence.
   Example—"From peak to peak the rattling crags among Leaps the live thunder."
2. The omission of a letter or syllable.
   Example—"Hark! 'tis the breeze of twilight calling."
3. The substitution of one letter for another.
   Examples.
   Collect..........................Syllogism...............Immigrant.
   For Conject......................Syllogism...............Immigrant.
4. The addition of a letter, syllable, or word.
   Example—"It was his bounden duty thus to act."
5. A word to be separated into parts, and another word inserted between them.
   Example—"How much soever we may feel their force."
6. A word to be used not in its ordinary office.
   Examples—"And there lay the steed with his nostrils all wide."
   "The more I see of this method, the better I like it."

POSITION.

Obs. 2.—Words of Euphony should be placed in their appropriate connection.

In the following examples, this principle is violated:

"To think of others, and not only of himself."
Here "only" is used to render "himself" emphatic. A better position would be—".... and not of himself only."

"Joyous Youth and manly Strength and stooping Age are even here."
Better—Joyous Youth and manly Strength and even stooping Age are here.

"When our hatred is violent, it sinks us even beneath those we hate."
Better—.... it sinks us beneath even those we hate.

"Even in their ashes live their wonted fires."
OBS. 3.—A word repeated in the same connection, is to be regarded as a word of Euphony.

Examples—"Down! down! the tempest plunges on the sea."
"For life! for life! their flight they ply."

GENERAL RULES.

1. In constructing a Sentence, such words should be chosen as will most clearly convey the sense intended—regard being had also to variety and other principles of taste.

2. In expressing Complex ideas, judgment and taste are to be exercised in the use of Phrases and Sentences, when they may equally convey the sense—regard being had 1st, to the sense—2d, to good taste, &c.

3. That Modification of words should be adopted, which is in accordance with the most reputable usage.

4. The relative Position of Words, Phrases, and Sentences, should be such as to leave no obscurity in the sense.

5. Involved Complex Sentences should not be used, when Simple or Independent Sentences would better convey the sense.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PREPOSITIONS.

What is the office of a Preposition?
The object of a Preposition may consist of what?
How are we to determine what word is the antecedent term of a relation?
When may double Prepositions be used?
When may Prepositions be used in Predication?
What is the proper position of a Preposition?
How are we to determine what Preposition to use in a given Phrase?
When the Antecedent and Consequent are related by comparison, what Preposition is used?

CONJUNCTIONS.

What is the office of Conjunctions?
Wherein does the office of a Conjunction differ from that of a Preposition?
When may the Conjunction be omitted?
What other words are used to introduce sentences?
What secondary office do some Conjunctions perform?
Wherein must words connected by a Conjunction agree?
What is the proper position of a Conjunction?
What peculiarity of position in complex sentences?
When may double Conjunctions be used?
PART III.—SYNTAX—EXERCISES.

EXCLAMATIONS.

What is an Exclamation?
What relation have they to other words in a Sentence?
Exclamations are followed by what?

WORDS OF EUPHONY.

What is the office of a Word of Euphony?
Principles of Euphony allow what deviations from the ordinary structure of Words, Phrases, and Sentences?

Exercises.

"For the angel of death spread his wings on the blast,
And breathed in the face of the foe as he passed."

ANALYSIS.

Principal Parts. { Angel . . . . Subject, Spread [and] } Predicates Breathed \{ Compound Sentence Mixed. \\
Wings . . . . Object of "spread." \}

The \{ Adjuncts of "angel." \}
Of death \{ Adjunct of "wings." \}
His \{ Adjunct of "spread." \}
On the blast \{ Adjuncts of "breathed." \}
In the face of the foe \{ Adjuncts of "breathed." \}
As he passed \{ Simple Sentence, Intransitive. \}

Auxiliary Sentence. \{ As . . . . introduces the sentence \}
He . . . . Subject, \{ \}
Passed . . . . Predicate.

PARSED.

For . . . . introduces the sentence . . . . Hence . . . . a Conjunction.

RULE.—"Conjunctions introduce sentences and connect words and phrases."

The . . . . specifies "angel." . . . . Hence \{ an Adjective, Specifying. \}

RULE.—"Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe."

Angel . . . . is a name . . . . . . Hence . . . . a Noun.
" one of a class . . . . . . Hence . . . . Common.
" spoken of . . . . . . Hence . . . . Third Person.
" denotes but one . . . . . . Hence . . . . Singular Number.
" subject of the words "spread" and "breathed" . . . . . . Hence . . . . Nominative Case.
RULE.—"The Subject of a sentence must be in the Nominative Case."

Of death specifies "angel". Hence an Adjective Specifying.

RULE.—"Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe."

Of introduces a Phrase, showing a relation of "death" to "angel." Hence a Preposition.

RULE.—"A Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its phrase qualifies."

Death is a name. Hence a Noun.

" denotes a class. Hence Common.
" spoken of. Hence Third Person.
" denotes but one. Hence Singular Number.
" Object of the relation expressed by "of". Hence Objective Case.

RULE.—"The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

Spread asserts an act. Hence a Verb.

" act passes to an object. Hence Transitive.
" simply declares. Hence Indicative Mode.
" denotes a past act. Hence Past Tense.
" Predicate of "angel". Hence Third Person, Singular Number.

RULE.—"A Verb must agree with its subject in Person and Number."

His describes "wings". Hence an Adjective.

" describes by specifying. Hence Specifying.
" specifies by denoting possession. Hence Possessive.

RULE.—"Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe."

Wings is a name. Hence a Noun.

" name of a class of things. Hence Common.
" spoken of. Hence Third Person.
" denotes but one. Hence Singular Number
" Object of the action expressed by "spread". Hence Objective Case.

RULE.—"The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."
On the blast modifies "spread"—denoting place. Hence. Adv. of Place.

**Rule.**—"Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs which they modify."

On shows a relation of "spread" and "blast." Hence. a Preposition.

**Rule.**—"A Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies."

The describes "blast" by specifying Hence. Adj. Specifying.

Blast is a name. Hence. a Noun.

name of a class of things. Hence. Common.
spoken of. Hence. Third Person.
denotes but one. Hence. Singular Number.
Object of relation expressed by "on." Hence. Objective Case.

**Rule.**—"The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

And connects the words "spread" and "breathed." Hence. a Conjunction.

**Rule.**—"Conjunctions introduce Sentences and connect words and Phrases."

Breathed asserts an act. Hence. a Verb.

act does not pass to an object. Hence. Intransitive.
simply declares. Hence. Indicative Mode.
denotes a past act (definite in the mind of the speaker and made definite to the hearer by the Auxiliary sentence "as he passed") Hence. Past Tense Det.

Predicate of "angel." Hence. Third Person, Singular Number.

**Rule.**—"A Verb must agree with its subject in Person and Number."

In the face of the foe modifies "breathed"—denoting place. Hence. Adv. of Place.

**Rule.**—"Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs which they modify."

In shows a relation of "breathed" and "face." Hence. a Preposition.

**Rule.**—"A Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies."
The...........describes "face" by specifying Hence..Adj. Specifying.

Rule.—"Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe."

Face...........is a name................Hence..a Noun.
" name of a class........Hence..Common.
" spoken of........Hence..Third Person.
" denotes but one........Hence..Singular Number.
" Object of relation expressed by
  "in"..................Hence..Objective Case.

Rule.—"The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

Of the foe........describes "face" by specifying Hence..Adj. Specifying.

Rule.—"Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe."

Of...........shows a relation of "face" an
  "foe"..................Hence..a Preposition.

Rule.—"A Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies."

The...........describes "foe"—by specifying Hence..Adj. Specifying.

Rule.—"Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe."

Foe...........is a name................Hence..a Noun.
" name of a class........Hence..Common.
" spoken of........Hence..Third Person.
" denotes but one........Hence..Singular Number.
" Object of relation expressed by
  "of"..................Hence..Objective Case.

Rule.—"The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case."

As he passed.....modifies "breathed"—denoting
  time................Hence..Adv. of Time.

Rule.—"Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs which they modify."

As...........introduces an Auxiliary Sen-
  tence................Hence..a Conjunction.

Rule.—"Conjunctions introduce Sentences and connect Words and Phrases."
He is used for a name. Hence a Pronoun.
its form determines its Person
and Number. Hence Personal.
spoken of. Hence Third Person.
denotes but one. Hence Singular Number.
subject of "passed." Hence Nominative Case.

RULE.—"The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case."

Passed asserts an act. Hence a Verb.
act does not pass to an object. Hence Intransitive.
simply declares. Hence Indicative Mode.
denotes a past act. Hence Past Tense.
Predicate of "he." Hence Third Person, Singular Number.

RULE.—"A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES FOR PARSONG.

"He was stirred
With such an agony he sweat extremely."—Henry VIII., ii. 2.
"But it is fit things be stated as they are considered—as they really are." Bp. Butler.

"He, whose soul
Ponders this true equality, may walk
The fields of earth with gratitude and hope."—Wordsworth.

"Before we passionately desire any thing which another enjoys, we
should examine into the happiness of its possessor."
"They say 'this shall be,' and it is,
For ere they act, they think."—Burns.
"My heart is awed within me, when I think of the great miracle, that
still goes on in silence round me."

"Take good heed,
Nor there be modest, where thou shouldest be proud."—Young.
"Ambition saw that stooping Rome could bear
A master, nor had virtue to be free."—Thomson.

"Such expressions invest their genius with greater loveliness, because
they throw over it the graceful mantle of humility."
"Though thunder-clouds the sky deform,
Their fury cannot reach me there."
"Let not false pride, lest we should betray ignorance, prevent us from
asking a question, when it can be answered."
"But when loud surges lash the sounding shore,
The hoarse, rough verse should like the torrent roar."
"The time was when princes were scarcely rich enough to purchase a copy of the Bible."

"O! let the steps of youth be cautious,
How they advance into a dangerous world."

"If the great Apostles of Science confessed they knew so little, what ground of boasting can there be for the tyro in their schools?"

"And in her greedy whirlpool sucks the tides,
Then spouts them from below."

"Thou art the ruins of the noblest man,
That ever lived in the tide of time."

"With what loud applause didst thou beat heaven with blessing Bolingbroke before he was what thou wouldst have him be."

'Nor will I at my humble lot repine,
Though neither wealth, nor fame, nor luxury be mine."

"Mists from black jealousies the tempest form,
Whilst late divisions reinforce the storm."

"When we consider carefully what appeals to our minds, and exercise upon it our own reason, taking into respectful consideration what others say upon it, and then come to a conclusion of our own, we act as intelligent beings."

"As the bright stars and milky way,
Showed by the night are hid by day,
So we in that accomplished mind,
Help'd by the night new graces find,
Which by the splendor of her view,
Dazzled before we never knew."—Walter.

"And shout their raptures to the cloudless skies,
While every jovial hour on downy pinions flies."

RECAPITULATION OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

Rule 1. — The Subject of a Sentence — Noun or Pronoun.

The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case.

Rule 2. — Predicate of a Sentence — Verb.

A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number.

Rule 3. — Verb — Infinitive.

A Verb in the Infinitive Mode is the Object of the Preposition to, expressed or understood.

Rule 4. — Participles.

A Participle has the same construction as the part of speech for which it is used.
Rule 5.—The Object of a Sentence or Phrase—Noun or Pronoun.

The object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case.

Rule 6.—Possessive Case—Noun or Pronoun.

A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive Case is used Adjectively.

Rule 7.—Independent Case—Noun or Pronoun.

A Noun or Pronoun not dependent on any other word in construction is in the Independent Case.

Rule 8.—Pronouns.

A Pronoun must agree with its Antecedent in Gender, Person, and Number.

Rule 9.—Adjective Pronouns.

Adjective Pronouns are substituted for the Nouns which they qualify.

Rule 10.—Adjectives.

Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe.

Rule 11.—Adverbs.

Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs, which they modify.

Rule 12.—Prepositions.

A Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

Rule 13.—Conjunctions.

Conjunctions introduce Sentences and connect Words and Phrases.

Rule 14.—Exclamations.

Exclamations have no dependent construction.
PART IV.

Def. 1. That part of the Science of Language which treats of utterance, is called

Prosody.

Oss.—Utterance is modified by Pauses, Accent, and the laws of Versification.

PAUSES.

Def. 2. Pauses are cessations of the voice in reading or speaking.

Oss. 1.—Pauses are............ { Rhetorical and
                      ............} Grammatical.

Oss. 2.—Rhetorical Pauses are useful chiefly in arresting attention. They are generally made after, or immediately before emphatic words.

They are not indicated by marks.

Examples—There is a calm for those who weep.
            A rest for weary pilgrims found.

Oss. 3.—Grammatical Pauses are useful—in addition to their Rhetorical effect—in determining the sense.

They are indicated by

MARKS OF PUNCTUATION.

They are—

The Comma , The Period .
The Semicolon ; The Interrogation ?
The Colon : The Exclamation !
The Dash —

Oss. 4.—In its Rhetorical office,
The Comma requires a short pause in reading.
PART IV.—PROSODY—PAUSES.

The Semicolon, a pause longer than the Comma.  
The Colon, a pause longer than the Semicolon.  
The Period requires a full pause.  
The Dash, the marks of Exclamation and Interrogation, require pauses corresponding with either of the other marks.  

Rem.,—In the use of Marks of Punctuation, good writers differ; and it is exceedingly difficult for the Teacher to give Rules for their use, that can be of general application.  
The following Rules are the most important.

COMMA.

Rule—Words similar in construction, having a connective understood, are separated by a Comma.

Examples.
David was a brave, martial, enterprising prince.

"There is such an exactness in definition, such a pertinence in proof, such a perspicuity in his detection of sophisms, as have been rarely employed in the Christian cause."—B. B. Edwards.

Obs.—When more than two words of the same construction occur consecutively, the Comma should be repeated after each.

Examples—"Fame, wisdom, love, and power, were mine."

"Unnumbered systems, suns, and worlds, unite to worship thee."

Veracity, justice, and charity, are essential virtues.

Rule—The parts of a Complex Sentence should be separated by a Comma, when the Auxiliary precedes the Principal Sentence.

Examples—"Where wealth and freedom reign, contentment fails."

"If thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink."

Rule—An Adjunct Phrase or Sentence, used to express an incidental fact, and placed between the parts of the Principal Sentence, is separated by Commas.

Examples—"The grave, that never spoke before,  
Hath found, at length, a tongue to chide."

"But now a wave, high rising o'er the deep,  
Lifts its dire crest."

Obs. 2.—But when an Adjunct Phrase or Sentence which is indispensable in perfecting the sense immediately follows the word which it qualifies, the Comma should not intervene.

Example—"Every one that findeth me, shall slay me."
PAUSES—THE COMMA.

Rule—Words, Phrases, and Sentences, thrown in between the parts of a Sentence, should be separated by a Comm.

1. As denoting an inference from a foregoing fact.
2. To modify the whole proposition.

Examples.

"Go, then, where, wrapt in fear and gloom,
    Fond hearts and true are sighing."

"Now, therefore, I pray thee, let thy servant abide."

* It might seem, indeed, in a superficial view, that the preaching of the Gospel requires only ordinary powers of understanding."—B. B. Edwards.

"These questions, too, were carefully studied."

"It is a clear lake, the very picture, ordinarily, of repose."

Rule—A Phrase or Sentence used as the Subject of a Verb, requires a Comma between it and the Verb.

Examples.

To do good to others, constitutes an important object of existence.
That we are rivals, does not necessarily make us enemies.

Rule—Words used in direct addresses, and independent Phrases, should be separated by a Comm.

Examples.

"Thou, whose spell can raise the dead,
    Bid the prophet's form appear;
Samuel, raise thy buried head!
    King, behold the phantom seer?"

"Child, amidst the flowers that play,
    While the red light fades away;
Mother, with thy earnest eye
    Ever following silently;
Father, by the breeze of eve,
    Called thy harvest work to leave;
Pray!—ere yet the dark hours be,
    Lift the heart and bend the knee!"

Rule—Adject Sentences, Phrases, and sometimes Words, not in their natural position, should be separated by a Comm.

Example.

"Into this illustrious society, he whose character I have endeavored feebly to portray, has, without doubt, entered."

Rem.—The style of composition often determines the pauses, and consequently, the marks of punctuation. Thus a mathematical Proposition—or an argumentative and logical discourse requires "close pointing." Whereas, a narrative, a description, and generally, all compositions in which the style is loose, require fewer pauses, and, by consequence, fewer marks.
SEMICOLON.

Rule—The Semicolon is used at the close of a sentence, which, by its terms, promises an additional sentence.

Examples.

"The Essayists occupy a conspicuous place in the last century; but, somehow, I do not feel disposed to set much store by them."

"The fruitless showers of worldly wo,
Fall dark to earth and never rise;
While tears that from repentance flow,
In bright exhalation reach the skies."—Moore.

Obs.—By many writers, the Semicolon is used to separate short sentences, which have not a close dependence on each other.

Examples.

"He was a plain man, without any pretension to pulpit eloquence, or any other accomplishment; he had no gift of imagination; his language was hard and dry; and his illustrations, homely."

"We are watchers of a beacon,
Whose light must never die;
We are guardians of an altar
Midst the silence of the sky;
The rocks yield founts of courage,
Struck forth as by thy rod;
For the strength of the hills we bless thee,
Our God, our fathers' God."—Mrs. Hemans.

I had a seeming friend;—I gave him gifts and he was gone;
I had an open enemy; I gave him gifts, and won him;—
The very heart of hate melteth at a good man's love;"

COLON.

Rule—The Colon is used at the close of a sentence, when another sentence is added as a direct illustration or inference.

Examples.

"Let me give you a piece of good counsel, my cousin: follow my laudable example: write when you can: take Time's forelock in one hand, and a pen in the other, and so make sure of your opportunity."—Cowper.

"Among relations, certainly there is always an incitements: we always feel an anxiety for their welfare."—H. K. White.

"From the last hill that looks on thy once holy dome,
I beheld thee, O Sion! when rendered to Rome:
'Twas thy last sun went down, and the flames of thy fall
Flashed back on the last glance I gave to thy wall."

Hebrew Melodies.

Rem.—The Colon is not much used by late writers—its place being supplied by the Semicolon, the Dash, or the Period.
PERIOD.

Rule—The Period is used at the close of a complete or independent proposition.

Obs.—The Period is also used after initial letters and abbreviations.

Example—J. Q. Adams, LL.D., M.C.

DASH.

Rule—The Dash is used to indicate,
1. An abrupt transition.
2. An unfinished sentence.
3. A succession of particulars.

Examples.

"All this dread order break—for whom? for thee?
Vile worm!—O madness! pride! impiety!"

"They met to expatiate and confer on state affairs—to read the newspapers—to talk a little scandal—and so forth—and the result was—as we have been told—considerable dissipation."—Wilson's Burns.

"And is thy soul immortal?—What remains?
All, all, Lorenzo!—Make immortal blessed—
Unblest immortals!—What can shock us more?"

"To me the Night Thoughts is a poem, on the whole, most animating and delightful—amazingly energetic—full of the richest instruction—improving to the mind—much of it worthy of being committed to memory—some faults—obscure—extravagant—tinged occasionally with flattery."

Obs. 1.—The Dash is often used instead of the Parenthesis.

Example.

"As they disperse they look very sad—and, no doubt they are so—but had they been, they would not have taken to digging."

Obs. 2.—Many modern writers use the Dash in place of the Semicolon and the Colon—and sometimes with them.

Examples.

"Ye have no need of prayer;—
Ye have no sins to be forgiven."—Sprague.

"What is there saddening in the Autumn leaves?
Have they that 'green and yellow melancholy'
That the sweet Poet spoke of? Hath he seen
Our variegated woods, when first the frost
Turns into beauty all October's charms—
When the dread fever quits us—when the storms
Of the wild Equinox, with all its wet
Has left the land -------."—Brainerd.
EXCLAMATION.

Rule—The mark of Exclamation is used after a word, phrase or sentence, whose prominent office is to express sudden or intense emotion.

Examples.
"Hark! a strange sound affrights mine ear."
"To arms!—they come!—the Greek, the Greek!"
"'Tis done! arise! he bids thee stand."

INTERROGATION.

Rule—The mark of Interrogation is used after a word, phrase, or sentence, by which a question is asked.

Example—"Why is my sleep disquieted?
Who is he that calls the dead?
Is it thou, O king?"

Rem.—When the Interrogation or Exclamation is used, the Comma, Semicolon, Colon, or Period, is omitted.

GRAMMATICAL AND RHETORICAL SIGNS.

Obs. 1.—The signs used in writing are
1. The Apostrophe '
2. The Quotation " "
3. The Hyphen -
4. The Bracket [ ]
5. The Parenthesis ( )
6. References * †
7. The Brace }
8. Inflections { Rising
   Falling
   Circumflex
9. Measures { Long —
   Short —
10. Caret ^
11. Diaeresis
12. Index Æ
13. The Section ®
14. The Paragraph ¶

The Apostrophe (') is used to indicate the omission of a letter—and to change a Noun into a Possessive Specifying Adjective.

Examples—"Hearts, from which 'twas death to sever;
Eyes, this world can ne'er restore."
"How lightly mounts the Muse's wing."

The Quotation (" " ) is used to inclose words taken from some other author or book.

Examples—"Southey, among all our living poets," says Professor Wilson, "stands aloof and ' alone in his glory.'"

A quotation quoted is indicated by single marks.

Example—[See the latter part of the example above.]
The Hyphen [-] is used between two elements of a compound word.

Examples—Money-maker—ink-stand—black-board.

Rem.—It is also used at the end of a line, when, the word is not finished. [See this remark.]

The Bracket [ ] is used to inclose a letter or mark, given as an explanatory example; or a word, phrase, or sentence, thrown in by a reviewer, and not a part of the original sentence.

Examples—"Milton! thou shouldest be living at this hour—[For] England hath need of thee."
"Mr. Secor found means to have Mr. Butler recommended to him [Lord Talbot] for his chaplain."

The Parenthesis ( ) is used to inclose a phrase or sentence, explanatory of, or incidental to, the main sentence.

Obs. 2.—Modern writers often use the Dash for the same purpose.

Example—"The monotony of a calm—for the trade-wind had already failed us—was agreeably relieved yesterday, by the neighborhood of two ships," &c.—Malcolm.

References (* † ‡ §) direct attention to notes at the margin or bottom of the page.

Obs. 3.—The letters of the Latin or Greek alphabets, and sometimes figures, are used for the same purpose.

The Brace { } is used to join three lines in a triplet—and to include many species in one class.

Examples—"Four limpid fountains from the cliffs distill;
   And every fountain pours a several rill,
   In mazy windings wandering down the hill;
   Where blooms with vivid green were crowned,
   And glowing violets cast their odors round."

Inflections (¨ ´) indicate elevations or depressions of the key note in reading.

Examples—"Do you go to Albany?" "I go to Utica."

Measures

(-) indicates the long sound of a syllable, as lâte, mète, nôte.

(´) indicates the short sound of a syllable, as lêt, mét, nôt.
The Caret (\^) is used between two words, to indicate the place of words omitted, and placed above the line.

Example—"The proper study \^ is man."

Diæresis (\'') is placed over the second of two vowels, to show that they belong to different syllables.

Examples—Preæmption ....... Coæval ....... Reæducæte.

Obs. 4.—The Hyphen is sometimes placed between the vowels, for a similar purpose.

Example—Co-operate.

The Index (\[\]) is used to point out a word or sentence, considered worthy of special notice.

The Section (§) marks the divisions of a chapter or book.

The Paragraph (¶) is used when a new subject of remark is introduced.

Rem.—The sign of the Paragraph is retained in the Holy Scriptures; but in other composition, the Paragraph is sufficiently indicated by its commencing a new line on the page.

Accent is a stress of voice placed on a particular syllable in pronouncing a word.

Emphasis is a stress of voice placed on a particular word in a sentence. This mark is indicated,

1. In manuscript, by a line drawn under the emphatic word.
2. On a printed page, by the use of Italic letters—CAPITAL letters are used to indicate words still more emphatic.

COMPOSITION.

Def. Composition—as the word implies—is the art of placing together words, so as to communicate ideas.

Composition is of two kinds,

PROSE AND VERSE.

In Prose Composition, words and phrases are arranged with a primary reference to the sense.

In Verse, the sound and measure of words and syllables determine their position.

Among the various kinds of Prose Composition, may be mentioned the following:

Narrative, Descriptive, Didactic, Historical, Biographical.
VERSE.

Verse consists in words arranged in measured lines, constituting a regular succession of accented and un accented syllables. Verse is used in Poetry.

The different kinds of Poetry are:

Lyric, Epigram,
Dramatic, Epitaph,
Epic, Sonnet,
Didactic, Pastoral.

Lyric Poetry is—as its name imports—such as may be set to music.
It includes the "Ode" and the "Song."

Dramatic Poetry is a poem descriptive of scenes, events, or character, and is adapted to the stage.
It includes . . . . . The Tragic and
{ The Comic.

Epic Poetry is a historical representation—real or fictitious—of great events.

Didactic Poetry is that style adapted to the inculcation of science or duty.

An Epigram is a witty poem, short, and generally abounds in ludicrous expressions.

An Epitaph is a poetic inscription to the memory of some departed person.

A Sonnet is an ode of a peculiar structure, and generally of fourteen lines.

Pastoral Poetry relates to rural life, and is generally a song.

VERIFICATION.

Versification is the art of making verse—i.e., the proper arrangement of a certain number of syllables in a line.

There are two prominent distinctions in verse,

1. Blank Verse.
2. Rhyme.
Blank Verse consists in measured lines of ten syllables each, and which may or may not end with the same sound.

Rhyme consists in measured lines, of which two or more end with the same sound.

A Line in poetry, is properly called

A Verse.

A half verse, is called

A Hemistich.

Two rhyming verses which complete the sense, are called

A Couplet.

Three verses which rhyme together, are

A Triplet.

Four or more lines, are called

A Stanza.

Verses may end with . . . .

{ Rhyming syllables, or

{ Rhyming words.

"We come, we come, a little band,
As children of the Nation;
We are joined in heart, we are joined in hand,
To keep the Declaration."

Rem.—In the above stanza, the first and third lines end with rhyming words—the second and fourth, with rhyming syllables.

A collection of syllables is called

A Foot.

A Foot may consist of

{ two Syllables or

{ three Syllables.

Feet of two syllables are the

Trochee . . . first long, second short . . .
Iambus . . . first short, second long . .
Pyrrhic . . . both short . . .
Spondees . . . both long . .

Feet of three syllables are the

Dactyl . . . one long and two short .
Anapast . . . two short and one long.
Amphibrach . . . first short, second long, third short.
Tribrach . . . three short.

Rem.—Most English Poetry is written in iambic, Trochaic, or Anapastic verse.
TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. Hexameter, or six feet.
   "On a mountain stretched be neath a hoary willow,
   Lay a shepherd swain and viewed the rolling billow."

2. Pentameter or five feet.
   "Rouse him like a rattling peal of thunder."

3. Tetrameter or four feet.
   On the mountain's top ap pearing,
   Lo, the sacred herald stands!

4. Three feet.
   'Come and join our singing.'
   "How I love to see thar,
   Golden evening sun."

5. Two feet.
   Rich the treasure,
   Sweet the pleasure.

6. One foot.
   Ringing,
   Singing.

IAMBIC VERSE.

1. Six feet.
   The praise of Bac chus then the sweet musi cian sung

2. Five feet.
   Oh, I have loved in youth's fair ver nal morn,
   To spread ima gina tion's wild est wing.

3. Four feet.
   There is a calm for those who weep,
   A rest for wea ry pil grims found.

4. Three feet.
   What sought they thus afar?
   Bright jew els of the mine?

5. Two feet.
   "I am the grave."

6. One foot.
   "My home."
ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

1. *Four feet.*
   "But we stead fastly gazed on the face of the dead.

2. *Three feet.*
   "And I loved her the more when I heard
   Such tenderness fall from her tongue."

3. *Two feet.*
   "For the night only draws
   A thin veil o'er the day."

DACTYLYC VERSE.

1. *Four feet.*
   Come, ye dis consolate, where'er ye languish.

2. *Three feet.*
   Earth has no sorrows that Heaven cannot heal.

3. *Two feet.*
   Free from anx iety,
   Care and satiety.

4. *One foot.*
   Cheerfully,
   Fearfully.

THE AMPHIBRACH.

   "There is a bleak desert where daylight grows weary
   Of wasting its smile on a region so dreary."

   "With storm-dar ing pinion and sun-ga zing eye,
   The gray forest eagle is king of the sky."

   "There's pleasure in freedom whatever the season,
   That makes every object look lovely and fair."

REMARKS.

1. The first syllable of a verse is sometimes omitted.

   EXAMPLE.
   [ ] "And there lay the ri der, distort ed and pale,
   With the dew on his brow and the rust on his mail."

2. A syllable is sometimes added to a line.

   EXAMPLES.
   Earth has no sorrows that heaven cannot heal
   A guar dian gel o'er my life presid ing,
   Doubling my pleasures and my cares dividing.
3. The different measures are sometimes confined in the same line.

**EXAMPLES**

"May comes, | May comes, | we have called | her long,
May comes | o'er the moun | tains with light | and song;
We may trace | her steps | o'er the wak | ening earth,
By the winds | which tell | of the vio | let's birth."

Sometimes the last syllable of a line becomes the first syllable in the first foot of the next.

**EXAMPLE.**

"On the cold | check of death | smiles and ro | ses are blend | ing,
And beau | ty immor | tal awakes | from the tomb."

**FIGURES.**

A *Figure* of speech is a licensed departure from the ordinary structure, or use of a word in a sentence.

Figures are . . . . . . . . . \{ Grammatical or
\{ Rhetorical

A *Grammatical Figure* is a deviation from the ordinary form or office of a word in a sentence.

A *Rhetorical Figure* is a deviation from the ordinary application of words in the expression of thought.

1. **FIGURES MODIFYING THE FORM OF WORDS.**

These are called

- Aphaeresis,
- Apocope,
- Prosthesis,
- Paragoge,
- Synaeresis,
- Diaeresis,
- Syncope,
- Tmesis.

1. **Aphaeresis** allows the elision of one or more of the first letters of a word.

**EXAMPLES.**

"'Mid scenes of confusion."

"And therefore thou may'st think my 'haviour light.'—*Juliet.*

"What! have you let the false enchanter 'scape?"—*Milton.*

2. **Apocope** allows the elision of one or more of the final letters of a word.

**EXAMPLES.**

"And that is spoke... with such a dying fall."

"Tho' the whole loosened Spring around her blows"

"T' whom th' archangel."—*Milton.*
3. **Paragoge** allows a syllable to be annexed to a word.

**Examples.**

"Withouten trump was proclamation made."—Thompson.

"Nor deem that kindly nature did him wrong."—Bryant.

4. **Synaeresis** allows two syllables to become one.

**Example**—Extra session—ordinary session—extraordinary session.

5. **Prosthesis** allows a syllable to be prefixed to a word.

**Examples.**

"Else would a maiden blush depaint my cheek."—Juliet.

"Let fall adown his silver beard some tears."—Thomson.

"The great archangel from his warlike toil
Succeeded."—Milton.

6. **Diacesis** separates two vowels into different syllables.

**Examples**—Cooperate—reiterate.

7. **Syncope** allows one or more letters to be taken from the middle of a word.

**Examples.**

"Or serve they as a flow'ry verge to bind,
The fluid skirts of that same wat'ry cloud,
Lest it again dissolve and show'ry earth."—Milton.

8. **Tmesis** allows a word to be inserted between the parts of a compound word.

**Example**—"How much sooner we may desire it."

Obs.—Sometimes two figures are combined in the same word.

**Example**—"Ah, whence is that sound which now larums his ear?"

II. **Figures Modifying the Office of Words.**

These are called

Ellipsis, Syllipsis,  
Pleonasm, Enallage,  
Hyperbaton.

1. **Ellipsis** allows the omission of one or more words necessary to complete the grammatical construction, when custom has rendered them unnecessary to complete the sense.

**Examples.**

"Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag,
And the waves are white below [ ]."

"Unnumbered systems, [ ] suns, and worlds,
Unite to worship thee,
While thy majestic greatness fills
Space, [ ] Time, [ ] Eternity."
2. **Pleonasm** allows the introduction of words not necessary to complete the grammatical construction of a sentence.

**Example**—"The moon herself is lost in heaven."

3. **Syllipsis** allows a word to be used not in its literal sense.

**Example**—"And there lay the steed with his nostril all wide."

4. **Enallage** allows the use of one word for another of similar origin.

**Example**—"A world devote to universal wreck."

5. **Hyperbaton** allows the transposition of words in a sentence.

**Example**—"His voice sublime, is heard afar."

**FIGURES OF RHETORIC.**

They are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simile</th>
<th>Synecdoche</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>Apostrophe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allegory</td>
<td>Interrogation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personation</td>
<td>Exclamation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irony</td>
<td>Vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperbole</td>
<td>Paralepsis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antithesis</td>
<td>Climax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metonomy</td>
<td>Anti-climax</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Alliteration.**

1. A **Simile** is a direct comparison.

**Example**—"The Assyrian came down like the wolf on the fold."

2. A **Metaphor** is an indirect comparison.

**Example**—"There is a tide in the affairs of men, Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune."

3. An **Allegory** is an extended metaphor, by which a narration, real or fictitious, is made to convey an analogous truth or fiction.

**Example**—"Eternity's vast ocean lies before thee, There, there, Lorenzo, thy Clarissa sails, Give thy mind sea-room; keep it wide of Earth— That rock of souls immortal; cut thy cord; Weigh anchor; spread thy sails; call every wind; Eye thy great Pole-star; make the land of life."—Young.

4. **Personation** represents inanimate things as being endowed with life and volition.

**Examples**—"And old Experience learns too late, That all is vanity below."

"Joy has her tears, and Transport has her death."
5. **Ironic** makes a sentence convey a meaning the opposite of its ordinary sense.

   **Example**—“And we, **brave men**, are satisfied,
   If we ourselves escape his sword.”

6. **Hyperbole** exaggerates the truth.

   **Example.**
   “With fury driven,
   The waves mount up, and wash the face of heaven.”

7. **Antithesis** contrasts two or more things with each other.

   **Examples.**
   “Zealous though modest, innocent though free.
   “By honor and dishonor, by evil report and good report, as deceivers, and yet true.”

8. **Metonymy** puts one thing for another,
   The cause for the effect,
   The effect for the cause,
   The container for the thing contained,
   An attribute or quality for the thing or person.

   **Examples**—“Shall the sword devour for ever ?”
   “Thy hand, unseen, sustains the poles.”
   “His ear is ever open to their cry.”
   “I am much delighted in reading Homer.”
   “He has returned to his cups again.”
   “I’ll plunge thee headlong in the whelming tide.”

9. **Synecdoche** puts a part for a whole, and a whole for a part.

   **Example**—“When the tempest stalks abroad,
   Seek the shelter of my roof.”
   “Oh! ever cursed be the hand
   That wrought this ruin in the land.”

10. **Apostrophe** is a sudden transition from the subject of a discourse to address a person or thing, present or absent.

   **Example**—“This is a tale for fathers and for mothers. Young men and young women! you cannot understand it.
   E. Everett.”

11. **Interrogation** expresses an assertion in the form of a question.

   **Examples**—“Looks it not like the king?”
   “He that formed the eye, shall he not see?”

12. **Exclamation** expresses a sudden or intense emotion.

   **Example**—“O liberty! O sound, once delightful to every Roman ear!”

13. **Vision** represents past or future time as present to the view.

   **Example**—“I see them on their winding way,
   About their ranks the moonbeams play.”
Paralepsis is a figure by which a main truth is expressed incidentally, or with a professed effort of the speaker to conceal it.

Example—"Without alluding to your habits of intemperance, I would ask, how can you attempt to justify your present inattention to business and the neglect of your family?"

Climax is that form of expression by which the thoughts are made to rise by successive gradations.

Example—"He aspired to be the highest; above the people, above the authorities, above the laws, above his country."

Anti-Climax is the opposite of the climax.

Example—"How has expectation darkened into anxiety, anxiety into dread, and dread into despair."—Irving.

Alliteration is the repetition of the same letter at the beginning of two or more words immediately succeeding each other, or at short intervals.

Examples—"Up the high hill he heaves a huge, round stone."

"He carves with classic chisel the Corinthian capital that crowns the column."

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

Of what does Prosody treat?
Why are Pauses observed in reading?
How many sorts of Pauses?
How are Grammatical Pauses indicated?
When should a Comma be used?
When, a Semicolon?—a Colon?—a Period?—a Dash?
When, a mark of Interrogation?—of Exclamation?
What is the sign of Apostrophe, and when should it be used?
Quotation?—Hyphen?—Brackets?—Parentheses?—Reference?—Brace?
—Caret?—Index?
What is Composition?—How many kinds?
How are words arranged in Prose Composition?
What are some of the various kinds of Prose Composition?
What is Poetry?—What the most common varieties?
What is Lyric Poetry?—Dramatic?—Epic?—Didactic?
What is an Epigram?—an Epitaph?—a Sonnet?
What is Versification?—What are the distinctions of Verse?
What is Blank Verse?—What is Rhyme?
What is a Verse?—a Hemistich?—a Couplet?—a Triplet?
What is a Stanza?—What is a Foot?—Of what may it consist?
What is a Trochee?—an Iambus?—a Pyrrhic?—a Spondee?
What is a Dactyl?—an Anapaest?—an Amphibrach?—a Tribrach?
What is a Figure of Speech?
What is a Grammatical Figure?—a Rhetorical Figure?
What is an Apæresis?—an Apocope?—a Prosthesis?—a Paragoge?
What is a Synæresis?—a Diaeresis?—a Syncope?—a Tmesis?
What is an Ellipsis?—a Pleonasm?—a Syllepsis?—an Enallage?
a Hyporbaton?
What is a Simile?—a Metaphor?—an Allegory?—a Personation?—Irony?
What is a Hyperbole?—Vision?—Paralepsis?—Antithesis?—Metonomy?—Synecdoche?
What is an Apostrophe?—Interrogation?—Exclamation?—Climax?—Alliteration?

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

"Whom the winds waft where'er the billows roll."

"The man who forms his opinions entirely on that of another, can have no great respect for his own judgment."

"I am the last of noble Edward's sons,
Of whom thy father, Prince of Wales, was first."

"O grant me, pitying Heaven, this last request,
Since I must every loftier wish resign."

"My heart is awed within me when I think of the great miracle that still goes on in silence round me."

"The smoke of their wigwams arose in every valley, from Hudson's Bay to the farthest Florida, from the ocean to the Mississippi and the lakes."—Story.

"Meek Dian's crest
Floats through the azure air."—Byron.

"Beneath them lay the wished-for spot."—Pollok.

'My soul has ranged
By thee sustained, and lighted by the stars."—Young.

"A sea
Of Glory streams along the Alpine heights."—Byron.

"A wretch, from thick polluted air,
Darkness, and stench and suffocating damp
And dungeon horrors, by kind fate discharged."—Young.

"His passions died—
Died, all but dreary solitary Pride."—Pollok.

"And sorrow, and Repentance, and Despair,
Among them walked."—Pollok.

"Like Murray, he did not conduct the understanding through the painful subtlety of argument—nor was he, like Townshend, forever on the rock of exertion."—Robertson.

"For solidity of reasoning, force of sagacity, and wisdom of conclusion, under such a complication of difficulties, no nation or body of men can stand in preference to the General Congress of Philadelphia."—Pitt.

"On every side, sweet sunny spots of verdure smile towards him from among the melancholy heather."—Wilson.

"Was it the temple—with all its courts, the dazzling splendor of its materials, the innumerable multitudes, the priesthood in their gorgeous attire, the king with all the insignia of royalty, on his throne of burnished brass, the music, the radiant cloud filling the temple, the sudden fire flashing upon the altar, the whole nation upon their knees."—Milman.
1. O, I have loved, in youth's fair vernal morn,
   To spread imagination's wildest wing,
The sober certainties of life to scorn,
   And seek the visioned realms that poet's sing—
Where Nature blushes in perennial spring,
   Where streams of earthly joy exhaustless rise,
Where Youth and Beauty tread the choral ring,
   And shout their raptures to the cloudless skies,
While every jovial hour on downy pinion flies.

2. But, ah! those fairy scenes at once are fled,
   Since stern Experience waved her iron wand,
Broke the soft slumbers of my visioned head,
   And bade me here of perfect bliss despond.
And oft have I the painful lesson conned;
   When Disappointment mocked my wooing heart,
Still of its own delusion weakly fond,
   And from forbidden pleasures loth to part,
Though shrinking oft beneath Correction's deepest smart.

3. And is there nought in mortal life, I cried,
   Can sooth the sorrows of the laboring breast?
No kind recess, where baffled hope may hide,
   And weary Nature lull her woes to rest?
O grant me, pitying Heaven, this last request!—
   Since I must every loftier wish resign,
Be my few days with peace and friendship blessed;
   Nor will I at my humble lot repine,
Though neither wealth, nor fame, nor luxury be mine.

4. O give me yet, in some recluse abode,
   Encircled with a faithful few, to dwell,
Where power cannot oppress, nor care corrode,
   Nor venomed tongues the tale of slander tell!
O bear me to some solitary cell,
   Beyond the reach of every human eye!
And let me bid a long and last farewell
   To each alluring object 'neath the sky,
And there in peace await my hour—in peace to die

5. "Ah vain desire!" a still, small voice replied,
   "No place, no circumstance can Peace impart:—
She scorns the mansion of unvanquished Pride,
   Sweet inmate of a pure and humble heart;—
Take then thy station—act thy proper part;—
A Savior's mercy seek,—his will perform:
His word has balm for sin's envenomed smart,
His love, diffused, thy shuddering breast shall warm
His power provide a shelter from the gathering storm.”

6. O welcome hiding-place! O refuge meet
   For fainting pilgrims on this desert way!
O kind Conductor of these wandering feet,
   Through snares and darkness, to the realms of day!
So did the Sun of righteousness display
   His healing beams; each gloomy cloud dispel:
While on the parting mist, in colors gay,
   Truth's cheering bow of precious promise fell,
And Mercy's silver voice soft whispered—"All is well."
APPENDIX.

NOTE A.

Def. Orthography is that branch of the Science of Language which treats of Letters—their forms, their offices, and their combinations in the structure of Words.

Obs. The English Language has twenty-six letters, which are distinguished by their \{ \textit{Forms and Uses}. \}

The various forms of letters are exhibited in the following table:

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Obs. Roman letters are in most common use in the English language.

Italic letters are used in words of special importance, and sometimes in sentences.

In the sacred Scriptures, words supplied by the translators to complete the construction of sentences according to the English idiom, are printed in Italics.

Old English letters are used for variety or ornament—in title pages, etc.

Obs.—The small or "lower case" letters are used in forming words, with the following exceptions, which provide for the use of

CAPITAL LETTERS.

Obs.—A word should begin with a capital letter,

1. When it is the first word of a distinct proposition.

2. When it is a Proper Name, or a word immediately derived from a Proper Name.

Examples—Boston—William—American—Vermont.

3. When it is a name or appellation of the Supreme Being.

Examples—God—Saviour—Holy Spirit—Lord—Omnipotent.

4. When it is the first word of a line in poetry.

Example—Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are;
Up above the world so high,
Like a diamond in the sky."

5. When it is a principal word in a title of a book or office, and sometimes when it is a word of special importance, or used technically.

Examples—"Willard's History of the United States."
"Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful."
"The Subject of a Verb should not take the place of the Object."

6. When it commences a direct quotation.

Examples—"The footman, in his usual phrase,
Comes up with 'Madam, dinner stays.'"
"Wo to him that saith unto the wood, 'Awake.'"

7. When it constitutes the Pronoun "I," or the Exclamation "O."

Examples—"O, I have loved in youth's fair vernal morn,
To spread Imagination's wildest wing."
8. When it is a Common Noun, fully personified.

**Examples**—“Sure I Fame’s trumpet hear.”—*Cowley.*

“Here Strife and Faction rule the day.”

**Obs.**—Letters are of various sizes, and have their corresponding appropriate names. The varieties of type in most common use are the following:

1. *Pica.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
   abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

2. *Small Pica.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
   abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

3. *Long Primer.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
   abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

4. *Bourgeois.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
   abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

5. *Brevier.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
   abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

6. *Minion.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
   abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

7. *Agate.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
   abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

8. *Pearl.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
   abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

**WORDS.**

**Obs.**—Words are composed of one or more letters, and, like *Sentences* and *Phrases,* consist of

*Principal Parts* and *Adjuncts.*

The *Principal Parts* of a word are the letters which indicate the principal sound. They are called *Vowels.*

**Examples.**

| a in mate. | å in hat. |
| e in me. | ö in met. |
| oi in toil. | æ in apheresis. |
| ou in sound. | œ in subpena. |

The *Adjuncts* of a word are the letters prefixed or added to the Principal Parts, to modify their sound. They are called *Consonants.*

**Examples.**

| m in mate, me. | h in hat, hate. |
| t in mate, time. | s in apheresis, sound. |
| l in toil, lame. | v in vile, twelve. |
| c in cider, cane. | p in post, happy. |
APPENDIX—ABBREVIATIONS.

Obs.——When a word has but one Principal Part it is pronounced by one impulse of the voice, and is then called a Monosyllable.

Examples—Hand—fall—me—so—strength.

Obs.——When a word has two Principal Parts it requires two articulations, and is then called a Dissyllable.

Examples—Handsome—falling—strengthen—holy.

Obs.——Generally, a word has as many syllables as it has Principal Parts.

Obs.——Two letters may form one Principal Part of a word when they are placed together, and combine to form one sound.

Examples—oi in toll—ou in sound—ai in fair.

Obs.——A letter, ordinarily used as a vowel is sometimes added to a syllable or word to modify the sound of other letters, and is then an Adjunct.

Examples—e in time—y in they—t in claim.

Obs.——One or more of the letters constituting a word are sometimes used as the representatives of that word. These are called

ABBREVIATIONS.

The most common abbreviations are the following.

A. C. Before Christ. from the Latin Ante Christum.
A. B. Bachelor of Arts Artium Baccalaureus.
A. D. In the year of our Lord Anno Domini.
    Master of Arts Artium Magister.
A. M. In the year of the world Anno Mundi.
    In the forenoon Ante Meridiem.
B. D. Bachelor of Divinity Baccalaureus Divinitatis.
D. D. Doctor of Divinity Doctor Divinitatis.
E. g. For example Exempli gratia.
I. e. That is Id est.
I. L. D. Doctor of Laws Legum Doctor.
L. S. Place of the seal Locus Sigilli.
M. D. Doctor of Medicine Latin Medicæ Doctor.
M. S. Manuscript Scriptum Manus.
N. B. Take notice Nota Bene.
P. M. Afternoon Post Meridiem.
P. M. Postmaster.
P. S. Postscript Post Scriptum.
S. T. D. Doctor of Theology Sanctæ Theologiae Doctor.
NOTE B.

The English language has its foundation in the Saxon. Additions have, from year to year, been made to it, from the Latin, the Greek, the French, the Italian, the German, and other European languages—partly by the transfer of words from those languages to the English—but chiefly by the addition of Prefixes and Suffixes.

Of the Prefixes the most common are the following.

A ........................................ on, in, at .......... aboard, amidst.
A ........................................ from ............... away.
Ab .......................................... abduct.
Abs ........................................ abstain.
A ........................................ without .......... amorphous.
An ........................................ anarchy.
Ad ........................................ adjourn.
Af ........................................ affix.
Ag ........................................ aggregate.
Al ........................................ allure.
At ........................................ attend.
Ante ...................................... before .......... antedate.
Anti ...................................... against .......... antipathy.
Be ........................................ to act or make .......... bewail.
Bene ..................................... well .......... benevolence.
Bi ........................................ two .......... biennially.
Circum ................................... about .......... circumnavigate.
Con ........................................ with .......... confer.
Contr ...................................... against .......... contradict.
De ........................................ from .......... debar.
Dis ........................................ not .......... disown.
E ........................................ not .......... eject.
Éc ....................................... from .......... eccentric.
Ef ........................................ from .......... efface.
Ex ........................................ from .......... exclude.
Extra ..................................... beyond .......... extraordinary
En ........................................ to make .......... ennoble.
For ......................................... for .......... forsake.
Fore ........................................ for .......... forego.
Hemi ...................................... half .......... hemisphere.
In ........................................ in or not .......... inform.
Im ........................................ in or not .......... immerse.
Ig ........................................ in or not .......... ignoble.
Il ........................................ illiterate.
Inter ..................................... between .......... intervene.
Male ...................................... bad .......... malevolence.
Mis ......................................... wrong .......... misjudge.
Mono ..................................... one .......... monotone.
APPENDIX—PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

Non ........................................ not ........................................ nonconformable.
Ne ........................................ not ........................................ never.
Ob ........................................ against ........................................ object.
Or ........................................ against ........................................ occur.
Op ........................................ against ........................................ oppose.
Out ........................................ beyond ........................................ outrun.
Over ........................................ above ........................................ overlay.
Poly ........................................ many ........................................ polysyllable.
Pen ........................................ almost ........................................ penumbra.
Per ........................................ through ........................................ pervade.
Post ........................................ after ........................................ postscript.
Pre ........................................ before ........................................ predict.
Pro ........................................ forth ........................................ produce.
Re ........................................ make ........................................ refine.
Se ........................................ from ........................................ select.
Syl ........................................ with ........................................ syllogism.
Sym ........................................ with ........................................ symphony.
Syn ........................................ with ........................................ synchronism.
Sub ........................................ under ........................................ subscribe.
Suc ........................................ under ........................................ succumb.
Suf ........................................ under ........................................ suffix.
Sup ........................................ support ........................................ support.
Sus ........................................ sustain ........................................ sustain.
Super ........................................ over ........................................ superintend.
Trans ........................................ beyond ........................................ transfer.
Un ........................................ not ........................................ unknown.
Unde ........................................ under ........................................ underwrite.
Up ........................................ up ........................................ uphold.
With ........................................ against ........................................ withstand.

Rem.—The above constitute the most important Prefixes and the most common definitions. But to them there are many exceptions—exceptions almost as important as the rules. If the student would perfect himself in this department of the science, he may consult "McElligot's Manual of Orthography and Definition."

Rem.—For an extended list of Suffixes the same reference is made.

NOTE C.

Most nouns adopted from the Latin, Greek, French, and Hebrew languages, have their plural forms also in those languages. Those most commonly used in English composition are the following:

Latin or Greek words form their Plurals by changing the termination in s into es.

Amanuensis, amanuenses.  |  Axis, axes.
Antithesis, antitheses.  |  Basis, bases.
Analysis, analyses.  |  Borealis, boreales.
**PLURALS OF NOUNS.**

| Crisis,    | crises.          | Oasis,    | oases.          |
| Ellipsis,  | ellipses.        | Parenthesis, | parenthenses |
| Emphasis,  | emphases.        | Phasis,    | phases.         |
| Metamorphosis, | metamorphoses.  |           |                 |

**The following change is into des:**

| Ephemeris, | ephemerides.     | Chrysalis, | chrysalides    |

**The following change x into ces:**

| Apex,      | apices.          | Index,     | indices.       |
| Appendix,  | appendices.      | Radix,     | radices.       |
| Calx,      | calces.          | Vertex,    | vertexes.      |
|            |                  | Vortex,    | vortices.      |

**Nouns in us have their Plurals in i.**

| Alumnus,   | alumni.          | Magus,     | magi.          |
| Focus,     | foci.            | Nucleus,   | nuclei.        |
| Fungus,    | fungi.           | Obolus,    | oboli.         |
| Genius,    | genii.           | Radius,    | radii.         |
|            |                  | Stimulus,  | stimuli.       |

**Nouns in on and um have their Plurals in a.**

| Addendum,  | addenda.         | Gymnasium, | gymnasia.      |
| Animalculum, | animacul-a.    | Medium,    | media.         |
| Arcanum,   | arcan-a.         | Memorandum, | memoranda.     |
| Automaton, | automata.        | Momentum,  | momenta.       |
| Criterion, | criteria.        | Memoria,   | memoria.       |
| Corrigendum, | corrigeenda.   | Phenomenon, | phenomena.     |
| Datum,     | data.            | Scholium,  | scholia.       |
| Desideratum, | desiderata.    | Speculum,  | specula.       |
| Effluvium, | effluvia.        | Stratum,   | strata.        |
| Encomium,  | encomia.         |            |                |
| Erratum,   | errata.          |            |                |
| Ephemerion, | ephemer-a.      |            |                |

**The following Nouns are thus formed:**

| Bandit,    | banditti.        | Lamina,    | laminae.       |
| Beau,      | beaux.           | Larva,     | larvæ.         |
| Cherub,    | cherubim         | Miasma,    | miasmata.      |
| Dogma,     | dogmata.         | Monsieur,  | messieurs.     |
| Formula,   | formulae.        | Nebula,    | nebulæ.        |
| Genus,     | genera.          | Seraph,    | seraphim.      |
|            |                  | Stamen,    | stamina.       |
|            |                  | Viscus,    | viscera.       |
APPENDIX.

NOTE D.

For expositions of the various offices of Participles, the student is referred to

"Verbal Nouns," p. 44.
"Exercises," pp. 75, 76, and 133, 134.
"Twofold office of some words," p. 105.

NOTE E.

For illustrations of the office of Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive Case the student is referred to

"Possessive Case of Nouns and Pronouns," pp. 49, 50, and 142, 143.
"Possessive Adjectives," pp. 61, and 163, 164.
"Twofold office of some words," p. 100, and p. 119, Rem. 2.
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   2. PRACTICAL GEOMETRY AND MENSURATION.
   3. ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA. (Key separate.)
   4. ELEMENTARY GEOMETRY.
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III. THE COLLEGIATE COURSE.
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   2. DAVIES’ LEGENDEIRE’S GEOMETRY AND TRIGONOMETRY.
   3. DAVIES’ ANALYTICAL GEOMETRY.
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