Project Gutenberg's English Grammar in Familiar Lectures, by Samuel Kirkham

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\*\*\* START OF THIS PROJECT GUTENBERG EBOOK ENGLISH GRAMMAR \*\*\*

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﻿ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

IN

FAMILIAR LECTURES;

ACCOMPANIED BY

A COMPENDIUM

EMBRACING

A NEW SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING

A NEW SYSTEM OF PUNCTUATION,

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX,

AND

A SYSTEM OF PHILOSOPHICAL GRAMMAR,

IN NOTES:

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

AN APPENDIX AND A KEY TO THE EXERCISES

DESIGNED

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS AND PRIVATE LEARNERS.

BY SAMUEL KIRKHAM.

STEREOTYPE EDITION

NEW YORK

ROBERT B. COLLINS,

254 PEARL STREET.

\_Southern District of New-York, ss\_.

BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the 22d day of August, A.D. 1829, in the L.

S. 54th year of the Independence of the United States of America, Samuel

Kirkham, of the said district, hath deposited in this office the title

of a book, the right whereof he claims as author, in the words

following, to wit:

"English Grammar in familiar Lectures, accompanied by a Compendium,

embracing a new systematic order of Parsing, a new system of

Punctuation, exercises in false Syntax, and a System of Philosophical

Grammar in notes: to which are added an Appendix, and a Key to the

Exercises: designed for the use of Schools and Private Learners. By

Samuel Kirkham. Eleventh Edition, enlarged and improved." In conformity

to the act of Congress of the United States, entitled "an act for the

encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and

books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the time

therein mentioned." And also to an act entitled "an act supplementary to

an act entitled an act for the encouragement of learning, by securing

the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of

such copies, during the times therein mentioned, and extending the

benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving, and etching

historical and other prints."

FRED. J. BETTS,

\_Clerk of the Southern District of New-York.\_

AN ESSAY ON ELOCUTION,

DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS AND PRIVATE LEARNERS

BY SAMUEL KIRKHAM.

This work is mainly designed as a Reading-Book for Schools. In the first

part of it, the \_principles\_ of reading are developed and explained in a

scientific and \_practical\_ manner, and so familiarly illustrated in

their application to practical examples as to enable even the juvenile

mind very readily to comprehend their nature and character, their design

and use, and thus to acquire that high degree of excellence, both, in

reading and speaking, which all desire, but to which few attain.

The last part of the work, contains \_Selections\_ from the greatest

master-pieces of rhetorical and poetical composition, both ancient and

modern. Many of these selections are taken from the most elegant and

classical American authors--writers whose noble productions have already

shed an unfading lustre, and stamped immortality upon the literature of

our country.--In the select part of the work, \_rhetorical marks\_ are

also employed to point out the application of the principles laid down

in the first part.--The very favorable reception of the work by the

public, and its astonishingly rapid introduction into schools, since its

first publication in 1833, excites in the author the most sanguine hopes

in regard to its future success.

NOTICES.

After a careful perusal of this work, we are decidedly of opinion, that

it is the only \_successful\_ attempt of the kind. The rules are copious,

and the author's explanations and illustrations \_are happily adapted to

the comprehension of learners\_. No school should be without this book,

and it ought to find a place in the library of every gentleman who

values the attainment of a just and forcible elocution.--\_Pittsburgh

Mer. April,\_ 1834.

Mr. Kirkham has given rules for inflections and emphasis, and has

followed them by illustrative examples, and these by remarks upon the

inflection which he has adopted, and the reasons for his preference of

one inflection to another--a most admirable plan for such a work.

Copious examples occur in which all the various inflections and the

shades of emphasis are distinguished with great accuracy and clearness.

The catechetical appendages of each chapter, give the work new value in

a school, and the selections made for the exercise of scholars, evince

good taste and judgment. \_U.S. Gazette, Philadelphia, Sept\_. 17, 1834.

The Essay now before us, needs not depend on any former work of its

author for a borrowed reputation; it has intrinsic merits of its own. It

lays down principles clearly and concisely. It presents the reader with

many new and judicious selections, both in prose and poetry; and

altogether evinces great industry combined with taste and

ingenuity.--\_Courier of Upper Canada, York, Oct\_. 12, 1833.

Of the talent and judgment of Mr. Kirkham, we have already had occasion

to speak in terms of honest praise. His work on Elocution raises him

still higher in our estimation.--The book would be of great utility in

schools--such a one as has long been wanted; and we are glad to see it

forthcoming.--\_Baltimore Visitor, July,\_ 1833.

Every facility for teaching Elocution, which I have so often needed, but

never before found, is exactly furnished in this work:--principles are

clearly and concisely laid down, and \_are very happily adapted to the

comprehension of the learner\_. Thoroughly convinced of its utility, I

shall lose no time in introducing it into my school. \_Hartford, Conn.

Aug.\_. 20, 1534. NATHANIEL WEBB.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

It is well known that the recommendations which generally accompany new

books have very little weight with the public. This is as it should be,

for that work which rests more on its written testimonials, than on its

intrinsic merits for support, asserts no claims to permanent patronage.

But recommendations which analyze the merits of a work, and which, by

exhibiting its prominent features in a striking light, are calculated to

carry conviction to the reader that the system recommended is

meritorious, the author is proud to have it in his power to present in

this volume. The following are \_some\_ of the numerous testimonials which

he has received, and for which he tenders his grateful acknowledgments

to those literary gentlemen to whose liberality and politeness he is

indebted for them. More than \_six hundred\_ others presented to the

author, and many of which are equally flattering with these, he has not

room to insert.

\* \* \* \* \*

The following notice of this work is extracted from the "Western

Review." This journal is ably conducted by the Rev. Timothy Flint,

author of "Francis Berrian," "History and Geography of the Miss.

Valley," and many other popular and valuable works.

We had not, at that time, seen Mr. Kirkham's "Grammar in familiar

Lectures," but have since given it a cursory perusal. If we comprehend

the author's design, it is not so much to introduce new principles, as

to render more easy and intelligible those which have been long

established, and to furnish additional facilities to an accurate and

thorough knowledge of our language. In this we think he has been

successful.

It is to be expected that a modest, unassuming writer, on presenting

himself before the public tribunal as an author, will, as far as is

consistent with his plan, avail himself of the authority of such as have

written well on the subject before him. Mr. Kirkham has accordingly

followed Mr. Murray in the old beaten track of English writers on

grammar, in the general principles of his science; endeavoring, at the

same time, to avoid whatever appeared to be erroneous or absurd in the

writings of that author, and adopting an entirely new arrangement. The

most useful matter contained in the treatise of Mr. Murray, is embraced

in this; but in the definitions and rules, it is simplified, and

rendered much more intelligible. Though our author follows Mr. Murray,

in the general principles of his work, he has, in numerous instances,

differed from him, pursuing a course that appears to be his own, and

introducing some valuable improvements.

Among these may be mentioned some additional rules and explanatory notes

in syntax, the arrangement of the parts of speech, the mode of

explaining them, manner of parsing, manner of explaining some of the

pronouns, and the use of a synopsis which presents the essentials of the

science at one view, and is well calculated to afford assistance to

learners.

In his arrangement of the parts of speech, Mr. Kirkham seems to have

endeavored to follow \_the order of nature;\_ and we are not able to see

how he could have done better. The noun and verb, as being the most

important parts of speech, are first explained, and afterwards those

which are considered in a secondary and subordinate character. By

following this order, he has avoided the absurdity so common among

authors, of defining the minor parts before their principals, of which

they were designed to be the appendages, and has rationally prepared the

way for conducting the learner by easy advances to a correct view of the

science.

In his illustrations of the various subjects contained in his work, our

author appears to have aimed, not at a flowery style, nor at the

appearance of being learned, but at being understood. The clearness and

perspicuity of his remarks, and their application to familiar objects,

are well calculated to arrest the attention, and aid the understanding

of the pupil, and thereby to lessen the labor of the instructor. The

principles of the science \_are simplified, and rendered so perfectly

easy of comprehension,\_ we should think no ordinary mind, having such

help, could find them difficult. It is in this particular that the work

appears to possess its chief merit, and on this account it cannot fail

of being preferred to many others.

It gives us pleasure to remark, in reference to the success of the

amiable and modest author whose work is before us, that we quote from

the fifth edition.

Cincinnati, Aug. 24, 1827.

The following is from the pen of a gentleman of the Bar, formerly a

distinguished Classical teacher. [Extract from the "National Crisis."]

As a friend to literature, and especially to genuine merit, it is with

peculiar pleasure I allude to a notice in a late paper of this city, in

which Mr. S. Kirkham proposes to deliver a course of Lectures on English

Grammar. To such as feel interested in acquiring a general and practical

knowledge of this useful science an opportunity is now presented which

ought not to be neglected. Having myself witnessed, in several

instances, within the last ten months, the practical results of Mr.

Kirkham's plan, I am enabled to give a decisive opinion of its merits.

The extensive knowledge acquired in one course by his class in

Pittsburgh, and the great proficiency evinced by his classes elsewhere,

are a demonstration of the utility and superiority of his method of

teaching, and a higher encomium on him than I am able to bestow.

The principles on which Mr. Kirkham's "New system of Grammar" is

predicated, are judiciously compiled, and happily and briefly expressed;

but the great merit of his work consists in the lucid illustrations

accompanying the principles, and the simple and gradual manner in which

it conducts the learner along from step to step through the successive

stages of the science. The explanations blended with the theory, are

addressed to the understanding of the pupil in a manner so familiar,

that they cannot fail to excite in him a deep interest; and whatever

system is calculated to bring into requisition the mental powers, must,

I conceive, be productive of good results. In my humble opinion, the

system of teaching introduced into this work, will enable a diligent

pupil to acquire, without any other aid, a practical knowledge of

grammar, \_in less than one-fourth\_ part of the time usually devoted.

My views of Mr. Kirkham's system are thus publicly given, with the

greater pleasure, on account of the literary empiricisms which have been

so extensively practised in many parts of the western country.

Cincinnati, April 26, 1826.

From Mr. Blood, Principal of the Chambersburgh Academy, Pa.

Mr. Kirkham,--It is now almost twenty years since I became a teacher of

youth, and, during this period, I have not only consulted all, but have

used many of the different systems of English grammar that have fallen

in my way; and, sir, I do assure you, without the least wish to flatter,

that yours far exceeds any I have yet seen.

Your arrangement and systematic order of parsing are most excellent; and

experience has convinced me, (having used it, and it only, for the last

twelve or thirteen months), that a scholar will learn more of the nature

and principles of our language in \_one quarter\_, from your system, than

in a \_whole year\_ from any other I had previously used. I do, therefore,

most cheerfully and earnestly recommend it to the public at large, and

especially to those who, anxious to acquire a knowledge of our language,

are destitute of the advantages of an instructer.

Yours, very respectfully, SAMUEL BLOOD.

Chambersburgh Academy, Feb. 12, 1825.

From Mr. N.R. Smith, editor of a valuable literary journal, styled "The

Hesperus."

Mr. Kirkham,

Sir, I have examined your Lectures on English Grammar with that degree

of minuteness which enables me to yield my unqualified approbation of

the work as a grammatical system. The engaging manner in which you have

explained the elements of grammar, and accommodated them to the

capacities of youth, is an ample illustration of the utility of your

plan. In addition to this, the critical attention you have paid to an

\_analytical development\_ of grammatical principles, while it is

calculated to encourage the perseverance of young students in the march

of improvement, is sufficient, also, to employ the researches of the

literary connoisseur. I trust that your valuable compilation will be

speedily introduced into schools and academies.

With respect, yours, N.R. SMITH, A.M.

Pittsburgh, March 22, 1825.

From Mr. Jungmann, Principal of the Frederick Lutheran

Academy:--Extract.

Having carefully examined Mr. S. Kirkham's new system of "English

Grammar in familiar Lectures," I am satisfied that the pre-eminent

advantages it possesses over our common systems, will soon convince the

public, that it is not one of those feeble efforts of quackery which

have so often obtruded upon our notice. Its decided \_superiority over

all other systems\_, consists in adapting the subject-matter to the

capacity of the young learner, and the happy mode adopted of

communicating it to his mind in a manner so clear and simple, that he

can easily comprehend the nature and the application of every principle

that comes before him.

In short, all the intricacies of the science are \_elucidated so

clearly\_, I am confident that even a private learner, of common

docility, can, by perusing this system attentively acquire a better

practical knowledge of this important branch of literature in \_three

months\_, than is ordinarily obtained in \_one year\_.

Frederick, Md. Sept 17, 1824. JOHN E. JUNGMANN.

Extract: from De Witt Clinton, late Gov. of New-York.

I consider the Compendium of English Grammar, by Samuel Kirkham, a work

deserving encouragement, and well calculated to facilitate the

acquisition of this useful science. DE WITT CLINTON.

Albany, Sept 25, 1824.

S. Kirkham, Esq.--I have examined your Grammar with attention, and with

a particular view to benefit the Institution under my charge. I am fully

satisfied, that it is the \_best form\_ in which Murray's principles have

been given to the public. The lectures are ample, and given in so

familiar and easy language, as to be readily understood, even by a

\_tyro\_ in grammar.

I feel it due to you to say, that I commenced the examination of your

work, under \_a strong prejudice against it,\_ in consequence of the

numerous "improved systems" with which the public has been inundated, of

late, most of which are by no means improvements on Murray, but the

productions of individuals whom a "\_little grammar\_ has rendered

grammatically insane." My convictions, therefore, are the result of

\_investigation\_. I wish you, Sir, success in your publication.

Respectfully, EBER. WHEATON,

Pr. of Mechanics' Society School

With the opinion of Mr. Wheaton respecting Mr. Kirkham's English Grammar,

we heartily concur. NATHAN STARK, Pr. Acad.

(Rev.) JOHN JOHNSTON,

Newburgh, Aug. 4, 1829. (Rev.) WM. S. HEYER,

From the Rev. C.P. McIlvaine, and others.

So far as I have examined the plan of grammatical instruction by Samuel

Kirkham I am well satisfied that \_it meets the wants\_ of elementary

schools in this branch, and deserves to be patronised. CHARLES P.

McILVAINE.

Brooklyn, L.I. July 9, 1829.

We fully concur in the above, ANDREW HAGEMAN,

E.M. JOHNSON.

EXTRACT.

From the partial examination which I have given Mr. S. Kirkham's English

Grammar, I do not hesitate to recommend it to the public as the \_best of

the class I have ever seen,\_ and as filling up an important and almost

impassable chasm in works on grammatical science. D.L. CARROLL.

Brooklyn, L.I. June 29, 1829.

We fully concur in the foregoing recommendation. B.B. HALLOCK,

E. KINGSLEY,

T.S. MAYBON.

From A.W. Dodge, Esq.

New-York, July 15, 1829.

The experience of every one at all acquainted with the business of

instruction, must have taught him that the study of grammar, important

as it is to every class of learners, is almost invariably a dry and

uninteresting study to young beginners, and for the very obvious reason,

that the systems in general use in the schools, are \_far beyond\_ the

comprehension of youth, and ill adapted to their years. Hence it is,

that their lessons in this department of learning, are considered as

\_tasks,\_ and if committed at all, committed to \_the memory, without

enlightening their understandings;\_ so that many a pupil who has \_been

through\_ the English grammar, is totally unacquainted with the nature

even of the simplest parts of speech.

The work of Mr. Kirkham on grammar, is well calculated to remedy these

evils, and supply a deficiency which has been so long and so seriously

felt in the imperfect education of youth in the elementary knowledge of

their own language. By a simple, familiar, and lucid method of treating

the subject, he has rendered what was before irksome and unprofitable,

pleasing and instructive. In one word, the grammar of Mr. Kirkham

furnishes a \_clew\_ by which the youthful mind is guided through the

intricate labyrinth of verbs, nouns and pronouns; and the path which has

been heretofore so difficult and uninviting, as to dampen the ardor of

youth, and waste their energies in fruitless attempts to surmount its

obstacles, is cleared of these obstructions by this \_pioneer\_ to the

youthful mind, and planted, at every turn, with friendly \_guide-boards

to direct them in the right road\_. The slightest perusal of the work

alluded to, will convince even the most skeptical of the truth of these

remarks, and satisfy every one who is not wedded by prejudice to old

rules and forms, that it will meet the wants of the community.

ALLEN W. DODGE.

Philadelphia, Aug. 10, 1829

Having, for several years, been engaged in lecturing on the science of

grammar and, during this period, having \_thoroughly tested\_ the merits

of Mr. S. Kirkham's system of "English Grammar in Familiar Lectures" by

using it as a text-book for my classes, I take pleasure in giving this

testimonial of my cordial approbation of the work. Mr. Kirkham has

attempted to improve upon this branch of science, chiefly by unfolding

and explaining the principles of grammar in a manner so clear and

simple, as \_to adapt them completely to the understanding\_ of the young

learner, and by adopting a new arrangement, which enables the pupil to

commit the principles by a simultaneous application of them to practical

examples. The public may rest assured, that he has been successful in

his attempt \_in a pre-eminent degree\_. I make this assertion under a

full conviction that it will be corroborated by every candid judge of

the science who becomes acquainted with the practical advantages of this

manual.

The explicit brevity and accuracy of the rules and definitions, the

novel, the striking, the lucid, and critical illustrations accompanying

them, the peculiar and advantageous arrangement of the various parts of

the subject, the facilities proffered by the "systematic mode of

parsing" adopted, the convenient and judicious introduction and

adaptation of the exercises introduced, and the deep researches and

critical investigations displayed in the "Philosophical Notes," render

this system of grammar \_so decidedly superior to all others extant\_,

that, to receive general patronage, it needs but to be known.

My knowledge of this system from experience in teaching it, and

witnessing its effects in the hands of private learners, warrants me in

saying, that a learner will, by studying this book \_four months without

a teacher\_, obtain a more clear conception of the nature and proper

construction of words and phrases, than is ordinarily obtained in common

schools and academies, \_in five times four months\_.

It is highly gratifying to know, that wherever this system has been

circulated, it is very rapidly supplanting those works of dulness which

have so long paralyzed the energies of the youth of our country.

I think the specimens of verbal criticism, additional corrections in

orthography and ortheopy, the leading principles of rhetoric, and the

improvements in the illustrations generally, which Mr. K. is about

introducing into his ELEVENTH EDITION, will render it quite \_an

improvement on the former editions of this work\_. H. WINCHESTER.

From the Rev. S. Center, Principal of a Classical Academy.

I have examined the last edition of Kirkham's Grammar with peculiar

satisfaction. The improvements which appear in it, do, in my estimation,

give it a decided preference to any other system now in use. To point

out the peculiar qualities which secure to it claims of which no other

system can boast, would be, if required, perfectly easy. At present it

is sufficient to remark, that it imbodies all that is essentially

excellent and useful in other systems, while it is entirely free from

that tediousness of method and prolixity of definition which so much

perplex and embarrass the learner.

The peculiar excellence of Mr. Kirkham's grammar is, \_the simplicity of

its method\_, and \_the plainness of its illustrations\_. Being conducted

by familiar lectures, the teacher and pupil are necessarily brought into

agreeable contact by each lesson. Both are improved by the same task,

without the slightest suspicion, on the part of the pupil, that there is

anything hard, difficult, or obscure in the subject: a conviction, this,

which must inevitably precede all efforts, or no proficiency will be

made. In a word, the treatise I am recommending, is a \_practical\_ one;

and for that reason, if there were no others to be urged, it ought to be

introduced into all our schools and academies. From actual experiment I

can attest to the practicability of the plan which the author has

adopted. Of this fact any one may be convinced who will take the pains

to make the experiment. SAMUEL CENTER.

Albany, July 10, 1829.

From a communication addressed to S. Kirkham, by the Rev. J. Stockton,

author of the "Western Calculator" and "Western Spelling-Book."

Dear Sir,--I am much pleased with both the \_plan\_ and \_execution\_ of

your "English Grammar in Familiar Lectures." In giving a \_systematic

mode of parsing\_, calculated alike to exercise the \_understanding\_ and

\_memory\_ of the pupil, and also free the teacher from the \_drudgery\_ of

continued interrogation, you have made your grammar what every

\_elementary\_ school book ought to be--\_plain, systematic\_, and \_easy\_ to

be understood.

This, with the copious definitions in every part of the work, and other

improvements so judiciously introduced, gives it \_a decisive

superiority\_ over the imperfect grammar of Murray, now so generally

used. JOSEPH STOCKTON, A.M.

Allegheny-Town, (near Pittsburgh,) March 18, 1825.

TO THE ELEVENTH EDITION.

The author is free to acknowledge, that since this treatise first

ventured on the wave of public opinion, the gales of patronage which

have waited it along, have been far more favorable than he had reason to

anticipate. Had any one, on its first appearance, predicted, that the

demand for it would call forth \_twenty-two thousand\_ copies during the

past year, the author would have considered the prediction extravagant

and chimerical. In gratitude, therefore, to that public which has smiled

so propitiously on his humble efforts to advance the cause of learning,

he has endeavored, by unremitting attention to the improvement of his

work, to render it as useful and as unexceptionable as his time and

talents would permit.

It is believed that the \_tenth\_ and \_eleventh\_ editions have been

greatly improved; but the author is apprehensive that his work is not

yet as accurate and as much simplified as it may be. If, however, the

disadvantages of lingering under a broken constitution, and of being

able to devote to this subject only a small portion of his time,

snatched from the active pursuits of a business life, (\_active\_ as far

as his imperfect health permits him to be,) are any apology for its

defects, he hopes that the candid will set down the apology to his

credit. This personal allusion is hazarded with the additional hope,

that it will ward off some of the arrows of criticism which may be aimed

at him, and render less pointed and poisonous those that may fall upon

him. Not that he would beg a truce with the gentlemen critics and

reviewers. Any compromise with them would betray a want of

self-confidence and moral courage which he would, by no means, be

willing to avow. It would, moreover, be prejudicial to his interest; for

he is determined, if his life be preserved, to avail himself of the

advantages of any judicious and candid criticisms on his production,

that may appear, and, two or three years hence, \_revise\_ his work, and

present to the public another and a better edition.

The improvements in the \_tenth\_ edition, consisted mainly in the

addition of many important principles; in rendering the illustrations

more critical, extensive, accurate, and lucid; in connecting more

closely with the genius and philosophy of our language, the general

principles adopted; and in adding a brief view of philosophical grammar

interspersed in notes. The introduction into the ELEVENTH EDITION, of

many verbal criticisms, of additional corrections in orthography and

orthoepy, of the leading principles of rhetoric, and of general

additions and improvements in various parts of the work, render \_this

edition/,\_ it is believed, \_far preferable\_ to any of the former

editions of the work.

Perhaps some will regard the philosophical notes as a useless exhibition

of pedantry. If so, the author's only apology is, that some

investigations of this nature seemed to be called for by a portion of

the community whose minds, of late, appear to be under the influence of

a kind of \_philosophical mania;\_ and to such these notes are

respectfully submitted for just what \_they\_ may deem their real value.

The author's own opinion on this point, is, that they proffer no

\_material\_ advantages to common learners; but that they may profitably

engage the attention of the curious, and perhaps impart a degree of

interest to the literary connoisseur.

New-York, August 22, 1820.

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PREFACE

There appears to be something assuming in the act of writing, and

thrusting into public notice, a new work on a subject which has already

employed many able pens; for who would presume to do this, unless he

believed his production to be, in some respects, superior to every one

of the kind which had preceded it? Hence, in presenting to the public

this system of English Grammar, the author is aware that an apology will

be looked for, and that the arguments on which that apology is grounded,

must inevitably undergo a rigid scrutiny. Apprehensive, however, that no

explanatory effort, on his part, would shield him from the imputation of

arrogance by such as are blinded by self-interest, or by those who are

wedded to the doctrines mid opinions of his predecessors, with \_them\_ he

will not attempt a compromise, being, in a great measure, indifferent

either to their praise or their censure. But with the candid, he is

willing to negotiate an amicable treaty, knowing that they are always

ready to enter into it on honorable terms. In this negotiation he asks

nothing more than merely to rest the merits of his work on its practical

utility, believing that, if it prove uncommonly successful in

facilitating the progress of youth in the march of mental improvement,

\_that\_ will be its best apology.

When we bring into consideration the numerous productions of those

learned philologists who have labored so long, and, as many suppose, so

successfully, in establishing the principles of our language; and, more

especially, when we view the labors of some of our modern compilers, who

have displayed so much ingenuity and acuteness in attempting to arrange

those principles in such a manner as to form a correct and an easy

medium of mental conference; it does, indeed, appear a little like

presumption for a young man to enter upon a subject which has so

frequently engaged the attention and talents of men distinguished for

their erudition. The author ventures forward, however, under the

conviction, that most of his predecessors are very deficient, at least,

in \_manner,\_ if not in \_matter\_; and this conviction, he believes, will

be corroborated by a majority of the best judges in community. It is

admitted, that many valuable improvements have been made by some of our

late writers, who have endeavored to simplify and render this subject

intelligible to the young learner, but they have all overlooked what the

author considers a very important object, namely, \_a systematic order of

parsing;\_ and nearly all have neglected to \_develop and explain\_ the

principles in such a manner as to enable the learner, without great

difficulty, to comprehend their nature and use.

By some this system will, no doubt, be discarded on account of its

\_simplicity\_; while to others its simplicity will prove its principal

recommendation. Its design is an humble one. It proffers no great

advantages to the recondite grammarian; it professes not to instruct the

literary connoisseur; it presents no attractive graces of style to

charm, no daring flights to astonish, no deep researches to gratify

him; but in the humblest simplicity of diction, it attempts to

accelerate the march of the juvenile mind in its advances in the path of

science, by dispersing those clouds that so often bewilder it, and

removing those obstacles that generally retard its progress. In this way

it endeavors to render interesting and delightful a study which has

hitherto been considered tedious, dry, and irksome. Its leading object

is to adopt a correct and an easy method, in which pleasure is blended

with the labors of the learner, and which is calculated to excite in him

a spirit of inquiry, that shall call forth into vigorous and useful

exercise, every latent energy of his mind; and thus enable him soon to

become thoroughly acquainted with the nature of the principles, and with

their practical utility and application.

Content to be useful, instead of being brilliant, the writer of these

pages has endeavored to shun the path of those whose aim appears to have

been to dazzle, rather than to instruct. As he has aimed not so much at

originality as utility, he has adopted the thoughts of his predecessors

whose labors have become public stock, whenever he could not, in his

opinion, furnish better and brighter of his own. Aware that there is, in

the public mind, a strong predilection for the doctrines contained in

Mr. Murray's grammar, he has thought proper, not merely from motives of

policy, but from choice, to select his \_principles\_ chiefly from that

work; and, moreover, to adopt, as far as consistent with his own views,

the language of that eminent philologist. In no instance has he varied

from him, unless he conceived that, in so doing, some practical

advantage would be gained. He hopes, therefore, to escape the censure so

frequently and so justly awarded to those unfortunate innovators who

have not scrupled to alter, mutilate, and torture the text of that able

writer, merely to gratify an itching propensity to figure in the world

as authors, and gain an ephemeral popularity by arrogating to themselves

the credit due to another.

The author is not disposed, however, to disclaim all pretensions to

originality; for, although his principles are chiefly selected, (and who

would presume to make new ones?) the manner of arranging, illustrating,

and applying them, is principally his own. Let no one, therefore, if he

happen to find in other works, ideas and illustrations similar to \_some\_

contained in the following lectures, too hastily accuse him of

plagiarism. It is well known that similar investigations and pursuits

often elicit corresponding ideas in different minds: and hence it is not

uncommon for the same thought to be strictly \_original\_ with many

writers. The author is not here attempting to manufacture a garment to

shield him from rebuke, should he unjustly claim the property of

another; but he wishes it to be understood, that a long course of

teaching and investigation, has often produced in his mind ideas and

arguments on the subject of grammar, exactly or nearly corresponding

with those which he afterwards found, had, under similar circumstances,

been produced in the minds of others. He hopes, therefore, to be

pardoned by the critic, even though he should not be willing to reject a

good idea \_of his own,\_ merely because some one else has, at some time

or other, been blessed with the same thought.

As the plan of this treatise is far more comprehensive than those of

ordinary grammars, the writer could not, without making his work

unreasonably voluminous, treat some topics as extensively as was

desirable. Its design is to embrace, not only all the most important

principles of the science, but also exercises in parsing, false syntax,

and punctuation, sufficiently extensive for all ordinary, practical

purposes, and a key to the exercises, and, moreover, a series of

illustrations so full and intelligible, as \_completely to adapt the

principles to the capacities of common learners.\_ Whether this design

has been successfully or unsuccessfully executed, is left for the public

to decide. The general adoption of the work into schools, wherever it

has become known, and the ready sale of \_forty thousand\_ copies, (though

\_without hitherto affording the author any pecuniary profit,\_) are

favorable omens.

In the selection and arrangement of principles for his work, the author

has endeavored to pursue a course between the extremes, of taking

blindly on trust whatever has been sanctioned by prejudice and the

authority of venerable names, and of that arrogant, innovating spirit,

which sets at defiance all authority, and attempts to overthrow all

former systems, and convince the world that all true knowledge and

science are wrapped up in a crude system of vagaries of its own

invention. Notwithstanding the author is aware that public prejudice is

powerful, and that he who ventures much by way of innovation, will be

liable to defeat his own purpose by falling into neglect; yet he has

taken the liberty to think for himself, to investigate the subject

critically and dispassionately, and to adopt such principles only as he

deemed the least objectionable, and best calculated to effect the object

he had in view. But what his system claims as improvements on others,

consists not so much in bettering the principles themselves, as in the

\_method adopted of communicating a knowledge of them to the mind of the

learner\_. That the work is defective, the author is fully sensible: and

he is free to acknowledge, that its defects arise, in part, from his own

want of judgment and skill. But there is another and a more serious

cause of them, namely, the anomalies and imperfections with which the

language abounds. This latter circumstance is also the cause of the

existence of so widely different opinions on many important points; and,

moreover, the reason that the grammatical principles of our language can

never be indisputably settled. But principles ought not to be rejected

because they admit of exceptions.--He who is thoroughly acquainted with

the genius and structure of our language, can duly appreciate the truth

of these remarks.

\* \* \* \* \*

Should parents object to the Compendium, fearing it will soon be

destroyed by their children, they are informed that the pupil will not

have occasion to use it one-tenth part as much as he will the book which

it accompanies: and besides, if it be destroyed, he will find all the

definitions and rules which it contains, recapitulated in the series of

Lectures.

HINTS TO TEACHERS AND PRIVATE LEARNERS.

As this work proposes a new mode of parsing, and pursues an arrangement

essentially different from that generally adopted, it may not be deemed

improper for the author to give some directions to those who may be

disposed to use it. Perhaps they who take only a slight view of the

order of parsing, will not consider it \_new\_, but blend it with those

long since adopted. Some writers have, indeed, attempted plans somewhat

similar; but in no instance have they reduced them to what the author

considers a \_regular systematic order\_.

The methods which they have generally suggested, require the teacher to

\_interrogate\_ the pupil as he proceeds; or else he is permitted to parse

without giving any explanations at all. Others hint that the learner

ought to apply definitions in a general way, but they lay down no

systematic arrangement of questions as his guide. The \_systematic\_ order

laid down in this work, if pursued by the pupil, compels him to apply

every definition and every rule that appertains to each word he parses,

without having a question put to him by the teacher; and, in so doing,

he explains every word fully as he goes along. This course enables the

learner to proceed independently; and proves, at the same time, a great

relief to the instructer. The convenience and advantage of this method,

are far greater than can be easily conceived by one who is unacquainted

with it. The author is, therefore, anxious to have the absurd practice,

wherever it has been established, of causing learners to commit and

recite definitions and rules without any simultaneous application of

them to practical examples, immediately abolished. This system obviates

the necessity of pursuing such a stupid course of drudgery; for the

young beginner who pursues it, will have, in a few weeks, all the most

important definitions and rules perfectly committed, simply by applying

them in parsing.

If this plan be once adopted, it is confidently believed that every

teacher who is desirous to consult, either his own convenience, or the

advantage of his pupils, will readily pursue it in preference to any

former method. This belief is founded on the advantages which the

author himself has experienced from it in the course of several years,

devoted to the instruction of youth and adults. By pursuing this system,

he can, with less labor, advance a pupil farther in a practical

knowledge of this abstruse science, in \_two months\_, than he could in

\_one year\_ when he taught in the "old way." It is presumed that no

instructor, who once gives this system a fair trial, will doubt the

truth of this assertion.

Perhaps some will, on a first view of the work, disapprove of the

transposition of many parts; but whoever examines it attentively, will

find that, although the author has not followed the common "artificial

and unnatural arrangement adopted by most of his predecessors," yet he

has endeavored to pursue a more judicious one, namely, "the order of the

understanding."

The learner should commence, \_not by committing and rehearsing\_, but by

reading attentively the first \_two\_ lectures several times over. He

ought then to parse, according to the \_systematic order\_, the examples

given for that purpose; in doing which, as previously stated, he has an

opportunity of committing all the definitions and rules belonging to the

parts of speech included in the examples.

The COMPENDIUM, as it presents to the eye of the learner a condensed but

comprehensive view of the whole science, may be properly considered an

"Ocular Analysis of the English language." By referring to it, the young

student is enabled to apply all his definitions and rules from the very

commencement of his parsing. To some, this mode of procedure may seem

rather tedious; but it must appear obvious to every person of

discernment, that a pupil will learn more by parsing \_five\_ words

critically, and explaining them fully, than he would by parsing \_fifty\_

words superficially, and without understanding their various properties.

The teacher who pursues this plan, is not under the necessity of hearing

his pupils recite a single lesson of \_definitions\_ committed to memory,

for he has a fair opportunity of discovering their knowledge of these as

they evince it in parsing. All other directions necessary for the

learner in school, as well as for the \_private learner\_, will be given

in the succeeding pages of the work. Should these feeble efforts prove a

saving of much time and expense to those young persons who may be

disposed to pursue this science with avidity, by enabling them easily to

acquire a critical knowledge of a branch of education so important and

desirable, the author's fondest anticipations will be fully realized;

but should his work fall into the hands of any who are expecting, by the

acquisition, to become grammarians, and yet, have not sufficient

ambition and perseverance to make themselves acquainted with its

contents, it is hoped that the blame for their nonimprovement, will not

be thrown upon \_him.\_

\* \* \* \* \*

To those enterprising and intelligent gentlemen who may be disposed to

lecture on this plan, the author takes the liberty to offer a few hints

by way of encouragement.

Any judicious instructor of grammar, if he take the trouble to make

himself familiar with the contents of the following pages, will find it

an easy matter to pursue this system. One remark only to the lecturer,

is sufficient. Instead of causing his pupils to acquire a knowledge of

the nature and use of the principles by intense application, let him

communicate it verbally; that is, let him first take up one part of

speech, and, in an oral lecture, unfold and explain all its properties,

not only by adopting the illustrations given in the book, but also by

giving others that may occur to his mind as he proceeds. After a part of

speech has been thus elucidated, the class should be interrogated on it,

and then taught to parse it, and correct errors in composition under the

rules that apply to it. In the same manner he may proceed with the other

parts of speech, observing, however, to recapitulate occasionally, until

the learners become thoroughly acquainted with whatever principles may

have been presented. If this plan be faithfully pursued, rapid progress,

on the part of the learner, will be the inevitable result; and that

teacher who pursues it, cannot fail of acquiring distinction, and an

enviable popularity in his profession. S. KIRKHAM.

FAMILIAR LECTURES

ON

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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LECTURE I

DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.--ORTHOGRAPHY.

TO THE YOUNG LEARNER.

You are about to enter upon one of the most useful, and, when rightly

pursued, one of the most interesting studies in the whole circle of

science. If, however, you, like many a misguided youth, are under the

impression that the study of grammar is dry and irksome, and a matter of

little consequence, I trust I shall succeed in removing from your mind,

all such false notions and ungrounded prejudices; for I will endeavor to

convince you, before I close these lectures, that this is not only a

pleasing study, but one of real and substantial utility; a study that

directly tends to adorn and dignify human nature, and meliorate the

condition of man. Grammar is a leading branch of that learning which

alone is capable of unfolding and maturing the mental powers, and of

elevating man to his proper rank in the scale of intellectual

existence;--of that learning which lifts the soul from earth, and

enables it to hold converse with a thousand worlds. In pursuing any and

every other path of science, you will discover the truth of these

remarks, and feel its force; for you will find, that, as grammar opens

the door to every department of learning, a knowledge of it is

indispensable: and should you not aspire at distinction in the republic

of letters, this knowledge cannot fail of being serviceable to you, even

if you are destined to pass through the humblest walks of life. I think

it is clear, that, in one point of view, grammatical knowledge possesses

a decisive advantage over every other branch of learning. Penmanship,

arithmetic, geography, astronomy, botany, chemistry, and so on, are

highly useful in their respective places; but not one of them is so

universally applicable to practical purposes, as this. In every

situation, under all circumstances, on all occasions;--when you speak,

read, write, or think, a knowledge of grammar is of essential utility.

Doubtless you have heard some persons assert, that they could detect and

correct any error in language by the ear, and speak and write accurately

without a knowledge of grammar. Now your own observation will soon

convince you, that this assertion is incorrect. A man of refined taste,

may, by perusing good authors, and conversing with the learned, acquire

that knowledge of language which will enable him to avoid those glaring

errors that offend the ear; but there are other errors equally gross,

which have not a harsh sound, and, consequently, which cannot be

detected without a knowledge of the rules that are violated. Believe me,

therefore, when I say, that without the knowledge and application of

grammar rules, it is impossible for any one to think, speak, read, or

write with accuracy. From a want of such knowledge, many often express

their ideas in a manner so improper and obscure as to render it

impossible for any one to \_understand\_ them: their language frequently

amounts, not only to \_bad\_ sense, but \_non\_-sense. In other instances

several different meanings may be affixed to the words they employ; and

what is still worse, is, that not unfrequently their sentences are so

constructed, as to convey a meaning quite the reverse of that which they

intended. Nothing of a secular nature can be more worthy of your

attention, then, than the acquisition of grammatical knowledge.

The path which leads to grammatical excellence, is not all the way

smooth and flowery, but in it you will find some thorns interspersed,

and some obstacles to be surmounted; or, in simple language, you will

find, in the pursuit of this science, many intricacies which it is

rather difficult for the juvenile mind completely to unravel. I shall,

therefore, as I proceed, address you in plain language, and endeavor to

illustrate every principle in a manner so clear and simple, that you

will be able, \_if you exercise your mind,\_ to understand its nature, and

apply it to practice as you go along; for I would rather give you one

useful idea, than fifty high-sounding words, the meaning of which you

would probably be unable to comprehend.

Should you ever have any doubts concerning the meaning of a word, or the

sense of a sentence, you must not be discouraged, but persevere, either

by studying my explanations, or by asking some person competent to

inform you, till you obtain a clear conception of it, and till all

doubts are removed. By carefully examining, and frequently reviewing,

the following lectures, you will soon be able to discern the grammatical

construction of our language, and fix in your mind the principles by

which it is governed. Nothing delights youth so much, as a clear and

distinct knowledge of any branch of science which they are pursuing;

and, on the other hand, I know they are apt to be discouraged with any

branch of learning which requires much time and attention to be

understood. It is the evidence of a weak mind, however, to be

discouraged by the obstacles with which the young learner must expect to

meet; and the best means that you can adopt, in order to enable you to

overcome the difficulties that arise in the incipient stage of your

studies, is to cultivate the habit of \_thinking methodically and

soundly\_ on all subjects of importance which may engage your attention.

Nothing will be more effectual in enabling you to think, as well as to

speak and write, correctly, than the study of English grammar, according

to the method of pursuing it as prescribed in the following pages. This

system is designed, and, I trust, well calculated, to expand and

strengthen the intellectual faculties, in as much as it involves a

process by which the mind is addressed, and a knowledge of grammar

communicated in an interesting and familiar manner.

You are aware, my young friend, that you live in an age of light and

knowledge;--an age in which science and the arts are marching onward

with gigantic strides. You live, too, in a land of liberty;--a land on

which the smiles of Heaven beam with uncommon refulgence. The trump of

the warrior and the clangor of arms no longer echo on our mountains, or

in our valleys; "the garments dyed in blood have passed away;" the

mighty struggle for independence is over; and you live to enjoy the rich

boon of freedom and prosperity which was purchased with the blood of our

fathers. These considerations forbid that you should ever be so

unmindful of your duty to your country, to your Creator, to yourself,

and to succeeding generations, as to be content to grovel in ignorance.

Remember that "knowledge is power;" that an enlightened and a virtuous

people can never be enslaved; and that, on the intelligence of our

youth, rest the future liberty, the prosperity, the happiness, the

grandeur, and the glory of our beloved country. Go on then, with a

laudable ambition, and an unyielding perseverance, in the path which

leads to honor and renown. Press forward. Go, and gather laurels on the

hill of science; linger among her unfading beauties; "drink deep" of her

crystal fountain; and then join in "the march of fame." Become learned

and virtuous, and you will be great. Love God and serve him, and you

will be happy.

LANGUAGE.

Language, in its most extensive sense, implies those signs by which men

and brutes communicate to each other their thoughts, affections, and

desires.

Language may be divided, 1. into natural and artificial; 2. into spoken

and written.

NATURAL LANGUAGE, consists in the use of those natural signs which

different animals employ in communicating their feelings one to another.

The meaning of these signs all perfectly understand by the principles of

their nature. This language is common both to man and brute. The

elements of natural language in man, may be reduced to three kinds;

modulations of the voice, gestures, and features. By means of these, two

savages who have no common, artificial language, can communicate their

thoughts in a manner quite intelligible: they can ask and refuse, affirm

and deny, threaten and supplicate; they can traffick, enter into

contracts, and plight their faith. The language of brutes consists in

the use of those \_inarticulate\_ sounds by which they express their

thoughts and affections. Thus, the chirping of a bird, the bleating of a

lamb, the neighing of a horse, and the growling, whining, and barking of

a dog, are the language of those animals, respectively.

ARTIFICIAL LANGUAGE consists in the use of words, by means of which

mankind are enabled to communicate their thoughts to one another.--In

order to assist you in comprehending what is meant by the term \_word,\_ I

will endeavor to illustrate the meaning of the term.

\_Idea\_. The \_notices\_ which we gain by sensation and perception, and

which are treasured up in the mind to be the materials of thinking and

knowledge, are denominated ideas. For example, when you place your hand

upon a piece of ice, a sensation is excited which we call \_coldness\_.

That faculty which notices this sensation or change produced in the

mind, is called \_perception;\_ and the abstract notice itself, or notion

you form of this sensation, is denominated an \_idea\_. This being

premised, we will now proceed to the consideration of words.

\_Words\_ are \_articulate\_ sounds, used by common consent, not as natural,

but as artificial, signs of our ideas. Words have no meaning in

themselves. They are merely the artificial representatives of those

ideas affixed to them by compact or agreement among those who use them.

In English, for instance, to a particular kind of metal we assign the

name \_gold;\_ not because there is, in that sound, any peculiar aptness

which suggests the idea we wish to convey, but the application of that

sound to the idea signified, is an act altogether arbitrary. Were there

any natural connexion between the sound and the thing signified, the

word \_gold\_ would convey the same idea to the people of other countries

as it does to ourselves. But such is not the fact. Other nations make

use of different sounds to signify the same thing. Thus, \_aurum\_ denotes

the same idea in Latin, and \_or\_ in French. Hence it follows, that it is

by custom only we learn to annex particular ideas to particular sounds.

SPOKEN LANGUAGE or speech is made up of articulate sounds uttered by the

human voice.

\_The voice\_ is formed by air which, after it passes through the glottis,

(a small aperture in the upper part of the wind-pipe,) is modulated by

the action of the throat, palate, teeth, tongue, lips, and nostrils.

WRITTEN LANGUAGE. The elements of written language consist of letters or

characters, which, by common consent and general usage, are combined

into words, and thus made the ocular representatives of the articulate

sounds uttered by the voice.

\* \* \* \* \*

GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR is the science of language.

Grammar may be divided into two species, universal and particular.

UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR explains the principles which are common to all

languages.

PARTICULAR GRAMMAR applies those general principles to a particular

language, modifying them according to its genius, and the established

practice of the best speakers and writers by whom it is used. Hence,

\_The established practice of the best speakers and writers\_ of any

language, is the standard of grammatical accuracy in the use of that

language.

By the phrase, \_established practice,\_ is implied reputable, national,

and present usage. A usage becomes \_good\_ and \_legal,\_ when it has been

long and generally adopted.

\_The best speakers and writers,\_ or such as may be considered good

authority in the use of language, are those who are deservedly in high

estimation; speakers, distinguished for their elocution and other

literary attainments, and writers, eminent for correct taste, solid

matter, and refined manner.

In the grammar of a \_perfect\_ language, no rules should be admitted, but

such as are founded on fixed principles, arising out of the genius of

that language and the nature of things; but our language being

\_im\_-perfect, it becomes necessary, in a \_practical\_ treatise, like

this, to adopt some rules to direct us in the use of speech as regulated

by \_custom\_. If we had a permanent and surer standard than capricious

custom to regulate us in the transmission of thought, great

inconvenience would be avoided. They, however, who introduce usages

which depart from the analogy and philosophy of a language, are

conspicuous among the number of those who form that language, and have

power to control it.

Language is conventional, and not only invented, but, in its progressive

advancement, \_varied\_ for purposes of practical convenience. Hence it

assumes any and every form which those who make use of it choose to give

it. We are, therefore, as \_rational\_ and \_practical\_ grammarians,

compelled to submit to the necessity of the case; to take the language

as it \_is\_, and not as it \_should be\_, and bow to custom.

PHILOSOPHICAL GRAMMAR investigates and develops the principles of

language, as founded in the nature of things and the original laws of

thought. It also discusses the grounds of the classification of words,

and explains those procedures which practical grammar lays down for our

observance.

PRACTICAL GRAMMAR adopts the most convenient classification of the words

of a language, lays down a system of definitions and rules, founded on

scientific principles and good usage, illustrates their nature and

design, and enforces their application.

PRINCIPLE. A principle in grammar is a peculiar construction of the

language, sanctioned by good usage.

DEFINITION. A definition in grammar is a principle of language expressed

in a definite form.

RULE. A rule describes the peculiar construction or circumstantial

relation of words, which custom has established for our observance.

\* \* \* \* \*

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language

with propriety.

GRAMMAR teaches us \_how to use words in a proper manner.\_ The most

important use of that faculty called speech, is, to convey our thoughts

to others. If, therefore, we have a store of words, and even know what

they signify, they will be of no real use to us unless we can also apply

them to practice, and make them answer the purposes for which they were

invented. \_Grammar\_, well understood, enables us to express our

thoughts fully and clearly; and, consequently, in a manner which will

defy the ingenuity of man to give our words any other meaning than that

which we ourselves intend them to express. To be able to speak and write

our vernacular tongue with accuracy and elegance, is, certainly, a

consideration of the highest moment.

Grammar is divided into four parts;

1. ORTHOGRAPHY,

2. ETYMOLOGY,

3. SYNTAX,

4. PROSODY.

ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the nature and powers of

letters, and the just method of spelling words.

ORTHOGRAPHY means \_word-making\_, or \_spelling\_. It teaches us the

different kinds and sounds of letters, how to combine them into

syllables, and syllables into words.

As this is one of the first steps in the path of literature, I presume

you already understand the nature and use of letters, and the just

method of spelling words. If you do, it is unnecessary for you to dwell

long on this part of grammar, which, though very important, is rather

dry and uninteresting, for it has nothing to do with parsing and

analyzing language. And, therefore, if you can \_spell correctly\_, you

may omit Orthography, and commence with Etymology and Syntax.

Orthography treats, 1st, of \_Letters\_, 2ndly, of \_Syllables\_, and 3dly,

of \_Words\_.

I. LETTERS. A letter is the first principle, or least part, of a word.

The English Alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

They are divided into vowels and consonants.

A vowel is a letter that can be perfectly sounded by itself. The vowels

are \_a, e, i, o, u,\_ and sometimes \_w\_ and \_y\_. \_W\_ and \_y\_ are

consonants when they begin a word or syllable; but in every other

situation they are vowels.

A consonant is a letter that cannot be perfectly sounded without the

help of a vowel; as, \_b, d, f, l\_. All letters except the vowels are

consonants.

Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels.

The mutes cannot be sounded \_at all\_ without the aid of a vowel. They

are \_b, p, t, d, k\_, and \_c\_ and \_g\_ hard.

The semi-vowels have an imperfect sound of themselves. They are \_f, l,

m, n, r, v, s, z, x\_, and \_c\_ and \_g\_ soft.

Four of the semi-vowels, namely, \_l, m, n, r\_, are called \_liquids\_,

because they readily unite with other consonants, and flow, as it were,

into their sounds.

A diphthong is the union of \_two\_ vowels, pronounced by a single impulse

of the voice; as \_oi\_ in voice, \_ou\_ in sound.

A triphthong is the union of \_three\_ vowels pronounced in like manner;

as, \_eau\_ in beau, \_iew\_ in view.

A \_proper\_ diphthong has \_both\_ the vowels sounded; as, \_ou\_ in ounce.

An \_improper\_ diphthong has only \_one\_ of the vowels sounded; as, \_oa\_

in boat.

II. SYLLABLES. A Syllable is a distinct sound, uttered by a single

impulse of the voice; as, \_a, an, ant\_.

A word of one syllable, is termed a Monosyllable; a word of two

syllables, a Dissyllable; a word of three syllables, a Trisyllable; a

word of four or more syllables, a Polysyllable.

III. WORDS. Words are articulate sounds, used by common consent, as

signs of our ideas.

Words are of two sorts, primitive and derivative.

A \_primitive\_ word is that which cannot be reduced to a simpler word in

the language; as, \_man, good\_.

A \_derivative\_ word is that which may be reduced to a simpler word; as,

\_manful, goodness\_.

There is little or no difference between derivative and compound words.

The terminations or added syllables, such as \_ed, es, ess, est, an, ant,

en, ence, ent, dom, hood, ly, ous, ful, ness\_, and the like, were,

originally, distinct and separate words, which, by long use, have been

contracted, and made to coalesce with other words.

OF THE SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

A.--\_A\_ has four sounds; the long; as in \_name, basin\_; the broad; as in

\_ball, wall\_; the short; as in \_fagot, glass\_; and the flat, Italian

sound; as in \_bar, farther\_. The improper diphthong, \_aa\_, has the

short sound of a in \_Balaam, Canaan, Isaac\_; and the long sound of \_a\_

in \_Baal, Gaal, Aaron\_.

The Latin diphthong, \_ae\_, has the long sound of \_e\_ in \_aenigma,

Caesar\_, and some other words. But many authors reject this useless

excrescence of antiquity, and write, \_enigma, Cesar\_.

The diphthong, \_ai\_, has the long sound of \_a\_; as in \_pail, sail\_;

except in \_plaid, said, again, raillery, fountain, Britain\_, and some

others.

\_Au\_ is sounded like broad \_a\_ in \_taught\_, like flat \_a\_ in \_aunt\_,

like long \_o\_ in \_hautboy\_, and like short \_o\_ in \_laurel\_.

\_Aw\_ has always the sound of broad \_a\_; as in \_bawl, crawl\_.

\_Ay\_ has the long sound of \_a\_; as in \_pay, delay\_.

B.--\_B\_ has only one sound; as in \_baker, number, chub\_.

\_B\_ is silent when it follows \_m\_ in the same syllable; as in \_lamb\_,

&c. except in \_accumb, rhomb\_, and \_succumb\_. It is also silent before

\_t\_ in the same syllable; as in \_doubt, debtor, subtle\_, &c.

C.--\_C\_ sounds like \_k\_ before \_a, o, u, r, l, t\_, and at the end of

syllables; as in \_cart, cottage, curious, craft, tract, cloth; victim,

flaccid\_. It has the sound of \_s\_ before \_e, i\_, and \_y\_; as in \_centre,

cigar, mercy. C\_ has the sound of \_sh\_ when followed by a diphthong, and

is preceded by the accent, either primary or secondary; as in \_social,

pronunciation\_, &c.; and of \_z\_ in \_discern, sacrifice, sice, suffice\_.

It is mute in \_arbuscle, czar, czarina, endict, victuals, muscle\_.

\_Ch\_ is commonly sounded like \_tsh\_; as in \_church, chin\_; but in words

derived from the ancient languages, it has the sound of \_k\_; as in

\_chemist, chorus\_; and likewise in foreign names; as in \_Achish, Enoch\_.

In words from the French, \_ch\_ sounds like \_sh\_; as in \_chaise,

chevalier\_; and also like \_sh\_ when preceded by \_l\_ or \_n\_; as in

\_milch, bench, clinch\_, &c.

\_Ch\_ in \_arch\_, before a vowel, sounds like \_k\_; as in \_arch-angel\_,

except in \_arched, archery, archer; archenemy\_; but before a consonant,

it sounds like \_tsh\_; as in \_archbishop. Ch\_ is silent in \_schedule,

schism, yacht, drachm\_.

D.--\_D\_ has one uniform sound; as in \_death, bandage\_. It sounds like

\_dj\_ or \_j\_ when followed by long \_u\_ preceded by the accent; as in

\_educate, verdure\_. It also sounds like \_j\_ in \_grandeur, soldier\_.

The termination, \_ed\_, in adjectives and participial adjectives, retains

its distinct sound; as, a \_wick-ed\_ man, a \_learn-ed\_ man, \_bless-ed\_

are the meek; but in verbs the \_e\_ is generally dropped; as, \_passed,

walked, flashed, aimed, rolled\_, &c. which are pronounced, \_past, walkt,

flasht, aimd, rold\_.

E.--\_E\_ has a long sound; as in \_scheme, severe\_; a short sound; as in

\_men, tent\_; and sometimes the sound of flat \_a\_; as in \_sergeant\_; and

of short \_i\_; as in \_yes, pretty, England\_, and generally in the

unaccented terminations, \_es, et, en\_.

F.--\_F\_ has one unvaried sound; as in \_fancy, muffin\_; except in \_of\_,

which, when uncompounded, is pronounced \_ov\_. A wive's portion, a

calve's head, are improper. They should be, \_wife's\_ portion, \_calf's\_

head.

G.--\_G\_ has two sounds. It is hard before \_a, o, u, l\_, and \_r\_, and at

the end of a word; as in \_gay, go, gun, glory; bag, snug\_. It is soft

before \_e, i\_, and \_y\_; as in \_genius, ginger, Egypt\_. Exceptions; \_get,

gewgaw, gimlet\_, and some others. G is silent before \_n\_, as in \_gnash\_.

H.--\_H\_ has an articulate sound; as in \_hat, horse, hull\_. It is silent

after \_r\_; as in \_rhetoric, rhubarb\_.

I.--\_I\_ has a long sound; as in \_fine\_; and a short one; as in \_fin\_.

Before \_r\_ it is often sounded like \_u\_ short; as in \_first, third\_; and

in other words, like short \_e\_; as in \_birth, virtue\_. In some words it

has the sound of long \_e\_; as in \_machine, profile\_.

J.--\_J\_ has the sound of soft \_g\_; except in \_hallelujah\_, in which it

is pronounced like \_y\_.

K.--\_K\_ has the sound of \_c\_ hard, and is used before \_e, i\_, and \_y\_,

where \_c\_ would be soft; as \_kept, skirt, murky\_. It is silent before

\_n\_; as in \_knife, knell, knocker\_.

L.--\_L\_ has always a soft liquid sound; as in \_love, billow\_. It is

often silent; as in \_half, talk, almond\_.

M.--\_M\_ has always the same sound; as in \_murmur, monumental\_; except in

\_comptroller\_, which is pronounced \_controller\_.

N.--\_N\_ has two sounds; the one pure; as in \_man, net, noble\_; the other

a compound sound; as in \_ankle, banquet, distinct\_, &c., pronounced

\_angkl, bangkwet\_. \_N\_ final is silent when preceded by \_m\_; as in

\_hymn, autumn\_.

O.--\_O\_ has a long sound; as in \_note, over\_; and a short one; as in

\_not, got\_. It has the sound of \_u\_ short; as in \_son, attorney, doth,

does\_; and generally in the terminations, \_op, ot, or, on, om, ol, od\_,

&c.

P.--\_P\_ has but one uniform sound; as in \_pin, slipper\_; except in

\_cupboard, clapboard\_, where it has the sound of \_b\_. It is mute in

\_psalm, Ptolemy, tempt, empty, corps, raspberry, and receipt\_.

\_Ph\_ has the sound of \_f\_ in \_philosophy, Philip\_; and of \_v\_ in

\_nephew, Stephen\_.

Q.--\_Q\_ is sounded like \_k\_, and is always followed by \_u\_ pronounced

like \_w\_; as in \_quadrant, queen, conquest\_.

R.--\_R\_ has a rough sound; as in \_Rome, river, rage\_; and a smooth one;

as in \_bard, card, regard\_. In the unaccented termination \_re\_, the \_r\_

is sounded after the e; as \_in fibre, centre\_.

S.--\_S\_ has a flat sound like \_z\_; as in \_besom, nasal\_; and, at the

beginning of words, a sharp, hissing sound; as in \_saint, sister,

sample\_. It has the sound of \_sh\_ when preceded by the accent and

another s or a liquid, and followed by a diphthong or long \_u\_; as in

\_expulsion, censure\_. \_S\_ sounds like \_zh\_ when preceded by the accent

and a vowel, and followed by a diphthong or long \_u\_ as in \_brasier,

usual\_. It is mute in \_isle, corps, demesne, viscount\_.

T.--\_T\_ is sounded in \_take, temper\_. \_T\_ before \_u\_, when the accent

precedes, and generally before \_eou\_, sounds like \_tsh\_; as, \_nature,

virtue, righteous\_, are pronounced \_natshure, virtshue, richeus\_. \_Ti\_

before a vowel, preceded by the accent, has the sound of \_sh\_; as in

\_salvation, negotiation\_; except in such words as \_tierce, tiara\_, &c.

and unless an \_s\_ goes before; as, \_question\_; and excepting also

derivatives from words ending in \_ty\_; as in \_mighty, mightier\_.

\_Th\_, at the beginning, \_middle\_, and end of words, is sharp; as in

\_thick, panther, breath\_. Exceptions; \_then, booth, worthy\_, &c.

U.--\_U\_ has three sounds; a long; as in \_mule, cubic\_; a short; as in

\_dull, custard\_; and an obtuse sound; as in \_full, bushel\_. It is

pronounced like short \_e\_ in \_bury\_; and like short \_i\_ in \_busy,

business\_.

V.--\_V\_ has uniformly the sound of flat \_f\_; as in \_vanity, love\_.

W.--\_W\_, when a consonant, has its sound, which is heard in \_wo,

beware\_. \_W\_ is silent before \_r\_; as in \_wry, wrap, wrinkle\_; and also

in \_answer, sword\_, &c. Before \_h\_ it is pronounced as if written after

the \_h\_; as in \_why, when, what\_;--\_hwy, hwen, hwat\_. When heard as a

vowel, it takes the sound of \_u\_; as in \_draw, crew, now\_.

X.--\_X\_ has a sharp sound, like \_ks\_, when it ends a syllable with the

accent on it; as, \_exit, exercise\_; or when it precedes an accented

syllable which begins with any consonant except \_h\_; as, \_excuse,

extent\_; but when the following accented syllable begins with a vowel or

\_h\_, it has, generally, a flat sound, like \_gz\_; as in \_exert, exhort\_.

\_X\_ has the sound of \_Z\_ at the beginning of proper names of Greek

original; as in \_Xanthus, Xenophon, Xerxes\_.

Y.--\_Y\_, when a consonant, has its proper sound; as in \_youth, York,

yes, new-year\_. When \_y\_ is employed as a vowel, it has exactly the

sound that \_i\_ would have in the same situation; as in \_rhyme, system,

party, pyramid\_.

Z.--\_Z\_ has the sound of flat \_s\_; as in \_freeze, brazen\_.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

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

The following rules are deemed important in practice, although they

assist us in spelling only a small portion of the words of our language.

This useful art is to be chiefly acquired by studying the spelling-book

and dictionary, and by strict attention in reading.

RULE I. Monosyllables ending in \_f, l\_, or \_s\_, double the final or

ending consonant when it is preceded by a \_single\_ vowel; as \_staff,

mill, pass\_. Exceptions; \_of, if, is, as, lids, was, yes, his, this,

us\_, and \_thus\_.

\_False Orthography for the learner to correct\_.--Be thou like the

gale that moves the gras, to those who ask thy aid.--The aged hero

comes forth on his staf; his gray hair glitters in the beam.--Shal

mortal man be more just than God?--Few know the value of health til

they lose it.--Our manners should be neither gros, nor excessively

refined.

And that is not the lark, whose notes do beat

The vaulty heaven so high above our heads:

I have more care to stay, than wil to go.

RULE II. Monosyllables ending in any consonant but \_f, l\_, or \_s\_, never

double the final consonant when it is preceded by a \_single\_ vowel; as,

\_man, hat\_. Exceptions; \_add, ebb, butt, egg, odd, err, inn, bunn,

purr\_, and \_buzz\_.

\_False Orthography\_.--None ever went sadd from Fingal.--He rejoiced

over his sonn.--Clonar lies bleeding on the bedd of death.--Many a

trapp is set to insnare the feet of youth.

The weary sunn has made a golden sett,

And, by the bright track of his golden carr,

Gives token of a goodly day to-morrow.

RULE III. Words ending in \_y\_, form the plural of nouns, the persons of

verbs, participial nouns, past participles, comparatives, and

superlatives, by changing \_y\_ into \_i\_, when the \_y\_ is preceded by a

\_consonant\_; as, \_spy, spies; I carry, thou carriest, he carries;

carrier, carried; happy, happier, happiest\_.

The present participle in \_ing\_, retains the \_y\_ that \_i\_ may not be

doubled; as, \_carry, carrying\_.

But when \_y\_ is preceded by a \_vowel\_, in such instances as the above,

it is not changed into \_i\_; as, \_boy, boys; I cloy, he cloys\_; except

in the words \_lay, pay\_, and \_say I\_ from which are formed \_laid, paid\_,

and \_said\_; and their compounds, \_unpaid, unsaid\_, &c.

\_False Orthography\_.--Our fancys should be governed by reason.--Thou

wearyest thyself in vain.--He denyed himself all sinful pleasures.

Win straiing souls with modesty and love;

Cast none away.

The truly good man is not dismaied by poverty.

Ere fresh morning streak the east, we must be risen to reform yonder

allies green.

RULE IV. When words ending in \_y\_, assume an additional syllable

beginning with a consonant, the \_y\_, if it is preceded by a consonant,

is commonly changed to \_i\_; as, \_happy, happily, happiness\_.

But when \_y\_ is preceded by a vowel, in such instances, it is very

rarely changed to \_i\_; as, \_coy, coyless; boy, boyish; boyhood; joy,

joyless, joyful\_.

\_False Orthography\_.--His mind is uninfluenced by fancyful

humors.--The vessel was heavyly laden.--When we act against

conscience, we become the destroiers of our own peace.

Christiana, mayden of heroic mien!

Star of the north! of northern stars the queen!

RULE V. Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable,

ending with a single consonant that is preceded by a single vowel,

double that consonant when they assume another syllable that begins

with a vowel; as, \_wit, witty; thin, thinnish; to abet, an abetter\_.

But if a diphthong precedes, or the accent is \_not\_ on the last

syllable, the consonant remains single; as, \_to toil, toiling; to offer,

an offering; maid, maiden\_.

\_False Orthography\_.--The business of to-day, should not be defered

till to-morrow.--That law is annuled.--When we have outstriped our

errors we have won the race.--By defering our repentance, we

accumulate our sorrows.--The Christian Lawgiver has prohibited many

things which the heathen philosophers allowed.

At summer eve, when heaven's aerial bow

Spans with bright arch the glitterring hills below.--

Thus mourned the hapless man; a thunderring sound

Rolled round the shudderring walls and shook the ground.

RULE VI. Words ending in double \_l\_, in taking \_ness, less, ly\_, or

\_ful\_, after them, generally omit one \_l\_; as, \_fulness, skilless, fully

skilful\_.

But words ending in any double letter but \_l\_, and taking \_ness, less,

ly\_, or \_ful\_, after them, preserve the letter double; as,

\_harmlessness, carelessness, carelessly, stiffly, successful\_.

\_False Orthography\_.--A chillness generally precedes a fever.--He is

wed to dullness.

The silent stranger stood amazed to see

Contempt of wealth and willful poverty.

Restlesness of mind impairs our peace.--The road to the blisful

regions, is as open to the peasant as to the king.--The arrows of

calumny fall harmlesly at the feet of virtue.

RULE VII. \_Ness, less, ly\_, or \_ful\_, added to words ending in silent

\_e\_, does not cut it off; as, \_paleness, guileless, closely, peaceful\_;

except in a few words; as, \_duly, truly, awful\_.

\_False Orthography\_.--Sedatness is becoming.

All these with ceasless praise his works behold.

Stars rush: and final ruin fiercly drives

Her ploughshare o'er creation!

------Nature made a pause,

An aweful pause! prophetic of her end!

RULE VIII. When words ending in silent \_e\_, assume the termination,

\_ment\_, the \_e\_ should not be cut off; as, \_abatement, chastisement\_.

\_Ment\_, like other terminations, changes \_y\_ into \_i\_ when the \_y\_ is

preceded by a consonant; as, \_accompany, accompaniment; merry,

merriment\_.

\_False Orthography\_.--A judicious arrangment of studies facilitates

improvment.--Encouragment is greatest when we least need it.

To shun allurments is not hard,

To minds resolv'd, forwarn'd, and well prepared.

RULE IX. When words ending in silent \_e\_, assume the termination, \_able\_

or \_ible\_, the \_e\_ should generally be cut off; as, \_blame, blamable;

cure, curable; sense, sensible\_. But if \_c\_ or \_g\_ soft comes before \_e\_

in the original word, the \_e\_ is preserved in words compounded with

\_able\_; as, \_peace, peaceable; change, changeable\_.

\_False Orthography\_.--Knowledge is desireable.--Misconduct is

inexcuseable.--Our natural defects are not chargable upon us.--We

are made to be servicable to others as well as to ourselves.

RULE X. When \_ing\_ or \_ish\_ is added to words ending in silent

\_e\_, the \_e\_ is almost always omitted; as, \_place, placing; lodge,

lodging; slave, slavish; prude, prudish\_.

\_False Orthography\_.--Labor and expense are lost upon a droneish

spirit.--An obligeing and humble disposition, is totally unconnected

with a servile and cringeing humor.

Conscience anticipateing time,

Already rues th' unacted crime.

One self-approveing hour, whole years outweighs

Of stupid starers, and of loud huzzas.

RULE XI. Compound words are generally spelled in the same manner as the

simple words of which they are compounded; as, \_glasshouse, skylight,

thereby, hereafter\_. Many words ending in double \_l\_, are exceptions to

this rule; as, \_already, welfare, wilful, fulfil\_; and also the words,

\_wherever, christmas, lammas, &c\_.

\_False Orthography\_.--The Jew's pasover was instituted in A.M.

2513.--They salute one another by touching their forheads.--That

which is some times expedient, is not allways so.

Then, in the scale of reasoning life 'tis plain,

There must be, somwhere, such a rank as man.

Till hymen brought his lov-delighted hour,

There dwelt no joy in Eden's rosy bower.

The head reclined, the loosened hair,

The limbs relaxed, the mournful air:--

See, he looks up; a wofull smile

Lightens his wo-worn cheek awhile.

You may now answer the following

QUESTIONS.

What is language?--How is language divided?--What is natural

language?--What are the elements of natural language in man?--Wherein

consists the language of brutes?--What is artificial language?--What is

an idea?--What are words?--What is grammar?--What does Universal grammar

explain?--Wherein does Particular grammar differ from universal?--What

is the standard of grammatical accuracy?--What is Philosophical

grammar?--What is Practical grammar?--What is a principle of grammar?--A

definition?--A rule?--What is English grammar?--Into how many parts is

grammar divided?--What does Orthography teach?

\* \* \* \* \*

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX

LECTURE II

OF NOUNS AND VERBS.

ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various

modifications, and their derivation.

SYNTAX treats of the agreement and government of words, and of their

proper arrangement in a sentence.

The word ETYMOLOGY signifies the \_origin\_ or \_pedigree of words\_.

\_Syn\_, a prefix from the Greek, signifies \_together\_. \_Syn-tax\_, means

\_placing together\_; or, as applied in grammar, \_sentence making\_.

The rules of syntax, which direct to the proper choice of words, and

their judicious arrangement in a sentence, and thereby enable us to

correct and avoid errors in speech, are chiefly based on principles

unfolded and explained by Etymology. Etymological knowledge, then, is a

prerequisite to the study of Syntax; but, in parsing, under the head of

Etymology, you are required to apply the rules of Syntax. It becomes

necessary, therefore, in a practical work of this sort, to treat these

two parts of grammar in connexion.

Conducted on scientific principles, Etymology would comprehend the

exposition of the origin and meaning of words, and, in short, their

whole history, including their application to things in accordance with

the laws of nature and of thought, and the caprice of those who apply

them; but to follow up the current of language to its various sources,

and analyze the springs from which it flows, would involve a process

altogether too arduous and extensive for an elementary work. It would

lead to the study of all those languages from which ours is immediately

derived, and even compel us to trace many words through those languages

to others more ancient, and so on, until the chain of research would

become, if not endless, at least, too extensive to be traced out by one

man. I shall, therefore, confine myself to the following, limited views

of this part of grammar.

1. Etymology treats of the \_classification\_ of words.

2. Etymology explains the \_accidents\_ or \_properties\_ peculiar to each

class or sort of words, and their present \_modifications\_. By

modifications, I mean the changes produced on their \_endings\_, in

consequence of their assuming different relations in respect to one

another. These changes, such as fruit, fruit\_s\_, fruit'\_s\_; he, h\_is\_,

h\_im\_; write, write\_st\_, write\_th\_, write\_s\_, wr\_ote\_, writ\_ten\_,

writ\_ing\_, write\_r\_; a, a\_n\_; ample, ampl\_y\_, and the like, will be

explained in their appropriate places.

3. Etymology treats of the \_derivation\_ of words; that is, it teaches

you \_how one word comes from\_, or \_grows out of\_ another. For example,

from the word speak, come the words speak\_est\_, speak\_eth\_, speak\_s\_,

speak\_ing\_, sp\_oke\_, spo\_ken\_, speak\_er\_, speak\_er's\_, speak\_ers\_.

These, you perceive, are all one and the same word, and all, except the

last three, express the same kind of action. They differ from each other

only in the termination. These changes in termination are produced on

the word in order to make it correspond with the various \_persons\_ who

speak, the \_number\_ of persons, or the \_time\_ of speaking; as, \_I\_

speak, \_thou\_ speak\_est\_, the \_man\_ speak\_eth\_, or speak\_s\_, the \_men\_

speak, \_I\_ sp\_oke\_; The speak\_er\_ speak\_s\_ another speak\_er's\_ spe\_ech\_.

The third part of Etymology, which is intimately connected with the

second, will be more amply expanded in Lecture XIV, and in the

Philosophical notes; but I shall not treat largely of that branch of

derivation which consists in tracing words to foreign languages. This is

the province of the lexicographer, rather than of the philologist. It is

not the business of him who writes a practical, English grammar, to

trace words to the Saxon, nor to the Celtic, the Greek, the Dutch, the

Mexican, nor the Persian; nor is it his province to explain their

meaning in Latin, French, or Hebrew, Italian, Mohegan, or Sanscrit; but

it is his duty to explain their properties, their powers, their

connexions, relations, dependancies, and, bearings, not at the period in

which the Danes made an irruption into the island of Great Britain, nor

in the year in which Lamech paid his addresses to Adah and Zillah, but

\_at the particular period in which he writes\_. His words are already

derived, formed, established, and furnished to his hand, and he is bound

to take them and explain them as he finds them \_in his day\_, without any

regard to their ancient construction and application.

CLASSIFICATION. In arranging the parts of speech, I conceive it to be

the legitimate object of the practical grammarian, to consult \_practical

convenience\_. The true principle of classification seems to be, not a

reference to essential differences in the \_primitive\_ meaning of words,

nor to their original combinations, but to the \_manner in which they are

at present employed\_. In the early and rude state of society, mankind

are quite limited in their knowledge, and having but few ideas to

communicate, a small number of words answers their purpose in the

transmission of thought. This leads them to express their ideas in

short, detached sentences, requiring few or none of those \_connectives\_,

or words of transition, which are afterwards introduced into language by

refinement, and which contribute so largely to its perspicuity and

elegance. The argument appears to be conclusive, then, that every

language must necessarily have more parts of speech in its refined, than

in its barbarous state.

The part of speech to which any word belongs, is ascertained, not by the

\_original\_ signification of that word, but by its present \_manner\_ of

meaning, or, rather, \_the office which it performs in a sentence\_.

The various ways in which a word is applied to the idea which it

represents, are called its \_manner of meaning\_. Thus, The painter dips

his \_paint\_ brush in \_paint\_, to \_paint\_ the carriage. Here, the word

\_paint\_, is first employed to \_describe\_ the brush which the painter

uses; in this situation it is, therefore, an \_adjective\_; secondly, to

\_name\_ the mixture employed; for which reason it is a \_noun\_; and,

lastly, to \_express the action\_ performed; it therefore, becomes a

\_verb\_; and yet, the meaning of the word is the same in all these

applications. This meaning, however, is applied in different ways; and

thus the same word becomes different parts of speech. Richard took

\_water\_ from the \_water\_ pot, to \_water\_ the plants.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats, first, of the \_classification\_ of words.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE is derived chiefly from the Saxon, Danish, Celtic,

and Gothic; but in the progressive stages of its refinement, it has been

greatly enriched by accessions from the Greek, Latin, French, Spanish,

Italian, and German languages.

The number of words in our language, after deducting proper names, and

words formed by the inflections of our verbs, nouns, and adjectives, may

be estimated at about \_forty thousand\_. There are ten sorts of words,

called parts of speech, namely, the NOUN or SUBSTANTIVE, VERB, ARTICLE,

ADJECTIVE, PARTICIPLE, ADVERB, PREPOSITION, PRONOUN, CONJUNCTION, and

INTERJECTION.

Thus you perceive, that all the words in the English language are

included in these ten classes: and what you have to do in acquiring a

knowledge of English Grammar, is merely to become acquainted with these

ten parts of speech, and the rules of Syntax that apply to them. The

\_Noun\_ and \_Verb\_ are the most important and leading parts of speech;

therefore they are first presented: all the rest (except the

interjection) are either appendages or connectives of these two. As you

proceed, you will find that it will require more time, and cost you more

labor, to get a knowledge of the noun and verb, than it will to become

familiar with all the minor parts of speech.

The principal use of words is, to \_name\_ things, \_compare\_ them with

each other, and \_express their actions\_.

\_Nouns\_, which are the names of entities or things, \_adjectives\_ which

denote the comparisons and relations of things by describing them, and

expressing their qualities, and \_verbs\_, which express the actions and

being of things, are the only classes of words necessarily recognised

in a philosophical view of grammar. But in a treatise which consults,

mainly, the \_practical\_ advantages of the learner, it is believed, that

no classification will be found more convenient or accurate than the

foregoing, which divides words into ten sorts. To attempt to prove, in

this place, that nothing would be gained by adopting either a less or a

greater number of the parts of speech, would be anticipating the

subject. I shall, therefore, give my reasons for adopting this

arrangement in preference to any other, as the different sorts of words

are respectively presented to you, for then you will be better prepared

to appreciate my arguments.

OF NOUNS.

A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, \_man, Charleston,

knowledge\_.

Nouns are often improperly called \_substantives\_. A substantive is the

name of a \_substance\_ only; but a noun is the name either of a

\_substance\_ or a \_quality\_.

\_Noun\_, derived from the Latin word \_nomen\_, signifies \_name\_. The name

of any thing [1] that exists, whether animate or inanimate, or

which we can see, hear, feel, taste, smell, or think of, is a noun.

\_Animal, bird, creature, paper, pen, apple, fold, house, modesty,

virtue, danger\_, are all nouns. In order that you may easily distinguish

this part of speech from others, I will give you a \_sign\_, which will be

useful to you when you cannot tell it by the \_sense\_. Any word that will

make sense with \_the\_ before it, is a noun. Try the following words by

this sign, and see if they are nouns: tree, mountain, soul, mind,

conscience, understanding. \_The\_ tree, \_the\_ mountain, \_the\_ soul, and

so on. You perceive, that they will make sense with \_the\_ prefixed;

therefore you know they are \_nouns\_. There are, however, exceptions to

this rule, for some nouns will not make sense with \_the\_ prefixed. These

you will be able to distinguish, if you exercise your mind, by their

\_making sense of themselves\_; as, \_goodness, sobriety, hope,

immortality\_.

[1] The word \_thing\_, from the Saxon verb \_thingian\_, to think, is

almost unlimited in its meaning. It may be applied to every animal

and creature in the universe. By the term creature, I mean that

which has been created; as, a dog, water, dirt. This word is also

frequently applied to actions; as, "To get drunk is a beastly

\_thing\_." In this phrase, it signifies neither animal nor creature;

but it denotes merely an action; therefore this action is the thing.

Nouns are used to denote the nonentity or absence of a thing, as well as

its reality; as, \_nothing, naught, vacancy, non-existence,

invisibility\_.

Nouns are sometimes used as verbs, and verbs, as nouns, according to

their \_manner\_ of meaning; and nouns are sometimes used as adjectives,

and adjectives, as nouns. This matter will be explained in the

concluding part of this lecture, where you will be better prepared to

comprehend it.

NOUNS are of two kinds, common and proper.

A \_Common noun\_ is the name of a sort or species of things; as, \_man,

tree, river\_.

A \_Proper noun\_ is the name of an individual; as, \_Charles, Ithaca,

Ganges\_.

A noun signifying many, is called a \_collective noun\_, or \_noun of

multitude\_; as, the \_people\_, the \_army\_.

The distinction between a common and a proper noun, is very obvious. For

example: \_boy\_ is a common noun, because it is a name applied to \_all\_

boys; but \_Charles\_ is a proper noun, because it is the name of an

\_individual\_ boy. Although many boys may have the same name, yet you

know it is not a common noun, for the name Charles is \_not\_ given to all

boys. \_Mississippi\_ is a proper noun, because it is the name of an

individual river; but \_river\_ is a common noun, because it is the name

of a \_species\_ of things, and the name \_river\_ is common to \_all\_

rivers.

Nouns which denote the genus, species, or variety of beings or things,

are always common; as, \_tree\_, the genus; \_oak, ash, chestnut, poplar\_,

different species; and red \_oak\_, white \_oak\_, black \_oak\_, varieties.

The word earth, when it signifies a kind or quantity of dirt, is a

common noun; but when it denotes the planet we inhabit, it is a proper

noun. The \_words\_ person, place, river, mountain, lake, &c. are \_common

nouns\_, because they are the names of whole \_species\_, or classes of

things containing many sorts; but the \_names\_ of persons, places,

rivers, mountains, lakes, &c. are \_proper nouns\_, because they denote

\_individuals\_; as, Augustus, Baltimore, Alps, Huron.

\_Physician, lawyer, merchant\_, and \_shoemaker\_, are common nouns,

because these names are common to classes of men. \_God\_ and \_Lord\_, when

applied to Jehovah or Jesus Christ, are proper; but when employed to

denote heathen or false \_gods\_, or temporal \_lords\_, they are common.

The Notes and remarks throughout the work, though of minor importance,

demand your attentive and careful perusal.

NOTES.

1. When \_proper\_ nouns have an article annexed to them, they are

used after the manner of \_common\_ nouns; as, "Bolivar is styled

\_the\_ Washington of South America."

2. \_Common\_ nouns are sometimes used to signify \_individuals\_, when

articles or pronouns are prefixed to them; as, "\_The\_ boy is

studious; \_That\_ girl is discreet." In such instances, they are

nearly equivalent to proper nouns.

3. \_Common\_ nouns are sometimes subdivided into the following

classes: \_Nouns of Multitude\_; as, The people, the parliament:

\_Verbal or participial nouns\_; as, The beginning, reading, writing;

and \_Abstract nouns\_, or the names of qualities abstracted from

their substances; as, knowledge, virtue, goodness. Lest the student

be led to blend the idea of abstract nouns with that of adjectives,

both of which denote qualities, a farther illustration appears to be

necessary, in order to mark the distinction between these two parts

of speech. An abstract noun denotes a quality considered \_apart\_

(that is, abstracted) \_from\_ the substance or being to which it

belongs; but an adjective denotes a quality \_joined\_ (adjected) \_to\_

the substance or being to which it belongs. Thus, \_whiteness\_ and

\_white\_ both denote the same quality; but we speak of whiteness as a

distinct object of thought, while we use the word \_white\_ always in

reference to the noun to which it belongs; as, \_white\_ paper,

\_white\_ mouse.

4. Some authors have proceeded to still more minute divisions and

sub-divisions of nouns; such, for example, as the following, which

appear to be more complex than useful: \_Natural nouns\_, or names of

things formed by nature; as, man, beast, water, air: 2. \_Artificial

nouns\_, or names of things formed by art; as, book, vessel, house:

3. \_Personal nouns\_, or those which stand for human beings; as, man,

woman, Edwin: 4. \_Neuter nouns\_, or those which denote things

inanimate; as, book, field, mountain, Cincinnati. The following,

however, is quite a rational division: \_Material nouns\_ are the

names of things formed of matter; as, stone, book: \_Immaterial

nouns\_ are the names of things having no substance; as, hope,

immortality.

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

GENDER.

GENDER is the distinction of sex. Nouns have three genders, the

masculine, the feminine, and the neuter.

The \_masculine gender\_ denotes males; as, a \_man\_, a \_boy\_.

The \_feminine gender\_ denotes females; as, a \_woman\_, a \_girl\_.

The \_neuter gender\_ denotes things without sex; as, a \_hat\_, a \_stick\_.

\_Neuter\_ means \_neither:\_ therefore neuter gender signifies neither

gender; that is, neither masculine nor feminine. Hence, neuter gender

means \_no gender\_. Strictly speaking, then, as there are but two sexes,

nouns have but \_two\_ genders; but for the sake of practical convenience,

we apply to them three genders, by calling that a gender which is \_no\_

gender. The English and the pure Persian, appear to be the only

languages which observe, in the distinction of sex, the natural division

of nouns.--The genders of nouns are so easily known, that a farther

explanation of them is unnecessary, except what is given in the

following

NOTES.

1. The same noun is sometimes masculine \_and\_ feminine, and

sometimes masculine \_or\_ feminine. The noun \_parents\_ is of the

masculine \_and\_ feminine gender. The nouns \_parent, associate,

neighbor, servant, friend, child, bird, fish, &c.\_ if doubtful, are

of the masculine \_or\_ feminine gender.

2. Some nouns naturally neuter, are, when used figuratively, or

\_personified\_, converted into the masculine or feminine gender.

Those nouns are generally rendered masculine, which are conspicuous

for the attributes of imparting or communicating, and which are by

nature strong and efficacious; as, the \_sun, time, death, sleep,

winter, &c.\_ Those, again, are generally feminine, which are

conspicuous for the attributes of containing or bringing forth, or

which are very beautiful, mild, or amiable; as, the \_earth, moon,

church, boat, vessel, city, country, nature, ship, soul, fortune,

virtue, hope, spring, peace, &c.\_ This principle for designating the

sex of a personified object, which is quite rational, is generally

adhered to in the English language; but, in some instances, the poet

applies the sex according to his fancy.

The masculine and feminine genders are distinguished in three ways:

1. \_By different words\_; as,

\_Masculine\_. \_Feminine\_.

Bachelor maid

Boar sow

Boy girl

Brother sister

Buck doe

Bull cow

Cock hen

Dog bitch

Drake duck

Earl countess

Father mother

Friar nun

Gander goose

Hart roe

Horse mare

Husband wife

King queen

Lad lass

Lord lady

Man woman

Master mistress

Milter spawner

Nephew niece

Ram ewe

Singer songstress or singer

Sloven slut

Son daughter

Stag hind

Uncle aunt

Wizard witch

Sir madam

2. \_By a difference in termination\_; as,

Abbot abbess

Actor actress

Administrator administratrix

Adulterer adulteress

Ambassador ambassadress

Arbiter arbitress

Auditor auditress

Author authoress

Baron baroness

Benefactor benefactress

Bridegroom bride

Canon canoness

Caterer cateress

Chanter chantress

Conductor conductress

Count countess

Czar czarina

Deacon deaconess

Detracter detractress

Director directress

Duke dutchess

Elector electress

Embassador embassadress

Emperor emperess

Enchanter enchantress

Executor executrix

Fornicator fornicatress

God goddess

Governor governess

Heir heiress

Hero heroine

Host hostess

Hunter huntress

Inheritor inheritress or inheritrix

Instructor instructress

Jew Jewess

Lion lioness

Marquis marchioness

Mayor mayoress

Patron patroness

Peer peeress

Poet poetess

Priest priestess

Prince princess

Prior prioress

Prophet prophetess

Proprietor proprietress

Protector protectress

Shepherd shepherdess

Songster songstress

Sorcerer sorceress

Suiter suitress

Sultan sultaness or sultana

Tiger tigress

Testator testatrix

Traitor traitress

Tutor tutoress

Tyrant tyranness

Victor victress

Viscount viscountess

Votary votaress

Widower widow

3. \_By prefixing another word\_; as,

A cock-sparrow A hen-sparrow

A man-servant A maid-servant

A he-goat A she-goat

A he-bear A she-bear

A male-child A female-child

Male-descendants Female-descendants

PERSON.

PERSON is a property of the noun and pronoun which varies the verb.

The \_first person\_ denotes the speaker.

The \_second person\_ denotes the person or thing spoken to; as, "Listen,

\_earth!"\_

The \_third person\_ denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, "The

\_earth\_ thirsts."

Nouns have but \_two\_ persons, the second and third. When a man speaks,

the \_pronoun I\_ or \_we\_ is always used; therefore nouns can never be in

the \_first\_ person. In examples like the following, some philologists

suppose the noun to be in the \_first\_ person:--"This may certify, that

I, \_Jonas Taylor\_, do hereby give and grant," &c. But it is evident,

that the speaker or writer, in introducing his own name, speaks \_of\_

himself; consequently the noun is of the \_third person\_.

If you wish to understand the persons of nouns, a little sober thought

is requisite; and, by exercising it, all difficulties will be removed.

If I say, my \_son\_, have you seen the young man? you perceive that the

noun \_son\_ is of the \_second\_ person, because I address myself \_to\_ him;

that is, he is spoken \_to;\_ but the noun \_man\_ is of the \_third\_

person, because he is spoken \_of\_. Again, if I say, young \_man\_, have

you seen my son? \_man\_ is of the \_second\_ person, and \_son\_ is of the

\_third\_.

"Hast thou left thy blue course in the heavens, golden-haired \_sun\_ of

the sky?"

"\_Father\_, may the Great Spirit so brighten the chain of friendship

between us, that a child may find it, when the sun is asleep in his

wig-wam behind the western waters."

"Lo, earth receives him from the bending skies!

Sink down, ye \_mountains\_, and, ye \_valleys\_, rise!"

"Eternal \_Hope\_, thy glittering wings explore

Earth's loneliest bounds, and ocean's wildest shore."

In these examples, the nouns, sun, father, mountains, valleys, and hope,

are of the \_second\_ person, and, as you will hereafter learn, in the

nominative case independent. Course, heavens, sky, Spirit, chain,

friendship, child, sun, wig-wam, waters, earth, skies, wings, earth,

bounds, ocean, and shore, are all of the \_third\_ person.

NUMBER.

Number is the distinction of objects, as one or more. Nouns are of two

numbers, the singular and the plural.

The \_singular\_ number implies but one; as, a \_book\_.

The \_plural\_ number implies more than one; as, \_books\_.

NOTES.

1. Some nouns are used only in the singular form; as, hemp, flax,

barley, wheat, pitch, gold, sloth, pride, honesty, meekness,

compassion, &c.; others only in the plural form; as, bellows,

scissors, ashes, riches, snuffers, tongs, thanks, wages, embers,

ides, pains, vespers, &c.

2. Some words are the same in both numbers; as, deer, sheep, swine;

and, also, hiatus, apparatus, series, species.

3. The plural number of nouns is generally formed by adding \_s\_ to

the singular; as, dove, doves; face, faces; but sometimes we add

\_es\_ in the plural; as, box, boxes; church, churches; lash, lashes;

cargo, cargoes.

4. Nouns ending in \_f\_ or \_fe\_, are rendered plural by a change of

that termination into \_ves\_; as, half, halves; wife, wives: except

grief, relief, reproof, and several others, which form their plurals

by the addition of \_s\_. Those ending in \_ff\_, have the regular

plural; as, ruff, ruffs; except staff, staves.

5. Nouns ending in \_y\_ in the singular, with no other vowel in the

same syllable, change it into \_ies\_ in the plural; as, beauty,

beauties; fly, flies. But the \_y\_ is not changed, where there is

another vowel in the syllable; as, key, keys; delay, delays;

attorney, attorneys; valley, valleys; chimney, chimneys.

6. \_Mathematics, metaphysics, politics, optics, ethics, pneumatics,

hydraulics\_, &c. are construed either as singular or plural nouns.

7. The word \_news\_ is always singular. The nouns \_means, alms\_, and

\_amends\_, though plural in form, may be either singular or plural in

signification. Antipodes, credenda, literati, and minutiæ are

always plural. \_Bandit\_ is now used as the singular of Banditti.

8. The following nouns form their plurals not according to any

general rule; thus, man, men; woman, women; child, children; ox,

oxen; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; foot, feet; mouse, mice; louse,

lice; brother, brothers or brethren; cow, cows or kine; penny,

pence, or pennies when the coin is meant; die, dice \_for play,\_

dies \_for coining;\_ pea and fish, pease and fish when the species

is meant, but \_peas\_ and \_fishes\_ when we refer to the number; as,

six \_peas\_, ten \_fishes\_.

9. The following compounds form their plurals thus: handful,

handfuls; cupful, cupfuls; spoonful, spoonfuls:--brother-in-law,

brothers-in-law; court-martial, courts-martial.

The following words form their plurals according to the rules of the

languages from which they are adopted.

\_Singular\_ \_Plural.\_

Antithesis antitheses

Apex apices

Appendix appendixes \_or\_ appendices

Arcanum arcana

Automaton automata

Axis axes

Basis bases

Beau beaux \_or\_ beaus

Calx calces \_or\_ calxes

Cherub cherubim \_or\_ cherubs

Crisis crises

Criterion criteria

Datum data

Diæresis diæreses

Desideratum desiderata

Effluvium effluvia

Ellipsis ellipses

Emphasis emphases

Encomium encomia \_or\_ encomiums

Erratum errata

Genius genii [2]

Genus genera

Hypothesis hypotheses

Ignis fatuus, ignes fatui

Index indices \_or\_ indexes [3]

Lamina laminae

Magus magi

Memorandum memoranda \_or\_ memorandums

Metamorphosis metamorphoses

Parenthesis parentheses

Phenomenon phenomena

Radius radii \_or\_ radiuses

Stamen stamina

Seraph seraphim \_or\_ seraphs

Stimulus stimuli

Stratum strata

Thesis theses

Vertex vertices

Vortex vortices \_or\_ vortexes

[2] Genii, imaginary spirits: geniuses, persons of great mental

abilities.

[3] Indexes, when pointers or tables of contents are meant: indices,

when referring to algebraic quantities.

CASE.

Case, when applied to nouns and pronouns, means the different state,

situation, or position they have in relation to other words. Nouns have

three cases, the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

I deem the essential qualities of \_case\_, in English, to consist, not in

the \_changes\_ or \_inflections\_ produced on nouns and pronouns, but in

the various offices which they perform in a sentence, by assuming

different positions in regard to other words. In accordance with this

definition, these cases can be easily explained on reasoning

principles, founded in the nature of things.

Now, five grains of common sense will enable any one to comprehend what

is meant by case. Its real character is extremely simple; but in the

different grammars it assumes as many meanings as Proteus had shapes.

The most that has been written on it, however, is mere verbiage. What,

then, is meant by \_case\_? In speaking of a horse, for instance, we say

he is in a good \_case\_, when he is fat, and in a bad \_case\_, when he is

lean, and needs more oats; and in this sense we apply the term \_case\_ to

denote the \_state\_ or \_condition\_ of the horse. So, when we place a noun

before a verb as actor or subject, we say it is in the \_nominative

case\_; but when it follows a transitive verb or preposition, we say it

has another \_case\_; that is, it assumes a new \_position\_ or \_situation\_

in the sentence: and this we call the \_objective\_ case. Thus, the \_boy\_

gathers fruit. Here the boy is represented as \_acting\_. He is,

therefore, in the \_nominative\_ case. But when I say, Jane struck the

\_boy\_, I do not represent the boy as the \_actor\_, but as the \_object\_ of

the action. He is, therefore, in a new \_case\_ or \_condition\_. And when I

say, This is the \_boy's\_ hat, I do not speak of the boy either as

\_acting\_ or as \_acted upon\_; but as possessing something: for which

reason he is in the \_possessive\_ case. Hence, it is clear, that nouns

have three cases or positions.

As the nominative and objective cases of the noun are inseparably

connected with the verb, it is impossible for you to understand them

until you shall have acquired some knowledge of this part of speech. I

will, therefore, now give you a partial description of the verb in

connexion with the noun; which will enable me to illustrate the cases of

the noun so clearly, that you may easily comprehend their nature.

In the formation of language, mankind, in order to hold converse with

each other, found it necessary, in the first place, to give \_names\_ to

the various objects by which they were surrounded. Hence the origin of

the first part of speech, which we denominate the \_noun\_. But merely to

name the objects which they beheld or thought of, was not sufficient for

their purpose. They perceived that these objects existed, moved, acted,

or caused some action to be done. In looking at a man, for instance,

they perceived that he lived, walked, ate, smiled, talked, ran, and so

on. They perceived that plants grow, flowers bloom, and rivers flow.

Hence the necessity of another part of speech, whose office it should be

to express these existences and actions. This second class of words we

call

VERBS.

A verb is a word which signifies to BE, to DO, or to SUFFER; as, I \_am\_;

I \_rule\_; I \_am ruled\_.

Verbs are of three kinds, active, passive, and neuter. They are also

divided into regular, irregular, and defective.

The term \_verb\_ is derived from the Latin word \_verbum\_, which signifies

a \_word\_. This part of speech is called a \_verb\_ or \_word\_, because it

is deemed the most important word in every sentence: and without a verb

and nominative, either expressed or implied, no sentence can exist. The

noun is the original and leading part of speech; the verb comes next in

order, and is far more complex than the noun. These two are the most

useful in the language, and form the basis of the science of grammar.

The other eight parts of speech are subordinate to these two, and, as

you will hereafter learn, of minor importance.

For all practical purposes, the foregoing definition and division of the

verb, though, perhaps, not philosophically correct, will be found as

\_convenient\_ as any other. I adopt them, therefore, to be consistent

with the principle, that, in arranging the materials of this treatise, I

shall not alter or reject any established definition, rule, or principle

of grammar, unless, in my humble judgment, some \_practical advantage\_ to

the learner is thereby gained. The following, some consider a good

definition.

A VERB is a word which \_expresses affirmation\_.

An \_active verb\_ expresses action; and

The \_nominative case\_ is the actor, or subject of the verb; as, \_John

writes\_.

In this example, which is the \_verb?\_ You know it is the word \_writes\_,

because this word signifies to \_do;\_ that is, it expresses \_action\_,

therefore, according to the definition, it is an \_active verb\_. And you

know, too, that the noun \_John\_ is the \_actor\_, therefore John is in the

\_nominative case\_ to the verb writes. In the expressions, The man

walks--The boy plays--Thunders roll--- Warriors fight--you perceive that

the words \_walks, plays, roll\_, and \_fight\_, are \_active verbs;\_ and you

cannot be at a loss to know, that the nouns \_man, boy, thunders\_, and

\_warriors\_, are in the \_nominative case.\_

As no \_action\_ can be produced without some agent or moving cause, it

follows, that every active verb must have some \_actor\_ or \_agent\_. This

\_actor, doer\_, or \_producer of the action\_, is the nominative.

\_Nominative\_, from the Latin \_nomino\_, literally signifies to \_name;\_

but in the technical sense in which it is used in grammar, it means the

noun or pronoun which is the \_subject\_ of affirmation. This subject or

nominative may be \_active, passive\_, or \_neuter\_, as hereafter

exemplified.

A \_neuter verb\_ expresses neither action nor passion, but \_being\_, or \_a

state of being\_; as, \_John sits\_.

Now, in this example, \_John\_ is not represented as \_an actor\_, but, as

the \_subject\_ of the verb \_sits\_, therefore John is in the \_nominative

case\_ to the verb. And you know that the word \_sits\_ does not express

\_apparent action\_, but a \_condition of being;\_ that is, it represents

John in a particular \_state of existence;\_ therefore \_sits\_ is a \_neuter

verb\_. In speaking of the neuter gender of nouns, I informed you, that

\_neuter\_ means \_neither;\_ from which it follows, that neuter gender

implies neither gender; that is, neither masculine nor feminine. Hence,

by an easy transition of thought, you learn, that \_neuter\_, when applied

to verbs, means neither of the other two classes; that is, a \_neuter\_

verb is one which is neither active nor passive. In these examples, The

man stands--The lady lives--The child sleeps--The world exists--the

words \_stands, lives, sleeps\_, and \_exists\_, are \_neuter verbs;\_ and the

nouns, \_man, lady, child\_, and \_world\_, are all in the \_nominative

case\_, because each is the \_subject\_ of a verb. Thus you perceive, that

when a noun is in the nominative case to an \_active\_ verb, it is the

\_actor;\_ and when it is nominative to a \_neuter\_ verb, it is \_not\_ an

actor, but the \_subject\_ of the verb.

Some neuter verbs express \_being in general;\_ as, The man \_is\_; Kingdoms

\_exist\_. Others express \_being in some particular state\_; as, The man

\_stands, sits, lies\_, or \_hangs\_.

I will now give you two \_signs\_, which will enable you to distinguish

the verb from other parts of speech, when you cannot tell it by its

signification. Any word that will make sense with \_to\_ before it, is a

verb. Thus, to run, to write, to smile, to sing, to hear, to ponder, to

live, to breathe, are verbs. Or, any word that will \_conjugate\_, is a

verb. Thus, I run, thou runnest, he runs; I write, thou writest, he

writes; I smile, &c. But the words, boy, lady, child, and world, will

not make sense with \_to\_ prefixed--\_to\_ boy, \_to\_ lady, \_to\_ world, is

nonsense. Neither will they con\_jugate\_--I lady, thou ladiest, &c. is

worse than nonsense. Hence you perceive, that these words are \_not\_

verbs. There are some exceptions to these rules, for verbs are sometimes

used as nouns. This will be explained by and by.

To verbs belong \_number, person, mood\_, and \_tense\_.

At present I shall speak only of the number and person of verbs; but

hereafter I will give you a full explanation of all their properties.

And permit me to inform you, that I shall not lead you into the

\_intricacies\_ of the science, until, by gradual and easy progressions,

you are enabled to comprehend the principles involved in them. Only such

principles will be elucidated, as you are prepared to understand at the

time they are unfolded before you. You must not be too anxious to get

along \_rapidly\_; but endeavor to become thoroughly acquainted with one

principle, before you undertake another. This lecture will qualify you

for the next.

NUMBER AND PERSON OF VERBS. You recollect, that the nominative is the

\_actor\_ or \_subject\_, and the active verb is the \_action\_ performed by

the nominative. By this you perceive, that a very intimate connexion or

relation exists between the nominative case and the verb. If, therefore,

only \_one\_ creature or thing acts, only \_one\_ action, at the same

instant, can be done; as, The \_girl writes\_. The nominative \_girl\_ is

here of the singular number, because it signifies but one person; and

the verb \_writes\_ denotes but one action, which the girl performs;

therefore the verb \_writes\_ is of the \_singular\_ number, agreeing with

its nominative \_girl\_. When the nominative case is \_plural\_, the verb

must be \_plural\_; as, \_girls write\_. Take notice, the \_singular\_ verb

ends in \_s\_, but the noun is generally \_plural\_ when it ends in \_s\_;

thus, The girl \_writes\_--the \_girls\_ write.

\_Person\_, strictly speaking, is a quality that belongs \_not\_ to \_verbs\_,

but to nouns and pronouns. We say, however, that the verb must agree

with its nominative in \_person\_, as well as in number; that is, the verb

must be spelled and spoken in such a manner as to correspond with the

\_first, second\_, or \_third\_ person of the noun or pronoun which is its

nominative.

I will now show you how the verb is varied in order to agree with its

nominative in number and person. I, Thou, He, She, It; We, Ye or You,

They, are \_personal pronouns\_. \_I\_ is of the \_first\_ person, and

\_singular\_ number; \_Thou\_ is \_second\_ person, \_sing.\_; \_He, She\_, or

\_It\_, is \_third\_ per. \_sing.\_; \_We\_ is \_first\_ per. \_plural\_; \_Ye\_ or

\_You\_ is \_second\_ per. \_plural\_; \_They\_ is \_third\_ per. \_plural\_. These

pronouns are the representatives of nouns, and perform the same office

that the nouns would for which they stand. When placed before the verb,

they are, therefore, the \_nominatives\_ to the verb.

Notice particularly, the different variations or endings of the verb, as

it is thus conjugated in the INDICATIVE MOOD, PRESENT TENSE.

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. \_Per\_. I walk, 1. \_Per\_. We Walk,

2. \_Per\_. Thou walk\_est\_, 2. \_Per\_. Ye \_or\_ you walk,

3. \_Per\_. He walk\_s\_, \_or\_ 3. \_Per\_. They walk, or

the boy walk\_s\_, the boys walk.

\_or\_ walk\_eth\_.

This display of the verb shows you, that whenever it ends in \_est\_, it

is of the \_second\_ person \_singular\_; but when the verb ends in \_s\_, or

\_eth\_, it is of the \_third\_ person singular. \_Walkest, ridest,

standest\_, are of the second person singular; and \_walks\_ or \_walketh,

rides\_ or \_rideth, stands\_ or \_standeth\_, are of the third person

singular.

I have told you, that when the nominative is singular number, the verb

must be; when the nominative is plural, the verb must be; and when the

nominative is first, second, or third person, the verb must be of the

same person. If you look again at the foregoing conjugation of \_walk\_,

you will notice that the verb varies if its endings in the \_singular\_,

in order to agree in \_form\_ with the first, second, and third person of

its nominative; but in the \_plural\_ it does not vary its endings from

the first person singular. The verb, however, agrees in \_sense\_ with its

nominative in the plural, as well as in the singular. Exercise a little

mind, and you will perceive that \_agreement\_ and \_government\_ in

language do not consist \_merely\_ in the \_form\_ of words. Now, is it not

clear, that when I say, I \_walk\_, the verb walk is \_singular\_, because

it expresses but \_one\_ action? And when I say, Two men \_walk\_, is it not

equally apparent, that walk is \_plural\_, because it expresses \_two\_

actions? In the sentence, Ten men \_walk\_, the verb \_walk\_ denotes \_ten\_

actions, for there are ten actors. Common sense teaches you, that there

must be as many \_actions\_ as there are \_actors\_; and that the verb, when

it has \_no form\_ or \_ending\_ to show it, is as strictly plural, as when

it has.--So, in the phrase, \_We\_ walk, the verb walk is \_first\_ person,

because it expresses the actions performed by the \_speakers: Ye\_ or

\_you\_ walk, the verb is \_second\_ person, denoting the actions of the

persons \_spoken to;\_ third person, \_They\_ walk. The verb, then, when

correctly written, always agrees, in \_sense\_, with its nominative in

number and person.

At present you are learning two parts of speech, neither of which can be

understood without a knowledge of the other. It therefore becomes

necessary to explain them both, in the same lecture. You have been

already informed, that nouns have three cases; the nominative, the

possessive, and the objective.

POSSESSIVE CASE. The \_possessive case\_ denotes the possessor of

something; as, This is \_John's\_ horse. This expression implies, that

\_John\_ is the \_owner\_ or \_possessor\_ of the horse; and, that horse is

the \_property\_ which he possesses.

When I say, These are the \_men's\_, and those, the \_boys'\_ hats, the two

words, "boys' hats," plainly convey the idea, if they have any meaning

at all, that the boys \_own\_ or \_possess\_ the hats. "Samuel Badger sells

\_boys'\_ hats." Who \_owns\_ the hats? Mr. Badger. How is that fact

ascertained? Not by the words, "boys' hats," which, taken by themselves,

imply, not that they are \_Mr. Badger's\_ hats, nor that they are \_for\_

boys, but that they are hats \_of\_, or \_belonging to\_, or \_possessed by\_

boys. But we \_infer\_ from the \_words connected\_ with the phrase, "boys'

hats," that the boys are not yet, as the phrase literally denotes, in

the actual possession of the hats. The possession is anticipated.

In the phrases, \_fine\_ hats, \_coarse\_ hats, \_high-crowned\_ hats,

\_broad-brimmed\_ hats, \_woollen, new, ten, some, these, many\_ hats, the

words in italics, are adjectives, because they restrict, qualify, or

define the term \_hats;\_ but the term \_boys'\_ does not \_describe\_ or

limit the meaning of \_hats. Boys'\_, therefore, is not, as some suppose,

an adjective.

"The \_slave's\_ master." Does the slave possess the master? Yes. The

slave \_has\_ a master. If he \_has\_ him, then, he \_possesses\_ him;--he

sustains that relation to him which we call possession.

A noun in the possessive case, is always known by its having an

apostrophe, and generally an \_s\_ after it; thus, \_John's\_, hat; the

\_boy's\_ coat. When a plural noun in the possessive case, ends in \_s\_,

the apostrophe is added, but no additional \_s\_; as, "\_Boys'\_ hats;

\_Eagles'\_ wings." When a singular noun ends in \_ss\_, the apostrophe

only is added; as, "For \_goodness'\_ sake; for \_righteousness'\_ sake;"

except the word witness; as, "The \_witness's\_ testimony." When a noun in

the possessive case ends in \_ence\_, the \_s\_ is omitted, but the

apostrophe is retained; as, "For \_conscience'\_ sake."

Now please to turn back, and read over this and the preceding lecture

\_three\_ times, and endeavor, not only to understand, but, also, to

\_remember\_, what you read. In reading, proceed thus: read one sentence

over slowly, and then look off the book, and repeat it two or three

times over in your mind. After that, take another sentence and proceed

in the same manner, and so on through the whole lecture. Do not presume

to think, that these directions are of no real consequence to you; for,

unless you follow them strictly, you need not expect to make rapid

progress. On the other hand, if you proceed according to my

instructions, you will be sure to acquire a practical knowledge of

grammar in a short time.--When you shall have complied with this

requisition, you may commit the following \_order of parsing a noun\_, and

\_the order of parsing a verb\_; and then you will be prepared to parse or

analyze the following examples.

ANALYSIS, OR PARSING.

Do you recollect the meaning of the word \_analysis?\_ If you do not, I

will explain if: and first, I wish you to remember, that analysis is the

reverse of synthesis. \_Synthesis\_ is the act of combining simples so as

to form a whole or compound. Thus, in putting together letters so as to

form syllables, syllables so as to form words, words so as to form

sentences, and sentences so as to form a discourse, the process is

called synthetic. \_Analysis\_, on the contrary, is the act of

decomposition; that is, the act of separating any thing compounded into

its simple parts, and thereby exhibiting its elementary principles.

Etymology treats of the analysis of language. To analyze a sentence, is

to separate from one another and classify the different words of which

it is composed; and to analyze or \_parse\_ a word, means to enumerate and

describe all its various properties, and its grammatical relations with

respect to other words in a sentence, and trace it through all its

inflections or changes. Perhaps, to you, this will, at first, appear to

be of little importance; but, if you persevere, you will hereafter find

it of great utility, for parsing will enable you to detect, and correct,

errors in composition.

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

The \_order of parsing\_ a NOUN, is--a noun, and why?--common, proper, or

collective, and why?--gender, and why?--person, and why?--number, and

why?--case, and why?--RULE:--decline it.

\_The order of parsing\_ a VERB, is--a verb, and why?--active, passive,

or neuter, and why?--if \_active\_--transitive or intransitive, and

why?--if \_passive\_--how is it formed?--regular, irregular, or defective,

and why?--mood, and why?--tense, and why?--person and number, and

why?--with what does it agree?--RULE:--conjugate it.

I will now parse two nouns according to the order, and, in so doing, by

applying the definitions and rules, I shall answer all those questions

given in the order. If you have \_perfectly committed\_ the order of

parsing a noun and verb, you may proceed with me; but, recollect, you

cannot parse a verb \_in full\_, until you shall have had a more complete

explanation of it.

\_John's hand trembles\_.

\_John's\_ is a noun, [because it is] the name of a person--proper, the

name of an individual--masculine gender, it denotes a male--third

person, spoken of--singular number, it implies but one--and in the

possessive case, it denotes possession--it is governed by the noun

"hand," according to

RULE 12. \_A noun or pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the

noun it possesses\_.

Declined--Sing. nom. John, poss. John's, obj. John. Plural--nom.

Johns, poss. Johns', obj. Johns.

\_Hand\_ is a noun, the name of a thing--common, the name of a sort or

species of things--neuter gender, it denotes a thing without sex--third

person, spoken of--sing. number, it implies but one--and in the

nominative case, it is the actor and subject of the verb "trembles," and

governs it agreeably to

RULE 3. \_The nominative case governs the verb:\_--that is, the nominative

determines the number and person of the verb.

Declined--Sing. nom. hand, poss. hand's, obj. hand. Plur. nom. hands,

poss. hands', obj. hands.

\_Trembles\_ is a verb, a word which signifies to do--active, it expresses

action--third person, singular number, because the nominative "hand" is

with which it agrees, according to

RULE 4. \_The verb must agree with its nominative in number and person\_.

You must not say that the verb is of the third person because \_it is

spoken of\_. The verb is never spoken of; but it is of the third person,

and singular or plural number, because its nominative is.

Conjugated--First pers. sing. I tremble, 2 pers. thou tremblest, 3 pers.

he trembles, or, the hand trembles. Plural, 1 pers. we tremble, 2 pers.

ye or you tremble, 3 pers. they or the hands tremble.

Government, in language, consists in the power which one word has over

another, in causing that other word to be in some \_particular case,

number, person, mood\_, or \_tense\_.

ILLUSTRATION.

RULE 3. \_The nominative case governs the verb\_.

If you employ the pronoun \_I\_, which is of the \_first\_ person, singular

number, as the nominative to a verb, the verb must be of the first pers.

sing, thus, I \_smile\_; and when your nominative is \_second\_ pers. sing,

your verb must be; as, thou smil\_est\_. Why, in the latter instance, does

the ending of the verb change to \_est\_? Because the nominative changes.

And if your nominative is \_third\_ person, the verb will vary again;

thus, he smiles, the man smiles. How clear it is, then, that \_the

nominative governs the verb\_; that is, the nominative has power to

change the \_form\_ and \_meaning\_ of the verb, in respect to num. and

person. Government, thus far, is evinced in the \_form\_ of the words, as

well as in the sense.

RULE 4. \_The verb must agree with its nominative in number and person\_.

It is improper to say, thou \_hear\_, the men \_hears\_. Why improper?

Because \_hear\_ is \_first\_ pers. and the nominative \_thou\_ is \_second\_

pers. \_Hears\_ is singular, and the nom. \_men\_ is \_plural\_. Rule 4th

says, \_The verb must agree with its nominative\_. The expressions should,

therefore, be, thou hear\_est\_, the men \_hear\_; and then the verb would

\_agree\_ with its nominatives. But \_why\_ must the verb agree with its

nominative? Why must we say, thou talk\_est\_, the man talks, men \_talk\_?

Because the genius of our language, and the common consent of those who

speak it, \_require\_ such a construction: and this \_requisition\_ amounts

to a \_law\_ or \_rule\_. This \_rule\_, then, is founded in \_the nature of

things\_, and sanctioned by \_good usage\_.

RULE 12. \_A noun or pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the

noun which it possesses\_.

It is correct to say, The \_man\_ eats, \_he\_ eats; but we cannot say, the

\_man\_ dog eats, \_he\_ dog eats. Why not? Because the man is here

represented as the \_possessor\_, and \_dog\_, the \_property\_, or \_thing

possessed\_; and the genius of our language requires, that when we add to

the possessor, the \_thing\_ which he is represented as possessing, the

possessor shall take a particular form to show its \_case\_, or \_relation

to the property\_; thus, The \_man's\_ dog eats, \_his\_ dog eats. You

perceive, then, that the \_added\_ noun, denoting the thing possessed, has

power \_to change the form\_ of the noun or pronoun denoting the

possessor, according to RULE 12. thus, by adding dog in the preceding

examples, \_man\_ is changed to \_man's\_, and \_he\_, to \_his\_.

Now parse the sentence which I have parsed, until the manner is quite

familiar to you; and then you will be prepared to analyze correctly and

\_systematically\_, the following exercises. When you parse, you may

spread the Compendium before you; and, if you have not already committed

the definitions and rules, you may read them on that, as you apply them.

This mode of procedure will enable you to learn \_all\_ the definitions

and rules by applying them to practice.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Rain descends--Rains descend--Snow falls--Snows fall--Thunder

rolls--Thunders roll--Man's works decay--Men's labors cease--John's dog

barks--Eliza's voice trembles--Julia's sister's child improves--Peter's

cousin's horse limps.

In the next place, I will parse a noun and a \_neuter\_ verb, which verb,

you will notice, differs from an active only in one respect.

\_"Birds repose\_ on the branches of trees."

\_Birds\_ is a noun, the name of a thing or creature--common, the name of

a genus or class--masculine and feminine gender, it denotes both males

and females--third person, spoken of--plural number, it implies more

than one--and in the nominative case, it is the \_subject\_ of the verb

"repose," and governs it according to RULE 3. \_The nominative case

governs the verb\_. Declined--Sing. nom. bird, poss. bird's, obj. bird.

Plural, nom. birds, poss. birds', obj. birds.

\_Repose\_ is a verb, a word that signifies to \_be\_--neuter, it expresses

neither action nor passion, but a state of being--third person, plural

number, because the nominative "birds" is with which it agrees,

agreeably to RULE 4. \_The verb must agree with its nominative in number

and person\_.

Declined--1. pers. sing. I repose, 2. pers. thou reposest, 3. pers. he

reposes, or the bird reposes. Plur. 1. pers. we repose, 2. pers. ye or

you repose, 3. pers. they repose, or birds repose.

Now parse those nouns and neuter verbs that are distinguished by

\_italics\_, in the following

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The \_book lies\_ on the desk--The \_cloak hangs\_ on the wall--\_Man's days

are\_ few--\_Cathmor's warriors sleep\_ in death--\_Caltho reposes\_ in the

narrow house--Jocund \_day stands\_ tiptoe on the misty mountain tops. The

\_sunbeams rest\_ on the grave where her \_beauty sleeps\_.

You may parse these and the preceding exercises, and all that follow,

\_five or six times over\_, if you please.

OBJECTIVE CASE.--ACTIVE-TRANSITIVE VERBS.

The \_objective\_ case expresses the object of an action or of a

relation. It generally follows a transitive verb, a participle, or a

preposition.

A noun is in the objective case when it is the \_object\_ of something. At

present I shall explain this case only as the object of an \_action\_; but

when we shall have advanced as far as to the preposition, I will also

illustrate it as the object of a \_relation\_.

An active verb is \_transitive\_ when the action passes over from the

subject or nominative to an object; as, Richard \_strikes\_ John.

\_Transitive\_ means \_passing\_. In this sentence the action of the verb

\_strikes\_ is \_transitive\_, because it \_passes over\_ from the nominative

Richard to the object John; and you know that the noun John is in the

\_objective\_ case, because it is \_the object of the action\_ expressed by

the active-transitive verb strikes. This matter is very plain. For

example: Gallileo invented the telescope. Now it is evident, that

Gallileo did not exert his powers of invention, without some object in

view. In order to ascertain that object, put the question, Gallileo

invented what? The telescope. \_Telescope\_, then, is the real object of

the action, denoted by the transitive verb invented; and, therefore,

telescope is in the objective case. If I say, The horse \_kicks\_ the

servant--Carpenters \_build\_ houses--Ossian \_wrote\_ poems--Columbus

\_discovered\_ America--you readily perceive, that the verbs \_kick, build,

wrote\_, and \_discovered\_, express transitive actions; and you cannot be

at a loss to tell which nouns are in the objective case:--they are

\_servant, houses, poems\_, and \_America\_.

The nominative and objective cases of nouns are generally known by the

following rule: the nominative \_does something\_; the objective \_has

something done to it\_. The nominative generally comes \_before\_ the verb;

and the objective, \_after\_ it. When I say, George struck the servant,

\_George\_ is in the nominative, and \_servant\_ is in the objective case;

but, when I say, The servant struck George, \_servant\_ is in the

nominative case, and \_George\_ is in the objective. Thus you perceive,

that \_Case\_ means the different state or situation of nouns with regard

to other words.

It is sometimes very difficult to tell the case of a noun. I shall,

therefore, take up this subject again, when I come to give you an

explanation of the participle and preposition.

Besides the three cases already explained, nouns are sometimes in the

nominative case \_independent\_, sometimes in the nominative case

absolute, sometimes in apposition in the same case, and sometimes in the

nominative or objective case after the neuter to \_be\_, or after an

active-intransitive or passive verb. These cases are illustrated in

Lecture X. and in the 21 and 22 rules of Syntax.

ACTIVE-INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

An active verb is \_transitive\_, when the action terminates on an object:

but

An active verb is \_intransitive\_, when the action does \_not\_ terminate

on an object; as, John \_walks\_.

You perceive that the verb \_walks\_, in this example, is \_intransitive\_,

because the action does not pass over to an object; that is, the action

is confined to the agent John. The following \_sign\_ will generally

enable you to distinguish a \_transitive\_ verb from an \_intransitive\_.

Any verb that will make sense with the words \_a thing\_ or \_a person\_,

after it, is \_transitive\_. Try these verbs by the sign, \_love, help,

conquer, reach, subdue, overcome\_. Thus, you can say, I love \_a person\_

or \_thing\_--I can help \_a person\_ or \_thing\_--and so on. Hence you know

that these verbs are transitive. But an intransitive verb will not make

sense with this sign, which fact will be shown by the following

examples: \_smile, go, come, play, bark, walk, fly\_. We cannot say, if we

mean to speak English, I smile a \_person\_ or \_thing\_--I go \_a person\_ or

\_thing\_:--hence you perceive that these verbs are not transitive, but

intransitive.

If you reflect upon these examples for a few moments, you will have a

clear conception of the nature of transitive and intransitive verbs.

Before I close this subject, however, it is necessary farther to remark,

that some transitive and intransitive verbs express what is called a

\_mental\_ or \_moral\_ action; and others, a \_corporeal\_ or \_physical\_

action. Verbs expressing the different affections or operations of the

mind, denote moral actions; as, Brutus \_loved\_ his country; James

\_hates\_ vice; We \_believe\_ the tale:--to \_repent\_, to \_relent\_, to

\_think\_, to \_reflect\_, to \_mourn\_, to \_muse\_. Those expressing the

actions produced by matter, denote physical actions; as, The \_dog hears\_

the bell; Virgil \_wrote\_ the Aenead; Columbus \_discovered\_ America;--to

\_see\_, to \_feel\_, to \_taste\_, to \_smell\_, to \_run\_, to \_talk\_, to \_fly\_,

to \_strike\_. In the sentence, Charles \_resembles\_ his father, the verb

\_resembles\_ does not appear to express any action at all; yet the

construction of the sentence, and the office which the verb performs,

are such, that we are obliged to parse it as an \_active-transitive\_

verb, governing the noun \_father\_ in the objective case. This you may

easily reconcile in your mind, by reflecting, that the verb has a

\_direct reference\_ to its object. The following verbs are of this

character: \_Have, own, retain\_; as, I \_have\_ a book.

Active \_in\_transitive verbs are frequently made \_transitive\_. When I

say, The birds \_fly\_, the verb \_fly\_ is \_in\_transitive; but when I say,

The boy \_flies\_ the kite, the verb \_fly\_ is \_transitive\_, and governs

the noun \_kite\_ in the objective case. Almost any active intransitive

verb, and sometimes even neuter verbs, are used as transitive. The horse

\_walks\_ rapidly; The boy \_runs\_ swiftly; My friend \_lives\_ well; The man

\_died\_ of a fever. In all these examples the verbs are \_in\_transitive;

in the following they are \_transitive\_: The man \_walks\_ his horse; The

boy \_ran\_ a race; My friend \_lives\_ a holy life; Let me \_die\_ the death

of the righteous.

The foregoing development of the character of verbs, is deemed

sufficiently critical for practical purposes; but if we dip a little

deeper into the verbal fountain, we shall discover qualities which do

not appear on its surface. If we throw aside the veil which art has

drawn over the real structure of speech, we shall find, that almost

every verb has either a \_personal\_ or a \_verbal\_ object, expressed or

implied. Verbal objects, which are the \_effects\_ or \_productions\_

resulting from the actions, being necessarily implied, are seldom

expressed.

The fire \_burns\_. If the fire burns, it must burn \_wood, coal, tallow\_,

or some other combustible substance. The man \_laughs\_. Laughs what?

Laughs \_laughter\_ or \_laugh\_. They \_walk\_; that is, They walk or take

\_walks\_. Rivers flow (move or roll \_them-selves\_ or their \_waters\_)

into the ocean.

"I \_sing\_ the shady \_regions\_ of the west."

"And \_smile\_ the \_wrinkles\_ from the brow of age."

The child \_wept itself\_ sick; and then, by taking (or \_sleeping\_) a

short \_nap\_, it \_slept itself\_ quiet and well again. "He will soon

\_sleep\_ his everlasting \_sleep"\_; that is, "He will \_sleep\_ the \_sleep\_

of death."

Thinkers think \_thoughts\_; Talkers talk or employ \_words, talk,\_ or

\_speeches\_; The rain rains \_rain\_. "Upon Sodom and Gomorrah the Lord

\_rained fire\_ and \_brimstone\_." "I must \_go\_ the whole \_length\_." "I

shall soon \_go\_ the \_way\_ of all the earth."

Now please to turn back again, and peruse this lecture attentively;

after which you may parse, systematically, the following exercises

containing nouns in the three cases, and active-transitive verbs.

The printer \_prints\_ books.

\_Prints\_ is a verb, a word that signifies to do--active, it expresses

action--transitive, the action passes over from the nominative "printer"

to the object "books"--third pers. sing. numb. because the nominative

printer is with which it agrees.

RULE 4. \_The verb must agree with its nominative case in number and

person\_.

Declined--1. pers. sing. I print, 2. pers. thou printest, 3. pers. he

prints, or the printer prints, and so on.

\_Books\_ is a noun, the name of a thing--common, the name of a sort of

things,--neut. gend. it denotes a thing without sex--third pers. spoken

of--plur. num. it implies more than one--and in the objective case, it

is the object of the action, expressed by the active-transitive verb

"prints," and is governed by it according to

RULE 20. \_Active-transitive verbs govern the objective case\_.

The noun \_books\_ is thus declined--Sing. nom. book, poss. book's, obj.

book--Plur. nom. books, poss. books', obj. books.

RULE 20. Transitive verbs \_govern\_ the objective case; that is, they

\_require\_ the noun or pronoun following them to be in that case; and

this requisition is government. Pronouns have a particular \_form\_ to

suit each case; but nouns have not. We cannot say, She \_struck he\_; I

gave the book \_to they\_. Why not? Because the genius of our language

requires the pronoun following a transitive verb or preposition (\_to\_ is

a preposition) to assume that \_form\_ which we call the \_objective\_ form

or case. Accordingly, the construction should be, She struck \_him\_; I

gave the book to \_them\_.--Read, again, the illustration of "government"

on page 52.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

\_Nom. case.--Trans. verb--Poss. case--Obj. case.\_

Julius prints childrens' primers.

Harriet makes ladies' bonnets.

The servant beats the man's horse.

The horse kicks the servant's master.

The boy struck that man's child.

The child lost those boys' ball.

The tempest sunk those merchants' vessels.

Pope translated Homer's Illiad.

Cicero procured Milo's release.

Alexander conquered Darius' army.

Perry met the enemy's fleet.

Washington obtained his country's freedom.

NOTE 1. The words \_the, that, those\_, and \_his\_, you need not parse.

2. A noun in the possessive case, is sometimes governed by a noun

understood; as, Julia's lesson is longer than John's [lesson.]

As you have been analyzing nouns in their three cases, it becomes

necessary to present, in the next place, the declension of nouns, for

you must decline every noun you parse. \_Declension\_ means putting a noun

through the different cases: and you will notice, that the possessive

case varies from the nominative in its termination, or ending, but the

\_objective\_ case ends like the nominative. The nominative and objective

cases of nouns, must, therefore, be ascertained by their situation in

the sentence, or by considering the office they perform.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

SING. PLUR.

\_Nom.\_ king kings

\_Poss.\_ king's kings'

\_Obj.\_ king. kings.

\_Nom.\_ man men

\_Poss.\_ man's men's

\_Obj.\_ man. men.

Now, if you have parsed every word in the preceding examples, (except

\_the, that, those\_, and \_his\_) you may proceed with me and parse the

examples in the following exercises, in which are presented nouns and

active-intransitive verbs.

"My \_flock increases\_ yearly."

\_Flock\_ is a noun, a name denoting animals--a noun of multitude, it

signifies many in one collective body--masculine and feminine gender,

denoting both sexes--third person, spoken of--singular number, it

denotes but one flock--and in the nominative case, it is the active

agent of the verb "increases," and governs it, according to RULE 3, \_The

nominative case governs the verb\_. (Decline it.)

\_Increases\_ is a verb, a word that signifies to do--active, it expresses

action--intransitive, the action does not pass over to an object--of the

third person, singular number, because its nominative "flock" conveys

\_unity\_ of idea, and it agrees with "flock" agreeably to

RULE 10. \_A noun of multitude conveying\_ unity \_of idea, must have a

verb or pronoun agreeing with it in the singular\_.

"The divided \_multitude\_ hastily \_disperse\_."

\_Multitude\_ is a noun, a name that denotes persons--a collective noun,

or noun of multitude, it signifies many--masculine and feminine gender,

it implies both sexes--third person, spoken of--singular number, it

represents but one multitude, or collective body; (but in another sense,

it is plural, as it conveys plurality of idea, and, also, implies more

\_individuals\_ than one;)--and in the nominative case, it is the actor

and subject of the verb "disperse," which it governs, according to RULE

3. \_The nom. case governs the verb\_.--Declined.--Sing. nom. multitude,

poss. multitude's, obj. multitude--Plur. nom. multitudes, poss.

multitudes', obj. multitudes.

\_Disperse\_ is a verb, a word that signifies to do--active, it expresses

action--intransitive, the action does not terminate on an object--third

person, plural number, because its nominative "multitude" conveys

plurality of idea; and it agrees with "multitude" agreeably to RULE 11.

\_A noun of multitude conveying plurality of idea, must have a verb or

pronoun agreeing with it in the plural.\_

Rules 10, and 11, rest on a sandy foundation. They appear not to be

based on the principles of the language; and, therefore, it might,

perhaps, be better to reject than to retain them. Their application is

quite limited. In many instances, they will not apply to nouns of

multitude. The existence of such a thing as "unity or plurality of

idea," as applicable to nouns of this class, is \_doubtful\_. It is just

as correct to say, "The \_meeting was\_ divided in \_its\_ sentiments," as

to say, "The \_meeting were\_ divided in \_their\_ sentiments." Both are

equally supported by the genius of the language, and by the power of

custom. It is correct to say, either that, "The \_fleet were\_ dispersed;"

"The \_council were\_ unanimous;" "The \_council were\_ divided;" or that,

"The \_fleet was\_ dispersed;" "The \_council was\_ unanimous;" "The

\_council was\_ divided." But, perhaps for the sake of euphony, in some

instances, custom has decided in favor of a singular, and in others, of

a plural construction, connected with words of this class. For example;

custom gives a preference to the constructions, "My \_people do\_ not

consider;" "The \_peasantry go\_ barefoot;" "The \_flock is\_ his object;"

instead of, "\_My people doth\_ not consider;" "The \_peasantry goes\_

barefoot;" "The \_flock are\_ his object." In instances like these, the

application of the foregoing rules \_may\_ be of some use; but the

constructions in which they do not apply, are probably more numerous

than those in which they do.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Nom. case. Intran. verb. Nom. case. Intran. verb.

Men labor. The sun sets.

Armies march. The moon rises.

Vessels sail. The stars twinkle.

Birds fly. The rain descends.

Clouds move. The river flows.

Multitudes perish. The nation mourns.

Your improvement in grammar depends, not on the number of words which

you parse, but on the \_attention\_ which you give the subject. \_You may

parse the same exercises several times over.\_

For the gratification of those who prefer it, I here present another

DIVISION OF VERBS.

Verbs are of two kinds, transitive and intransitive.

A verb is transitive when the action affects an object; as, "Earthquakes

\_rock\_ kingdoms; thrones and palaces \_are shaken\_ down; and potentates,

princes, and subjects, \_are buried\_ in one common grave."

The nominative to a passive verb, is the \_object\_, but not the \_agent\_,

of the action.

A verb is intransitive when it has no object; as, "The waters \_came\_

upon me;" "I \_am\_ he who \_was\_, and \_is\_, and \_is\_ to \_come\_."

As an exercise on what you have been studying, I will now put to you a

few questions, all of which you ought to be able to answer before you

proceed any farther.

QUESTIONS NOT ANSWERED IN PARSING.

With what two general divisions of grammar does the second lecture

begin?--Of what does Etymology treat?--Of what does Syntax treat?--On

what is based the true principle of classification?--How do you

ascertain the part of speech to which a word belongs?--What is meant by

its \_manner\_ of meaning?--Name the ten parts of speech.--Which of these

are considered the most important?--By what sign may a noun be

distinguished?--How many kinds of nouns are there?--What belong to

nouns?--What is gender?--How many genders have nouns?--What is

person?--How many persons have nouns?--What is number?--How many numbers

have nouns?--What is case?--How many cases have nouns?--Does case

consist in the \_inflections\_ of a noun?--How many kinds of verbs are

there?--By what sign may a verb be known?--What belong to verbs?--What

is synthesis?--What is analysis?--What is parsing?--Repeat the order of

parsing the noun.--Repeat the order of parsing the verb.--What rule do

you apply in parsing a noun in the possessive case?--What rule, in

parsing a noun in the nominative case?--What rule applies in parsing a

verb?--What is meant by government?--Explain rules 3, 4, and 12.--By

what rule are the nominative and objective cases of nouns known?--By

what sign can you distinguish a transitive from an intransitive

verb?--Do transitive verbs ever express a \_moral\_ action?--Are

intransitive and neuter verbs ever used as transitive?--Give some

examples of transitive verbs with \_personal\_ and \_verbal\_ objects.--What

rule do you apply in parsing a noun in the objective case?--Explain rule

20.--In parsing a verb agreeing with a noun of multitude conveying

\_plurality\_ of idea, what rule do you apply?

\* \* \* \* \*

QUESTIONS ON THE NOTES.

Whether the learner be required to answer the following questions, or

not, is, of course, left \_discretionary\_ with the teacher. The author

takes the liberty to suggest the expediency of \_not\_, generally,

enforcing such a requisition, \_until the pupil goes through the book a

second time.\_

Name some participial nouns.--What are abstract nouns?--What is the

distinction between abstract nouns and adjectives?--What are natural

nouns?--Artificial nouns?--What is the distinction between \_material\_

and \_immaterial\_ nouns?--Are nouns ever of the masculine and feminine

gender?--Give examples.--When are nouns, naturally neuter, converted

into the masculine or feminine gender?--Give examples.--Speak some nouns

that are always in the singular number.--Some that are always

plural.--Speak some that are in the same form in both numbers.--Name

\_all\_ the various ways of forming the plural number of nouns.--Of what

number are the nouns \_news, means, alms\_, and \_amends\_?--Name the

plurals to the following compound nouns, \_handful, cupful, spoonful,

brother-in-law, court-martial\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

NOTES ON PHILOSOPHICAL GRAMMAR.

Perhaps no subject has, in this age, elicited more patient research,

and critical investigation of original, constituent principles,

formations, and combinations, than the English language. The

legitimate province of philology, however, as I humbly conceive,

has, in some instances, been made to yield to that of philosophy, so

far as to divert the attention from the combinations of our language

which refinement has introduced, to radical elements and

associations which no way concern the progress of literature, or the

essential use for which language was intended. Were this

retrogressive mode of investigating and applying principles, to

obtain, among philologists, the ascendency over that which

accommodates the use of language to progressive refinement, it is

easy to conceive the state of barbarism to which society would, in a

short time, be reduced. Moreover, if what some call the philosophy

of language, were to supersede, altogether, the province of

philology as it applies to the present, progressive and refined

state of English literature, the great object contemplated by the

learned, in all ages, namely, the approximation of language, in

common with every thing else, to that point of perfection at which

it is the object of correct philology to arrive, would be

frustrated.

The dubious and wildering track struck out by those innovators and

visionaries who absurdly endeavor to teach modern English, by

rejecting the authority and sanction of custom, and by conducting

the learner back to the original combinations, and the detached,

disjointed, and barbarous constructions of our progenitors, both

prudence and reason, as well as a due regard for correct philology,

impel me to shun. Those modest writers who, by bringing to their aid

a little sophistry, much duplicity, and a wholesale traffic in the

swelling phrases, "philosophy, reason, and common sense," attempt to

overthrow the wisdom of former ages, and show that the result of all

the labors of those distinguished philologists who had previously

occupied the field of grammatical science, is nothing but error and

folly, will doubtless meet the neglect and contempt justly merited

by such consummate vanity and unblushing pedantry. Fortunately for

those who employ our language as their vehicle of mental conference,

custom will not yield to the speculative theories of the visionary.

If it would, improvement in English literature would soon be at an

end, and we should be tamely conducted back to the Vandalic age.

As the use of what is commonly called the philosophy of language, is

evidently misapplied by those who make it the test of \_grammatical

certainty\_, it may not be amiss to offer a few considerations with a

view to expose the fallacy of so vague a criterion.

All reasoning and investigation which depend on the philosophy of

language for an ultimate result, must be conducted \_a posteriori\_.

Its office, according to the ordinary mode of treating the subject,

is to trace language to its origin, not for the purpose of

determining and fixing grammatical associations and dependances,

such as the agreement, government, and mutual relations of words,

but in order to analyze combinations with a view to develop the

first principles of the language, and arrive at the primitive

meaning of words. Now, it is presumed, that no one who has paid

critical attention to the subject, will contend, that the original

import of single words, has any relation to the syntactical

dependances and connexions of words in general;--to gain a knowledge

of which, is the leading object of the student in grammar. And,

furthermore, I challenge those who have indulged in such useless

vagaries, to show by what process, with their own systems, they can

communicate a practical knowledge of grammar. I venture to predict,

that, if they make the attempt, they will find their systems more

splendid in theory, than useful in practice.

Again, it cannot rationally be contended, that the radical meaning

has any efficiency in controlling the signification which, by the

power of association, custom has assigned to many words;--a

signification \_essentially different\_ from the original import. Were

this the case, and were the language now to be taught and understood

in compliance with the original import of words, it would have to

undergo a thorough change; to be analyzed, divided, and sub-divided,

almost \_ad infinitum\_. Indeed, there is the same propriety in

asserting that the Gothic, Danish, and Anglo-Saxon elements in our

language, ought to be pronounced separately, to enable us to

understand our vernacular tongue, that there is in contending, that

their primitive meaning has an ascendency over the influence of the

principle of association in changing, and the power of custom in

determining, the import of words. Many of our words are derived from

the Greek, Roman, French, Spanish, Italian, and German languages;

and the only use we can make of their originals, is to render them

subservient to the force of custom in cases in which general usage

has not varied from the primitive signification. Moreover, let the

advocates of a mere philosophical investigation of the language,

extend their system as far as a radical analysis will warrant them,

and, with Horne Tooke, not only consider adverbs, prepositions,

conjunctions, and interjections, as abbreviations of nouns and

verbs, but, on their own responsibility, apply them, in teaching the

language, \_in compliance with their radical import\_, and what would

such a course avail them against the power of custom, and the

influence of association and refinement? Let them show me one

grammarian, produced by such a course of instruction, and they will

exhibit a "philosophical" miracle. They might as well undertake to

teach architecture, by having recourse to its origin, as

represented by booths and tents. In addition to this, when we

consider the great number of obsolete words, from which many now in

use are derived, the original meaning of which cannot be

ascertained, and, also, the multitude whose signification has been

changed by the principle of association, it is preposterous to

think, that a mere philosophical mode of investigating and teaching

the language, is the one by which its significancy can be enforced,

its correctness determined, its use comprehended, and its

improvement extended. Before what commonly passes for a

philosophical manner of developing the language can successfully be

made the medium through which it can be comprehended, in all its

present combinations, relations, and dependances, it must undergo a

thorough retrogressive change, in all those combinations, relations,

and dependances, even to the last letter of the alphabet. And before

we can consent to this radical modification and retrograde ratio of

the English language, we must agree to revive the customs, the

habits, and the precise language of our progenitors, the Goths and

Vandals. Were all the advocates for the introduction of such

philosophical grammars into common schools, at once to enter on

their pilgrimage, and recede into the native obscurity and barbarity

of the ancient Britons, Picts, and Vandals, it is believed, that the

cause of learning and refinement would not suffer greatly by their

loss, and that the good sense of the present age, would not allow

many of our best teachers to be of the party.

The last consideration which I shall give a philosophical manner of

investigating and enforcing the English language, is, that by this

mode of analyzing and reducing it to practice, \_it cannot, in this

age, be comprehended\_ as the medium of thought. Were this method to

prevail, our present literal language would become a dead letter. Of

what avail is language, if it can not be understood? And how can it

be accommodated to the understanding, unless it receive the sanction

of common consent? Even if we admit that such a manner of unfolding

the principles of our language, is more rational and correct than

the ordinary, practical method, I think it is clear that such a mode

of investigation and development, does not meet the necessities and

convenience of ordinary learners in school. To be consistent, that

system which instructs by tracing a few of our words to their

origin, must unfold the whole in the same manner. But the student in

common schools and academies, cannot afford time to stem the tide of

language up to its source, and there dive to the bottom of the

fountain for knowledge. Such labor ought not to be required of him.

His object is to become, not a philosophical antiquarian, but a

practical grammarian. If I comprehend the design (if they have any)

of our modern philosophical writers on this subject, it is to make

grammarians by inculcating a few general principles, arising out of

the genius of the language, and the nature of things, which the

learner, by the exercise of his \_reasoning powers\_, must reduce to

practice. His own judgment, \_independent of grammar rules\_, is to be

his guide in speaking and writing correctly. Hence, many of them

exclude from their systems, all exercises in what is called \_false

Syntax\_. But these profound philological dictators appear to have

overlooked the important consideration, that the great mass of

mankind, and especially of boys and girls in common schools, \_can

never become philosophers;\_ and, consequently, can never comprehend

and reduce to practice their metaphysical and obscure systems of

grammar. I wish to see children treated as \_reasoning\_ beings. But

there should be a medium in all things. It is, therefore, absurd to

instruct children as if they were already profound philosophers and

logicians.

To demonstrate the utility, and enforce the necessity, of exercising

the learner in correcting \_false Syntax\_, I need no other argument

than the interesting and undeniable fact, that Mr. Murray's labors,

in this department, have effected a complete revolution in the

English language, in point of verbal accuracy. Who does not know,

that the best writers of this day, are not guilty of \_one\_

grammatical inaccuracy, where those authors who wrote before Mr.

Murray flourished, are guilty of \_five\_? And what has produced this

important change for the better? Ask the hundreds of thousands who

have studied "Mr. Murray's exercises in FALSE SYNTAX." If, then,

this view of the subject is correct, it follows, that the greater

portion of our philosophical grammars, are far more worthy the

attention of literary connoisseurs, than of the great mass of

learners.

Knowing that a strong predilection for philosophical grammars,

exists in the minds of some teachers of this science, I have thought

proper, for the gratification of such, to intersperse through the

pages of this work under the head of "PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES," an

entire system of grammatical principles as deduced from what appears

to me to be the most rational and consistent philosophical

investigations. They who prefer this theory to that exhibited in the

body of the work, are, of course, at liberty to adopt it.

\_In general, a philosophical theory of grammar will be found to

accord with the practical theory embraced in the body of this work.

Wherever such agreement exists, the system contained in these NOTES

will be deficient, and this deficiency may be supplied by adopting

the principles contained in the other parts of the work\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

According to the method in which philosophical investigations of

language have generally been conducted, all our words should be

reduced to two classes; for it can be easily shown, that from the

noun and verb, all the other parts of speech have sprung. Nay, more.

They may even be reduced to one. Verbs do not, in reality, \_express\_

actions; but they are intrinsically the mere \_names\_ of actions. The

idea of action or being communicated by them, as well as the

\_meaning\_ of words in general, is merely \_inferential\_. The

principle of reasoning assumed by the celebrated Horne Tooke, if

carried to its full extent, would result, it is believed, in proving

that we have but one part of speech.

\_Adnouns\_ or \_adjectives\_ were originally nouns. \_Sweet, red,

white\_, are the \_names\_ of qualities, as well as \_sweetness,

redness, whiteness\_. The former differ from the latter only in their

\_manner\_ of signification. To denote that the name of some quality

or substance is to be used in connexion with some other name, or,

that this quality is to be \_attributed\_ to some other name, we

sometimes affix to it the termination \_en, ed\_, or \_y;\_ which

signifies \_give, add,\_ or \_join\_. When we employ the words wood\_en\_,

wooll\_en\_, wealth\_y\_, grass\_y\_, the terminations \_en\_ and \_y\_, by

their own intrinsic meaning, give notice that we intend to \_give,

add, or join\_, the names of some other substances in which are found

the properties or qualities of \_wood, wool, wealth\_, or \_grass\_.

\_Pronouns\_ are a class of nouns, used instead of others to prevent

their disagreeable repetition. Participles are certain forms of the

verb. Articles, interjections, adverbs, prepositions, and

conjunctions, are contractions of abbreviations of nouns and verbs.

\_An\_ (\_a, one\_, or \_one\_) comes from \_ananad\_, to add, to heap.

\_The\_ and \_that\_, from the Anglo-Saxon verb \_thean\_, to get, assume.

\_Lo\_ is the imperative of \_look\_; \_fy\_, of \_fian\_, to hate; and

\_welcome\_ means, it is \_well\_ that you are \_come. In\_ comes from the

Gothic noun \_inna\_, the interior of the body; and \_about\_, from

\_boda\_, the first outward boundary. \_Through\_ or \_thorough\_ is the

Teutonic noun \_thuruh\_, meaning passage, gate, door. \_From\_ is the

Anglo-Saxon noun \_frum\_, beginning, source, author. He came \_from

(beginning)\_ Batavia. \_If\_ (formerly written \_gif, give, gin\_) is

the imperative of the Anglo-Saxon verb \_gifan\_, to give. I will

remain \_if\_ (\_give\_ or \_grant that fact\_) he will (\_remain\_.) \_But\_

comes from the Saxon verb \_beon-utan\_, to be-out. I informed no one

\_but (be-out, leave-out)\_ my brother.

This brief view of the subject, is sufficient to elucidate the

manner in which, according to Horne Tooke's principles, the ten

parts of speech are reduced to one. But I am, by no means, disposed

to concede, that this is the \_true\_ principle of classification; nor

that it is any more \_philosophical\_ or \_rational\_ than one which

allows a more practical division and arrangement of words. What has

been generally received as "philosophical grammar," appears to

possess no stronger claims to that imposing appellation than our

common, practical grammars. Query. Is not Mr. Murray's octavo

grammar more worthy the dignified title of a "Philosophical

Grammar," than Horne Tooke's "Diversions of Purley," or William S.

Cardell's treatises on language? What constitutes a \_philosophical\_

treatise, on this, or on any other subject? \_Wherein\_ is there a

display of philosophy in a speculative, etymological performance,

which attempts to develop and explain the elements and primitive

meaning of words by tracing them to their origin, \_superior\_ to the

philosophy employed in the development and illustration of the

principles by which we are governed in applying those words to their

legitimate purpose, namely, that of forming a correct and convenient

medium by means of which we can communicate our thoughts? Does

philosophy consist in ransacking the mouldy records of antiquity, in

order to \_guess\_ at the ancient construction and signification of

single words? or have such investigations, in reality, any thing to

do with \_grammar\_?

Admitting that all the words of our language include, in their

\_original\_ signification, the import of nouns or names, and yet, it

does not follow, that they \_now\_ possess no other powers, and, in

their combinations and connexions in sentences, are employed for no

other purpose, than \_barely\_ to \_name objects\_. The \_fact\_ of the

case is, that words are variously combined and applied, to answer

the distinct and diversified purposes of \_naming\_ objects,

\_asserting\_ truths, \_pointing out\_ and \_limiting\_ objects,

\_attributing qualities\_ to objects, \_connecting\_ objects, and so on;

and on this \_fact\_ is founded the \_true philosophical principle of

the classification of words\_. Hence, an arrangement of words into

classes according to this principle, followed by a development and

illustration of the principles and rules that regulate us in the

proper use and application of words in oral and written discourse,

appears to approximate as near to a true definition \_of

philosophical grammar\_, as any I am capable of giving.

\_Nouns\_, or the names of the objects of our perceptions, doubtless

constituted the original class of words; (if I may be allowed to

assume such a hypothesis as an \_original\_ class of words;) but the

ever-active principle of association, soon transformed nouns into

verbs, by making them, when employed in a particular manner,

expressive of affirmation. This same principle also operated in

appropriating names to the purpose of attributing qualities to other

names of objects; and in this way was constituted the class of words

called \_adjectives\_ or \_attributes\_. By the same principle were

formed all the other classes.

In the following exposition of English grammar on scientific

principles, I shall divide words into seven classes; \_Nouns\_ or

\_Names, Verbs, Adjectives, Adnouns\_, or \_Attributes, Adverbs,

Propositions, Pronouns\_, and \_Conjunctions\_ or \_Connectives\_.

For an explanation of the noun, refer to the body of the work.

\* \* \* \* \*

PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

Plausible arguments may be \_advanced\_, for rejecting \_neuter\_ and

passive verbs; but they have been found to be so convenient in

practice, that the theory which recognises them, has stood the test

of ages. If you tell the young learner, that, in the following

expressions, The church \_rests\_ on its foundation; The book \_lies\_

on the desk; The boys \_remain (are)\_ idle, the nouns \_church, book\_,

and \_boys\_, are represented as acting, and, therefore, the verbs

\_rests, lies, remain\_, and \_are\_, are \_active\_, he will not believe

you, because there is no action that is apparent to his senses. And

should you proceed further, and, by a labored and metaphysical

investigation and development of the laws of motion, attempt to

prove to him that "every portion of matter is influenced by

different, active principles, tending to produce change," and,

therefore, every thing in universal nature is \_always\_ acting, it is

not at all probable, that you could convince his \_understanding\_, in

opposition to the dearer testimony of his senses. Of what avail to

learners is a theory which they cannot comprehend?

Among the various theorists and speculative writers on philosophical

grammar, the ingenious Horne Tooke stands pre-eminent; but,

unfortunately, his principal speculations on the verb, have never

met the public eye. William S. Cardell has also rendered himself

conspicuous in the philological field, by taking a bolder stand than

any of his predecessors. His view of the verb is novel, and

ingeniously supported. The following is the substance of his theory

OF THE VERB.

A verb is a word which expresses \_action;\_ as, Man \_exists\_; Trees

\_grow\_; Waters\_flow\_; Mountains \_stand\_; I \_am\_.

All verbs are active, and have one object or more than one,

expressed or implied. The pillar \_stands\_; that is, it \_keeps

itself\_ in an erect or standing posture; it \_upholds\_ or \_sustains

itself\_ in that position. They \_are\_; i.e. they \_air\_ themselves, or

\_breathe\_ air; they \_inspirit, vivify\_, or \_uphold\_ themselves by

inhaling air.

Many verbs whose objects are seldom expressed, always have a persona

or verbal one implied. The clouds \_move\_; i.e. move \_themselves\_

along. The troops \_marched\_ twenty miles a day; i.e. marched

\_themselves\_. The moon \_shines\_:--The moon \_shines\_ or \_sheds\_ a

\_shining, sheen, lustre\_, or \_brightness\_. The sparrow

\_flies:--flies\_ or \_takes\_ a \_flight\_. Talkers talk or speak \_words\_

or \_talk\_; Walkers walk \_walkings\_ or \_walks\_; The rain rains

\_rain\_; Sitters sit or hold \_sittings\_ or \_sessions\_.

To prove that there is no such thing as a neuter verb, the following

appear to be the strongest arguments adduced.

1. No portion of matter is ever in a state of perfect quiescence;

but the component parts of every thing are at all times "influenced

by different, active principles, tending to produce change." Hence,

it follows, that no being or thing can be represented in a \_neuter\_

or \_non-acting state\_.

This argument supposes the essential character of the verb to be

identified with the primary laws of action, as unfolded by the

principles of physical science. The correctness of this position may

be doubted; but if it can be clearly demonstrated, that every

particle of matter is always in motion, it does not, by any means,

follow, that we cannot \_speak of\_ things in a state of quiescence.

What is \_false\_ in fact may be \_correct\_ in grammar. \_The point

contested, is not whether things always\_ act, \_but whether, when we

assert or affirm something respecting them, we always\_ represent

\_them as acting\_.

2. Verbs were \_originally\_ used to express the motions or changes of

things which produced obvious actions, and, by an easy transition,

were afterward applied, in the same way, to things whose actions

were not apparent. This assumption is untenable, and altogether

gratuitous.

3. Verbs called neuter are used in the imperative mood; and, as this

mood commands some one to \_do\_ something, any verb which adopts it,

must be active. Thus, in the common place phrases, "\_Be\_ there

quickly; \_Stand\_ out of my way; \_Sit\_ or \_lie\_ farther."

It is admitted that these verbs are here employed in an \_active\_

sense; but it is certain, that they are not used according to their

proper, \_literal\_ meaning. When I tell a man, \_literally\_, to

\_stand, sit\_, or \_lie\_, by \_moving\_ he would disobey me; but when I

say, "\_Stand\_ out of my way," I employ the neuter verb \_stand\_,

instead of the active verb \_move\_ or \_go\_, and in a correspondent

sense. My meaning is, \_Move\_ yourself out of my way; or \_take\_ your

\_stand\_ somewhere else. This, however, does not prove that \_stand\_

is properly used. If we choose to overstep the bounds of custom, we

can employ any \_word\_ in the language as an active-transitive verb.

\_Be, sit\_, and \_lie\_, may be explained in the same manner.

4. Neuter verbs are used in connexion with adverbs which express the

manner of \_action\_. They must, therefore, be considered active

verbs. The child \_sleeps soundly\_; He \_sits genteelly\_; They \_live

contentedly\_ and \_happily\_ together.

The class of verbs that are never employed as active, is small. By

using adverbs in connexion with verbs, we can fairly prove that some

verbs are \_not\_ active. It is incorrect to say, I am \_happily\_; They

were \_peacefully\_; She remains \_quietly\_; The fields appear

\_greenly\_. These verbs in their common acceptation, do not express

\_action\_; for which reason we say, I am \_happy\_; They are

\_peaceful\_; &c. But in the expressions, The child sleeps \_soundly\_;

She sits \_gracefully\_; They live \_happily\_ and \_contentedly\_; we

employ the verbs \_sleeps, sits\_, and \_live\_, in an active sense.

When no action is intended, we say, They live \_happy\_ and

\_contented\_.

If, on scientific principles, it can be proved that those verbs

generally denominated neuter, \_originally\_ expressed action, their

present, accepted meaning will still oppose the theory, for the

generality of mankind do not attach to them the idea of \_action\_.

Thus I have endeavored to present a brief but impartial abstract of

the \_modern\_ theory of the verb, leaving it with the reader to

estimate it according to its value.

To give a satisfactory definition of the verb, or such a one as

shall be found scientifically correct and unexceptionable, has

hitherto baffled the skill, and transcended the learning, of our

philosophical writers. If its essential quality, as is generally

supposed, is made to consist in \_expressing affirmation\_, it remains

still to be defined \_when\_ a verb \_expresses\_ affirmation. In

English, and in other languages, words appropriated to express

affirmation, are often used without any such force; our idea of

affirmation, in such instances, being the mere \_inference of

custom\_.

In the sentence,--"\_Think, love\_, and \_hate\_, denote moral actions,"

the words \_think, love\_, and \_hate\_, are nouns, because they are

mere \_names\_ of actions. So, when I say, "John, \_write\_--is an

irregular verb," the word \_write\_ is a noun; but when I say, "John,

\_write\_--your copy," \_write\_ is called a verb.

Why is this word considered a noun in one construction, and a verb

in the other, when both constructions, until you pass beyond the

word write, are exactly alike? If write does not \_express\_ action in

the former sentence, neither does it in the latter, for, in both, it

is introduced in the same manner. On scientific principles, \_write\_

must be considered a noun in the latter sentence, for it does not

\_express\_ action, or make an affirmation; but it merely \_names\_ the

action which I wish John to perform, and affirmation is the

\_inferential\_ meaning.

The verb in the infinitive, as well as in the imperative mood, is

divested of its affirmative or verbal force. In both these moods, it

is always presented in its \_noun-state\_.

If, after dinner, I say to a servant, "\_Wine,"\_ he infers, that I

wish him to bring me wine; but all this is not said. If I say,

\_Bring\_ some \_wine\_, he, in like manner, understands, that I wish

him to bring me wine; but all that is expressed, is the \_name\_ of

the action, and of the object of the action. In fact, as much is

done by \_inference\_, as by actual expression, in every branch of

language, for thought is too quick to be wholly transmitted by

words.

It is generally conceded, that the termination of our verbs, \_est,

eth, s, ed\_, and, also, of the other parts of speech, were

originally separate words of distinct meaning; and that, although

they have been contracted, and, by the refinement of language, have

been made to coalesce with the words in connexion with which they

are employed, yet, in their present character of terminations, they

retain their primitive meaning and force. To denote that a verbal

name was employed as a verb, the Saxons affixed to it a verbalizing

adjunct; thus, \_the\_ (to take, hold) was the noun-state of the verb;

and when they used it as a verb, they added the termination \_an\_;

thus, the\_an\_. The termination added, was a sign that \_affirmation\_

was intended. The same procedure has been adopted, and, in many

instances, is still practised, in our language. \_An\_, originally

affixed to our verbs, in the progress of refinement, was changed to

en, and finally dropped. A few centuries ago, the plural number of

our verbs was denoted by the termination, \_en\_; thus, they \_weren\_,

they \_loven\_; but, as these terminations do not supersede the

necessity of expressing the \_subject\_ of affirmation, as is the case

in the Latin and Greek verbs, they have been laid aside, as

unnecessary excrescences. For the same reason, we might, without any

disparagement to the language, dispense with the terminations of our

verbs in the singular.

In support of the position, that these terminations were once

separate words, we can trace many of them to their origin. To denote

the feminine gender of some nouns, we affix \_ess\_; as, heir\_ess\_,

instructr\_ess. Ess\_ is a contraction of the Hebrew noun \_essa\_, a

female. Of our verbs, the termination \_est\_ is a contraction of

\_doest, eth\_, of \_doeth\_, \_s\_ of \_does\_. We say, thou \_dost\_ or

\_doest\_ love; or thou \_lovest\_; i.e. \_love-dost\_, or \_love-doest\_.

Some believe these terminations to be contractions of \_havest,

haveth, has\_. We affix \_ed\_, a contraction of \_dede\_, to the present

tense of verbs to denote that the action named is \_dede, did, doed\_,

or \_done\_.

\_To\_ and \_do\_ from the Gothic noun \_taui\_, signifying \_act\_ or

\_effect\_, are, according to Horne Tooke, nearly alike in meaning and

force; and when the custom of affixing some more ancient verbalizing

adjunct, began to be dropped, its place and meaning were generally

supplied by prefixing one of these. When I say, "I am going \_to

walk,"\_ the verbal or affirmative force is conveyed by the use of

\_to\_, meaning the same as \_do\_; and \_walk\_ is employed merely as a

verbal name; that is, I assert that I shall \_do\_ the act which I

name by the word \_walk\_, or the act of \_walking\_.

Perhaps such speculations as these will prove to be more curious

than profitable. If it be made clearly to appear, that, on

scientific principles, whenever the verbal name is unaccompanied by

a verbalizing adjunct, it is in the \_noun-state\_, and does not

express affirmation, still this theory would be very inconvenient in

practice.

I shall resume this subject in Lecture XI.

\* \* \* \* \*

QUESTIONS ON THE PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

What has usually been the object of philosophical investigations of

language? (page 32.)--Do the syntactical dependances and connexions of

words depend on their \_original\_ import?--Is the power of association

and custom efficient in changing the radical meaning of some

words?--Have words intrinsically a signification of their own; or is

their meaning \_inferential\_; i.e. such as \_custom\_ has assigned to them?

(page 38.)--On what \_fact\_ is based the true, philosophical principle of

classification?--Define philosophical grammar.--Which is supposed to be

the original part of speech?--How were the others formed from that?--How

many parts of speech may be recognised in a scientific development and

arrangement of the principles of our language?--Name them.--What

testimony have we that many things do not act? (page 43.)--Repeat some

of the arguments in favor of, and against, the principle which regards

all verbs as \_active\_.--In what moods are verbs used in their

\_noun-state?\_ (page 48.)--Give examples.--What is said of the

terminations \_est, eth, s,\_ and \_en\_, and of the words \_to\_ and \_do?\_

REMARKS ON VERBS AND NOUNS.

You have already been informed, that verbs are the most important part

of speech in our language; and to convince you of their importance, I

now tell you, that you cannot express a \_thought\_, or communicate an

\_idea\_, without making use of a verb, either expressed or implied. Verbs

express, not only \_the state\_ or \_manner of being\_, but, likewise, all

the different \_actions\_ and \_movements\_ of all creatures and things,

whether animate or inanimate. As yet I have given you only a partial

description of this sort of words; but when you are better prepared to

comprehend the subject, I will explain all their properties, and show

you the proper manner of using them.

A word that is generally a \_noun\_, sometimes becomes a \_verb\_; and a

verb is frequently used as a \_noun\_. These changes depend on the sense

which the word conveys; or, rather, on the office it performs in the

sentence; that is the \_manner\_ in which it is applied to things. For

instance, \_glory\_ is generally a noun; as "The \_glory\_ of God's throne."

But if I say, I \_glory\_ in religion; or, He \_glories\_ in wickedness, the

word \_glory\_ becomes a verb. The \_love\_ of man is inconstant. In this

sentence, \_love\_ is a \_noun\_; in the next, it is a \_verb\_: They \_love\_

virtue. He \_walks\_ swiftly; Scavengers \_sweep\_ the streets; The ship

\_sails\_ well. In these phrases, the words \_walks, sweep\_, and \_sails\_,

are verbs; in the following they are nouns: Those are pleasant \_walks\_;

He takes a broad \_sweep\_; The ship lowered her \_sails\_.

Thus you see, it is impossible for you to become a grammarian without

exercising your judgment. If you have sufficient resolution to do this,

you will, in a short time, perfectly understand the nature and office of

the different parts of speech, their various properties and relations,

and the rules of syntax that apply to them; and, in a few weeks, be able

to speak and write accurately. But you must not take things for granted,

without examining their propriety and correctness. No. You are not a

mere \_automaton\_, or \_boy-machine\_; but a rational being. You ought,

therefore, to \_think\_ methodically, to \_reason\_ soundly, and to

\_investigate\_ every principle critically. Don't be afraid to \_think for

yourself\_. You know not the high destiny that awaits you. You know not

the height to which you may soar in the scale of intellectual existence.

Go on, then, boldly, and with unyielding perseverance; and if you do not

gain admittance into the temple of fame, strive, at all hazards, to

drink of the fountain which gurgles from its base.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

NOTE 1, TO RULE 12. A noun in the possessive case, should always be

distinguished by the apostrophe, or mark of elision; as, The \_nation's\_

glory.

That girls book is cleaner than those boys books.

Not correct, because the nouns \_girls\_ and \_boys\_ are both in the

possessive case, and, therefore, require the apostrophe, by which they

should be distinguished; thus, "\_girl's, boys'"\_ according to the

preceding NOTE. [Repeat the note.]

Thy ancestors virtue is not thine.

If the writer of this sentence meant \_one\_ ancestor, he should have

inserted the apostrophe after \_r\_, thus, "\_ancestor's"\_; if more than

one, after \_s\_, thus, \_"ancestors'\_ virtue;" but, by neglecting to place

the apostrophe, he has left his meaning ambiguous, and we cannot

ascertain it. This, and a thousand other mistakes you will often meet

with, demonstrate the truth of my declaration, namely, that "without the

knowledge and application of grammar rules, you will often speak and

write in such a manner as not to be \_understood."\_ You may now turn back

and re-examine the "illustration" of Rules 3, 4, and 12, on page 52, and

then correct the following examples about \_five\_ times over.

A mothers tenderness and a fathers care, are natures gift's for mans

advantage. Wisdoms precept's form the good mans interest and happiness.

They suffer for conscience's sake. He is reading Cowpers poems. James

bought Johnsons Dictionary.

RULE 4. A verb must agree with its nominative in number and person.

Those boys improves rapidly. The men labors in the field. Nothing

delight some persons. Thou shuns the light. He dare not do it. They

reads well.

I know you can correct these sentences without a rule, for they all have

a harsh sound, which offends the ear. I wish you, however, to adopt the

habit of correcting errors by applying rules; for, by-and-by, you will

meet with errors in composition which you cannot correct, if you are

ignorant of the application of grammar rules.

Now let us clearly understand this 4th Rule. Recollect, it applies to

the \_verb\_ and not to the noun; therefore, in these examples the verb is

ungrammatical. The noun \_boys\_, in the first sentence, is of the third

person \_plural\_, and the verb \_improves\_ is of the third person

\_singular\_; therefore, Rule 4th is violated, because the verb dues not

agree with its nominative in \_number\_. It should be, "boys \_improve\_."

The verb would then be \_plural\_, and agree with its nominative according

to the Rule. In the fourth sentence, the verb does not agree in \_person\_

with its nominative. \_Thou\_ is of the \_second\_ person, and \_shuns\_ is of

the \_third\_. It should be, "thou \_shunnest\_," &c. You may correct the

other sentences, and, likewise, the following exercises in

FALSE SYNTAX.

A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye. The number of inhabitants

of the United States exceed nine millions. Nothing but vain and foolish

pursuits delight some persons.

In vain our flocks and fields increase our store,

When our abundance make us wish for more.

While ever and anon, there falls

Huge heaps of hoary, moulder'd walls.

LECTURE III.

OF ARTICLES.

An article is a word prefixed to nouns to limit their signification; as,

\_a\_ man, \_the\_ woman.

There are only two articles, \_a\_ or \_an\_, and \_the. A\_ or \_an\_ is called

the indefinite article. \_The\_ is called the definite article.

The \_indefinite article\_ limits the noun to one of a kind, but to no

particular one; as, \_a\_ house.

The \_definite article\_ generally limits the noun to a particular object,

or collection of objects; as, \_the\_ house, \_the\_ men.

The small claims of the article to a separate rank as a distinct part of

speech, ought not to be admitted in a scientific classification of

words. \_A\_ and \_the, this\_ and \_that, ten, few\_, and \_fourth\_, and many

other words, are used to restrict, vary, or define the signification of

the nouns to which they are joined. They might, therefore, with

propriety, be ranked under the general head of \_Restrictives, Indexes\_,

or \_Defining Adjectives\_. But, as there is a marked distinction in their

particular meaning and application, each class requires a separate

explanation. Hence, no practical advantage would be gained, by rejecting

their established classification, as articles, numerals, and

demonstratives, and by giving them \_new\_ names. The character and

application of \_a\_ and \_the\_ can be learned as soon when they are styled

\_articles\_, as when they are denominated \_specifying\_ or \_defining

adjectives\_.

The history of this part of speech is very brief. As there are but two

articles, \_a\_ or \_an\_ and \_the\_, you will know them wherever they occur.

A noun used without an article, or any other restrictive, is taken in

its \_general\_ sense; as, \_"Fruit\_ is abundant;" "\_Gold\_ is heavy;"

"\_Man\_ is born to trouble" Here we mean, fruit and gold \_in general;\_

and \_all men\_, or \_mankind\_.

When we wish to limit the meaning of the noun to \_one\_ object, but to no

\_particular\_ one, we employ \_a\_ or \_an\_. If I say, "Give me \_a\_ pen;"

"Bring me \_an\_ apple;" you are at liberty to fetch \_any\_ pen or \_any\_

apple you please. \_A\_ or \_an\_, then, is \_indefinite\_, because it leaves

the meaning of the noun to which it is applied, as far as regards the

person spoken to, \_vague\_, or \_indeterminate\_; that is, \_not definite\_.

But when reference is made to a \_particular\_ object, we employ \_the\_,

as, "Give me \_the\_ pen;" "Bring me \_the\_ apple, or \_the\_ apple." When

such a requisition is made, you are not at liberty to bring any pen or

apple you please, but you must fetch the \_particular\_ pen or apple to

which you know me to refer. \_The\_ is, therefore, called the \_definite\_

article.

"\_A\_ star appears." Here, the star referred to, may be known as a

\_particular\_ star, \_definite\_, and distinguished from all others, in the

mind of the \_speaker\_; but to the \_hearer\_, it is left, among the

thousands that bedeck the vault of heaven, \_undistinguished\_ and

\_indefinite\_. But when the star has previously been made the subject of

discourse, it becomes, in the minds of both speaker and hearer a

\_definite\_ object, and he says, "\_The\_ star appears;" that is, that

\_particular\_ star about which we were discoursing.

"Solomon built \_a\_ temple." Did he build \_any\_ temple, \_undetermined

which?\_ No; it was a \_particular\_ temple, pre-eminently distinguished

from all others. But \_how\_ does it become a definite object in the mind

of the \_hearer\_? Certainly, not by the phrase, "\_a\_ temple," which

indicates \_any\_ temple, leaving it altogether \_undetermined\_ which; but

supposing the person addressed was totally unacquainted with the fact

asserted, and it becomes to him, \_in one respect only\_, a definite and

particular temple, by means of the associated words, "Solomon built;"

that is, by the use of these words in connexion with the others, the

hearer gets the idea of a temple distinguished as \_the one erected by

Solomon\_. If the speaker were addressing one whom he supposed to be

unacquainted with the fact related, he might make the temple referred to

a still more definite object in the mind of the hearer by a farther

explanation of it; thus, "Solomon built \_a\_ temple \_on mount Zion\_; and

that was \_the\_ temple \_to which the Jews resorted to worship\_."

"\_The\_ lunatic, \_the\_ poet, and \_the\_ lover,

Are of imagination all compact."

"\_The\_ horse is a noble animal;" "\_The\_ dog is a faithful creature;"

"\_The\_ wind blows;" "\_The\_ wolves were howling in \_the\_ woods." In these

examples, we do not refer to any particular lunatics, poets, lovers,

horses, dogs, winds, wolves, and woods, but we refer to these

\_particular classes\_ of things, in contradistinction to other objects or

classes. The phrase, "Neither \_the\_ one nor \_the\_ other," is an idiom of

the language.

REMARKS.--This method of elucidating the articles, which is popular

with Blair, Priestley, Lowth, Johnson, Harris, Beattie, Coote,

Murray, and many other distinguished philologists, is discarded by

some of our modern writers. But, by proving that this theory is

exceptionable, they by no means make it appear, that it ought,

therefore, to be rejected.

Exceptionable or not, they have not been able to supply its place

with one that is more \_convenient in practice\_. Neither have they

adopted one \_less\_ exceptionable. The truth is, after all which can

be done to render the definitions and rules of grammar comprehensive

and accurate, they will still be found, when critically examined by

men of learning and science, more or less exceptionable. These

exceptions and imperfections are the unavoidable consequence of the

imperfections of the language. Language, as well as every thing else

of human invention, will always be \_imperfect\_. Consequently, a

\_perfect\_ system of grammatical principles, would not suit it. A

\_perfect\_ grammar will not be produced, until some \_perfect\_ being

writes it for a \_perfect\_ language; and a perfect language will not

be constructed, until some \_super-human\_ agency is employed in its

production. All grammatical principles and systems which are not

\_perfect\_, are \_exceptionable\_.

NOTES.

1. The article is \_omitted\_ before nouns implying the different

virtues, vices, passions, qualities, sciences, arts, metals, herbs,

&c.; as, "\_Modesty\_ is becoming; \_Falsehood\_ is odious; \_Grammar\_ is

useful," &c.

2. The article is not prefixed to proper nouns; as, \_Barron\_ killed

\_Decatur\_; except by way of eminence, or for the sake of

distinguishing a particular family, or when some noun is understood;

as, "He is not \_a\_ Franklin; He is \_a\_ Lee, or of the family of

\_the\_ Lees; We sailed down \_the\_ (river) Missouri."

3. An \_adjective\_ is frequently placed between the article and the

noun with which the article agrees; as, "A \_good\_ boy; an

\_industrious\_ man." Sometimes the adjective precedes the article;

as, "As \_great\_ a man as Alexander; \_Such\_ a shame."

4. In referring to many individuals, when we wish to bring each

separately under consideration, the indefinite article is sometimes

placed between the adjective \_many\_ and a singular noun; as, "Where

\_many a rosebud\_ rears its blushing head;" "Full \_many a flower\_ is

born to blush unseen."

5. The definite article \_the\_ is frequently applied to \_adverbs\_ in

the comparative or superlative degree; as, "\_The more\_ I examine it,

\_the better\_ I like it," "I like this \_the least\_ of any."

You may proceed and parse the following articles, when you shall have

committed this

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING

\_The order of parsing an\_ Article, is--an article, and why?--definite or

indefinite, and why?--with what noun does it agree?--RULE.

"He is \_the\_ son of \_a\_ king."

\_The\_ is an article, a word prefixed to a noun to limit its

signification--definite, it limits the noun to a particular object--it

belongs to the noun "son," according to

RULE 2. \_The definite article\_ the \_belongs to nouns in the singular or

plural number\_.

\_A\_ is an article, a word placed before a noun to limit its

signification--indefinite, it limits the noun to one of a kind, but to

no particular one--it agrees with "king," agreeably to

RULE 1. \_The article\_ a \_or\_ an \_agrees with nouns in the singular

number only\_.

NOTE. By considering the original meaning of this article, the

propriety of Rule 1, will appear. \_A\_ or \_an\_, (formerly written

\_ane,)\_ being equivalent to \_one, any one\_, or \_some one\_, cannot be

prefixed to nouns in the plural number. There is, however, an

exception to this rule. \_A\_ is placed before a plural noun when any

of the following adjectives come between the article and the noun:

\_few, great, many, dozen, hundred, thousand, million\_; as, \_a\_ few

\_men, a\_ thousand \_houses\_, &c.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

A bird sings. An eagle flies. Mountains stand. The multitude pursue

pleasure. The reaper reaps the farmer's grain. Farmers mow the grass.

Farmers' boys spread the hay. The clerk sells the merchant's goods. An

ostrich outruns an Arab's horse. Cecrops founded Athens. Gallileo

invented the telescope. James Macpherson translated Ossian's poems. Sir

Francis Drake circumnavigated the globe. Doctor Benjamin Franklin

invented the lightning-rod. Washington Irving wrote the Sketch-Book.

I will now offer a few remarks on the misapplication of the articles,

which, with the exercise of your own discriminating powers, will enable

you to use them with propriety. But, before you proceed, please to

answer the following

QUESTIONS NOT ANSWERED IN PARSING.

How many articles are there?--In what sense is a noun taken, when it has

no article to limit it?--Repeat the \_order\_ of parsing an article.--What

rule applies in parsing the \_definite\_ article?--What rule in parsing

the \_indefinite\_?

\* \* \* \* \*

PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

A, AN, THE.

In a scientific arrangement of grammatical principles, \_a\_ and \_the\_

belong to that class of adjectives denominated \_definitives\_ or

\_restrictives\_.

\_A, an, ane\_, or \_one\_, is the past participle of \_ananad\_, to add,

to join. It denotes that the thing to which it is prefixed, is

\_added, united, aned, an-d, oned, (woned,)\_ or made \_one\_.

\_The\_ and \_that\_. According to Horne Tooke, \_the\_ is the imperative,

and \_that\_, the past participle, of the Anglo-Saxon verb \_thean\_, to

get, take, assume. \_The\_ and \_that\_ had, originally, the same

meaning. The difference in their present application, is a modern

refinement. Hence, \_that\_, as well as \_the\_, was formerly used,

indifferently, before either a singular or a plural noun.

\* \* \* \* \*

QUESTIONS ON THE NOTES.

Before what nouns is the article omitted?--Is the article \_the\_ ever

applied to adverbs?--Give examples.--What is the meaning of \_a\_ or \_an\_?

--When is \_a\_ or \_an\_ placed before a plural noun?--From what are \_a,

the\_, and \_that\_ derived?

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

NOTE TO RULE 1. \_An\_ is used before a vowel or silent \_h\_, and \_a\_

before a consonant or \_u\_ long, and also before the word \_one\_.

It is not only disagreeable to the ear, but, according to this note,

improper to say, \_a\_ apple, \_a\_ humble suppliant, \_an\_ hero, \_an\_

university, because the word \_apple\_ begins with a vowel, and \_h\_ is not

sounded in the word \_humble\_, for which reasons \_a\_ should be \_an\_ in

the first two examples; but, as the \_h\_ is sounded in \_hero\_, and the

\_u\_ is long in \_university, a\_ ought to be prefixed to these words:

thus, \_an\_ apple, \_an\_ humble suppliant: \_a\_ hero, \_a\_ university. You

may correct the following

EXAMPLES.

A enemy, a inkstand, a hour, an horse, an herald, an heart, an heathen,

an union, a umbrella, an useful book, many an one. This is an hard

saying. They met with an heavy loss. He would not give an hat for an

horse.

NOTE 1, TO RULE 2. The articles are often properly omitted: when used

they should be justly applied, according to their distinct character;

as, "Gold is corrupting; \_The\_ sea is green; \_A\_ lion is bold." It would

be improper to say, \_The\_ gold is corrupting; Sea is green; Lion is

bold.

The grass is good for horses, and the wheat for men. Grass is good for

the horses, and wheat for the men. Grass looks well. Wheat is blighted.

In the first of these sentences, we are not speaking of any particular

kind of \_grass\_ or \_wheat\_, neither do we wish to limit the meaning to

any particular crop or field of grass, or quantity of wheat; but we are

speaking of grass and wheat generally, therefore the article \_the\_

should be omitted. In the second sentence, we do not refer to any

definite kind, quality, or number of \_horses\_ or \_men\_; but to horses

and men generally; that is, the terms are here used to denote \_whole

species\_, therefore, the article should be omitted, and the sentence

should read thus, "Grass is good for horses, and wheat for men."

In the third and fourth examples, we wish to limit our meaning to the

crops of \_grass\_ and \_wheat\_ now on the ground, which, in

contradistinction to the crops heretofore raised, are considered as

\_particular\_ objects; therefore we should say, "\_The\_ grass looks

well; \_The\_ wheat is blighted."

NOTE 2. When a noun is used in its \_general\_ sense, the article should

be omitted; as, "\_Poetry\_ is a pleasing art;" "\_Oranges\_ grow in New

Orleans."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Corn in the garden, grows well; but corn in the field, does not. How

does the tobacco sell? The tobacco is dear. How do you like the study of

the grammar? The grammar is a pleasing study. A candid temper is proper

for the man. World is wide. The man is mortal. And I persecuted this way

unto the death. The earth, the air, the fire, and the water, are the

four elements of the old philosophers.

\* \* \* \* \*

LECTURE IV.

OF ADJECTIVES.

An ADJECTIVE is a word added to a noun to express its quality or kind,

or to restrict its meaning; as, a \_good\_ man, a \_bad\_ man, \_a free\_ man,

an \_unfortunate\_ man, \_one\_ man, \_forty\_ men.

In the phrases, a \_good\_ apple, a \_bad\_ apple, a \_large\_ apple, a

\_small\_ apple, a \_red\_ apple, a \_white\_ apple, a \_green\_ apple, a

\_sweet\_ apple, a \_sour\_ apple, a \_bitter\_ apple, a \_round\_ apple, a

\_hard\_ apple, a \_soft\_ apple, a \_mellow\_ apple, a \_fair\_ apple, a \_May\_

apple, an \_early\_ apple, a \_late\_ apple, a \_winter\_ apple, a \_crab\_

apple, a \_thorn\_ apple, a \_well-tasted\_ apple, an \_ill-looking\_ apple, a

\_water-cored\_ apple, you perceive that all those words in \_italics\_ are

adjectives, because each expresses some quality or property of the noun

apple, or it shows what \_kind\_ of an apple it is of which we are

speaking.

The distinction between a \_noun\_ and an \_adjective\_ is very clear. A

noun is the \_name\_ of a thing; but an adjective denotes simply the

\_quality\_ or \_property\_ of a thing. This is \_fine cloth\_. In this

example, the difference between the word denoting the \_thing\_, and that

denoting the \_quality\_ of it, is easily perceived. You certainly cannot

be at a loss to know, that the word \_cloth\_ expresses the \_name\_, and

\_fine\_, the \_quality\_, of the \_thing\_; consequently \_fine\_ must be an

\_adjective\_. If I say, He is a \_wise\_ man, a \_prudent\_ man, a \_wicked\_

man, or an \_ungrateful\_ man, the words in \_italics\_ are adjectives,

because each expresses a \_quality\_ of the noun man. And, if I say, He is

a \_tall\_ man, a \_short\_ man, a \_white\_ man, a \_black\_ man, or a

\_persecuted\_ man, the words, \_tall, short, white, black\_, and

\_persecuted\_, are also adjectives, because they tell what \_kind\_ of a

man he is of whom I am speaking, or they attribute to him some

particular property.

Some adjectives \_restrict\_ or \_limit\_ the signification of the nouns to

which they are joined, and are, therefore, sometimes called

\_definitives\_; as, \_one\_ era, \_seven\_ ages, the \_first\_ man, the \_whole\_

mass, \_no\_ trouble, \_those\_ men, \_that\_ book, \_all\_ regions.

Other adjectives \_define\_ or \_describe\_ nouns, or do both; as, \_fine\_

silk, \_blue\_ paper, a \_heavy\_ shower, \_pure\_ water, \_green\_ mountains,

\_bland\_ breezes, \_gurgling\_ rills, \_glass\_ window, \_window\_ glass,

\_beaver\_ hats, \_chip\_ bonnets, \_blackberry\_ ridge, \_Monroe\_ garden,

\_Juniata\_ iron, \_Cincinnati\_ steam-mill.

Some adjectives are \_secondary\_, and qualify other adjectives; as,

\_pale\_ red lining, \_dark\_ blue silk, \_deep sea\_ green sash, \_soft\_ iron

blooms, \_red hot\_ iron plate.

You will frequently find the adjective placed after the noun; as, "Those

\_men\_ are \_tall\_; A \_lion\_ is \_bold\_; The \_weather\_ is \_calm\_; The

\_tree\_ is three feet \_thick\_."

Should you ever be at a loss to distinguish an adjective from the other

parts of speech, the following sign will enable you to tell it. Any word

that will make sense with the word \_thing\_ added, or with any other noun

following it, is an adjective; as, a \_high\_ thing, a \_low\_ thing, a

\_hot\_ thing, a \_cold\_ thing, an \_unfinished\_ thing, a \_new-fashioned\_

thing:--or, a \_pleasant\_ prospect, a \_long-deserted\_ dwelling, an

\_American\_ soldier, a \_Greek\_ Testament. Are these words adjectives,

\_distant, yonder, peaceful, long-sided, double-headed?\_ A distant

\_object\_ or \_thing\_, yonder \_hill\_, &c. They are. They will make sense

with a noun after them. Adjectives sometimes become adverbs. This matter

will be explained in Lecture VI. In parsing, you may generally know an

adjective by its \_qualifying a noun or pronoun\_.

Most words ending in \_ing\_ are \_present participles\_. These are

frequently used as adjectives; therefore, most participles will make

sense with the addition of the word thing, or any other noun, after

them; as, a \_pleasing\_ thing, a \_moving\_ spectacle, \_mouldering\_ ruins.

In the Latin language, and many others, adjectives, like nouns, have

gender, number, and case; but in the English language, they have neither

gender, person, number, nor case. These properties belong to \_creatures\_

and \_things\_, and not to their \_qualities\_; therefore gender, person,

number, and case, are the properties of \_nouns\_, and \_not\_ of

adjectives.

Adjectives are varied only to express the degrees of comparison. They

have three degrees of comparison, the Positive, the Comparative, and the

Superlative.

The \_positive degree\_ expresses the quality of an object without any

increase or diminution; as, \_good, wise, great\_.

The \_comparative degree\_ increases or lessens the positive in

signification; as, \_better, wiser, greater, less wise\_.

The \_superlative degree\_ increases or lessens the positive to the

highest or lowest degree; as, \_best, wisest, greatest, least wise\_.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

\_More\_ and \_most\_ form the comparative and superlative degrees by

increasing the positive; and \_less\_ and \_least\_, by diminishing it.

Comparison by increasing the positive

\_Pos.\_ \_Comp.\_ \_Sup.\_

great, greater, greatest.

wise, wiser, wisest.

holy, more holy most holy.

frugal, more frugal most frugal.

Comparison by diminishing the positive.

\_Pos.\_ \_Comp.\_ \_Sup.\_

wise, less wise least wise.

holy, less holy, least holy.

frugal, less frugal, least frugal.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Words used in counting, are called \_numeral adjectives\_ of the

\_cardinal\_ kind; as, \_one, two, three, four, twenty, fifty,\_ &c.

Words used in numbering, are called \_numeral adjectives\_ of the

\_ordinal\_ kind; as, \_first, second, third, fourth, twentieth, fiftieth,\_

&c.

NOTE. The words \_many, few\_, and \_several\_, as they always refer to

an indefinite number, may be properly called \_numeral adjectives\_ of

the indefinite kind.

NOTES.

1. The simple word, or Positive, becomes the Comparative by adding

\_r\_, or \_er\_; and the Positive becomes the Superlative, by adding

\_st\_, or \_est\_, to the end of it; as, Pos. wise, Com. wise\_r\_, Sup.

wise\_st\_; rich, rich\_er\_, rich\_est\_; bold, bold\_er\_, bold\_est\_. The

adverbs, \_more\_ and \_most, less\_ and \_least\_, when placed before the

adjective, have the same effect; as, Pos. wise, Com. \_more\_ wise,

Sup. \_most\_ wise; Pos. wise, Com. \_less\_ wise, Sup. \_least\_ wise.

2. \_Monosyllables\_ are generally compared by adding \_er\_ and \_est;

dissyllables, trisyllables\_, &c. by \_more\_ and \_most\_; as, mild,

milder, mildest; frugal, more frugal, most frugal; virtuous, more

virtuous, most virtuous. Dissyllables ending in \_y\_; as, happy,

lovely; and in \_le\_ after a mute; as, able, ample; and dissyllables

accented on the last syllable; as, discreet, polite; easily admit of

\_er\_ and \_est\_; as, happi\_er\_, happi\_est\_; polit\_er\_, \_polit\_est\_.

Words of more than two syllables very seldom admit of these

terminations.

3. When the positive ends in \_d\_, or \_t\_, preceded by a \_single\_

vowel, the consonant is doubled in forming the comparative and

superlative degrees; as red, \_redder, reddest\_; hot, \_hotter,

hottest\_.

4. In some words the superlative is formed by adding \_most\_ to the

end of them; as, nethermost, uttermost or utmost, undermost,

uppermost, foremost.

5. In English, as in most languages, there are some words of very

common use, (in which the caprice of custom is apt to get the better

of analogy,) that are irregular in forming the degrees of

comparison; as, "Good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little,

less, least; much or many, more, most; near, nearer, nearest or

next; late, later, latest or last; old, older or elder, oldest or

eldest;" and a few others.

6. The following adjectives, and many others, are always in the

\_superlative\_ degree, because, by expressing a quality in the

highest degree, they carry in themselves a superlative

signification: \_chief, extreme, perfect, right, wrong, honest, just,

true, correct, sincere, vast, immense, ceaseless, infinite, endless,

unparalleled, universal, supreme, unlimited, omnipotent, all-wise,

eternal\_.

7. Compound adjectives, and adjectives denoting qualities arising

from the figure of bodies, do not admit of comparison; such as,

\_well-formed, frost-bitten, round, square, oblong, circular,

quadrangular, conical\_, &c.

8. The termination \_ish\_ added to adjectives, expresses a slight

degree of quality below the comparative; as, \_black, blackish; salt,

saltish. Very\_, prefixed to the comparative, expresses a degree of

quality, but not always a superlative degree.

Read this Lecture carefully, particularly the NOTES; after which you may

parse the following adjectives and neuter verb, and, likewise, the

examples that follow. If you cannot repeat all the definitions and

rules, spread the Compendium when you parse. But before you proceed,

please to commit the

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

\_The order of parsing an\_ ADJECTIVE, is--an adjective, and why?--compare

it--degree of comparison, and why?--to what noun does it belong?--RULE.

That \_great\_ nation \_was\_ once \_powerful\_; but now it is \_feeble\_.

\_Great\_ is an adjective, a word added to a noun to express its

quality--pos. great, com. greater, sup. greatest--it is in the positive

degree, it expresses the quality of an object without any increase or

diminution, and belongs to the noun "nation," according to

RULE 18. \_Adjectives belong to, and qualify, nouns expressed or

understood\_.

\_Was\_ is a verb, a word that signifies to be--neuter, it expresses

neither action nor passion, but being or a state of being--third person

singular, because its nominative "nation" is a noun of multitude

conveying \_unity\_ of idea--it agrees with "nation," agreeably to RULE

10. \_A noun of multitude conveying\_ unity \_of idea, may have a verb or

pronoun agreeing with it in the\_ singular.

\_Powerful\_ is an adjective belonging to "nation," according to Rule 18.

\_Feeble\_ belongs to "it," according to Note 1, under Rule 18. \_Is\_ is a

neuter verb agreeing with "it," agreeably to Rule 4.

"Bonaparte entered Russia with 400,000 men."

\_Four-hundred-thousand\_ is a numeral adjective of the cardinal kind, it

is a word used in counting, and belongs to the noun "men," according to

Note 2, under Rule 18. \_Numeral adjectives belong to nouns, which nouns

must agree in number with their adjectives\_.

If, in parsing the following examples, you find any words about which

you are at a loss, you will please to turn back, and parse all the

foregoing examples again. This course will enable you to proceed without

any difficulty.

\_More\_ is an adverb. \_Of\_ and \_to\_ are prepositions, governing the nouns

that follow them in the objective case.

EXERCISES IN PARSING. A benevolent man helps indigent beggars.

Studious scholars learn many long lessons. Wealthy merchants own large

ships. The heavy ships bear large burdens; the lighter ships carry less

burdens. Just poets use figurative language. Ungrammatical expressions

offend a true critic's ear. Weak critics magnify trifling errors. No

composition is perfect. The rabble was tumultuous. The late-washed grass

looks green. Shady trees form a delightful arbor. The setting sun makes

a beautiful appearance; the variegated rainbow appears more beautiful.

Epaminondas was the greatest of the Theban generals; Pelopidas was next

to Epaminondas.

The first fleet contained three hundred men; the second contained four

thousand. The earth contains one thousand million inhabitants. Many a

cheering ray brightens the good man's pathway.

NOTE. \_Like, Worth\_. The adjective \_like\_ is a contraction of the

participle \_likened\_, and generally has the preposition \_unto\_

understood after it. "She is \_like\_ [\_unto\_] her brother." "They are

\_unlike\_ [\_to\_] him." "The kingdom of heaven is \_like\_ [\_likened\_ or

made \_like\_] \_unto\_ a householder."

The noun \_worth\_ has altogether dropped its associated words. "The

cloth is \_worth\_ ten dollars \_a\_ yard;" that is, The cloth is \_of

the\_ worth \_of\_ ten dollars \_by the\_ yard, or \_for a, one\_, or

\_every yard\_.

Some eminent philologists do not admit the propriety of supplying an

ellipsis after \_like, worth, ere, but, except\_, and \_than\_, but

consider them prepositions. See Anomalies, in the latter part of

this work.

REMARKS ON ADJECTIVES AND NOUNS.

A critical analysis requires that the adjective when used without its

noun, should be parsed as an adjective belonging to its noun understood;

as, "The \_virtuous\_ [\_persons\_] and the \_sincere\_ [\_persons\_] are always

respected;" "Providence rewards the \_good\_ [\_people,\_] and punishes the

\_bad\_ [\_people.\_]"

"The \_evil\_ [\_deed\_ or \_deeds\_] that men do, lives after them;

"The \_good\_ [\_deed\_ or \_deeds\_] is oft-interred with their bones."

But sometimes the adjective, by its \_manner\_ of meaning, becomes a noun,

and has another adjective joined to it; as, "the chief \_good\_;" "The

vast \_immense\_ [\_immensity\_] of space."

Various nouns placed before other nouns, assume the character of

adjectives, according to their \_manner\_ of meaning; as, "\_Sea\_ fish,

\_iron\_ mortar, \_wine\_ vessel, \_gold\_ watch, \_corn\_ field, \_meadow\_

ground, \_mountain\_ height."

The principle which recognises \_custom\_ as the standard of grammatical

accuracy, might rest for its support on the usage of only \_six\_ words,

and defy all the subtleties of innovating skeptics to gainsay it. If the

genius and analogy of our language were the standard, it would be

correct to observe this analogy, and say, "Good, good\_er\_, good\_est\_;

bad, bad\_der\_, bad\_dest\_; little, littl\_er\_, littl\_est\_; much,

much\_er\_; much\_est\_." "By \_this mean\_;" "What \_are\_ the \_news\_." But such

a criterion betrays only the weakness of those who attempt to establish

it. Regardless of the dogmas and edicts of the philosophical umpire, the

good sense of the people will cause them, in this instance, as well as

in a thousand others, to yield to \_custom\_, and say, "Good, \_better,

best\_; bad, \_worse, worst\_; little, \_less, least\_; much, \_more, most\_;"

"By \_this means\_;" "What \_is\_ the \_news\_?"

With regard to the using of adjectives and other qualifying words, care

must be taken, or your language will frequently amount to absurdity or

nonsense. Let the following general remark, which is better than a dozen

rules, put you on your guard. Whenever you utter a sentence, or put your

pen on paper to write, weigh well in your mind \_the meaning of the

words\_ which you are about to employ. See that they convey precisely the

ideas which you wish to express by them, and thus you will avoid

innumerable errors. In speaking of a man, we may say, with propriety, he

is \_very\_ wicked, or \_exceedingly\_ lavish, because the terms \_wicked\_ and

\_lavish\_ are adjectives that admit of comparison; but, if we take the

words in their literal acceptation, there is a solecism in calling a man

\_very\_ honest, or \_exceedingly\_ just, for the words \_honest\_ and \_just\_,

literally admit of no comparison. In point of fact, a man is \_honest\_ or

\_dishonest, just\_ or \_unjust\_: there can be no medium or excess in this

respect. \_Very\_ correct, \_very\_ incorrect, \_very\_ right, \_very\_ wrong,

are common expressions; but they are not \_literally\_ proper. What is not

\_correct\_, must be \_incorrect\_; and that which is not \_incorrect\_, must

be \_correct\_: what is not \_right\_, must be \_wrong\_; and that which is

not \_wrong\_, must be \_right\_. To avoid that circumlocution which must

otherwise take place, our best speakers and writers, however, frequently

compare adjectives which do not literally admit of comparison: "The

\_most established\_ practice;" "The \_most uncertain\_ method;" "Irving, as

a writer, \_is far more accurate\_ than Addison;" "The metaphysical

investigations of our philosophical grammars, are \_still more

incomprehensible\_ to the learner." Comparisons like these, should

generally be avoided; but sometimes they are so convenient in practice,

as to render them admissible. Such expressions can be reconciled with

the principles of grammar, only by considering them as figurative.

Comparative members of sentences, should be set in \_direct opposition\_

to each other; as, "Pope was \_rich\_, but Goldsmith was \_poor\_." The

following sentences are inaccurate: "Solomon was \_wiser\_ than Cicero was

\_eloquent\_." "The principles of the reformation were \_deeper\_ in the

prince's mind than to be \_easily eradicated\_." This latter sentence

contains \_no comparison\_ at all; neither does it literally convey \_any

meaning\_. Again, if the Psalmist had said, "I am the wisest of my

teachers," he would have spoken absurdly, because the phrase would

imply, that he was one of his teachers. But in saying, "I am wiser

\_than\_ my teachers," he does not consider himself one of them, but

places himself in contradistinction to them.

Before you proceed any farther, you may answer the following

QUESTIONS NOT ANSWERED IN PARSING.

What is the distinction between a noun and an adjective?--By what sign

may an adjective be known?--Are participles ever used as

adjectives?--Does gender, person, number, or case, belong to

adjectives?--How are they varied?--Name the three degrees of

comparison.--What effect have \_less\_ and \_least\_ in comparing

adjectives?--Repeat the order of parsing an adjective.--What rule

applies in parsing an adjective?--What rule in parsing a verb agreeing

with a noun of multitude conveying \_unity\_ of idea?--What Note should be

applied in parsing an adjective which belongs to a pronoun?--What Note

in parsing \_numeral\_ adjectives?

QUESTIONS ON THE NOTES. Repeat all the various ways of forming the

degrees of comparison, mentioned in the first five NOTES.--Compare these

adjectives; \_ripe, frugal, mischievous, happy, able, good, little, much\_

or \_many, near, late, old\_.--Name some adjectives that are always in the

superlative, and never compared.--Are compound adjectives

compared?--What is said of the termination \_ish\_, and of the adverb

\_very?\_--When does an adjective become a noun?--What character does a

noun assume when placed before another noun?--How can you prove that

\_custom\_ is the standard of grammatical accuracy?

\* \* \* \* \*

PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

ADNOUNS.

\_Adnoun\_ or \_Adjective\_, comes from the Latin, \_ad\_ and \_jicio\_, to

\_add to\_.

Adnouns are a class of words added to nouns to vary their

comprehension, or to determine their extension. Those which effect

the former object, are called \_adjectives\_, or \_attributes;\_ and

those which effect the latter, \_restrictives\_. It is not, in all

cases, easy to determine to which of these classes an adnoun should

be referred. Words which express simply the \_qualities\_ of nouns,

are adjectives; and such as denote their \_situation\_ or \_number\_,

are restrictives.

Adjectives were originally nouns or verbs.

Some consider the adjective, in its present application, \_exactly\_

equivalent to a noun connected to another noun by means of

juxtaposition, of a preposition, or of a corresponding flexion. "A

\_golden\_ cup," say they, "is the same as a \_gold\_ cup, or a cup \_of

gold\_." But this principle appears to be exceptionable. "A cup \_of

gold\_," may mean either a cup-\_full\_ of gold, or a cup \_made\_ of

gold. "An \_oaken\_ cask," signifies an \_oak\_ cask, or a cask \_of

oak\_; i.e. a cask \_made\_ of oak; but a \_beer\_ cask, and a cask \_of

beer\_, are two different things. A \_virtuous\_ son; a son \_of

virtue\_.

The distinguishing characteristic of the adjective, appears to

consist in its both \_naming\_ a quality, and \_attributing\_ that

quality to some object.

The terminations \_en, ed\_, and \_ig\_ (our modern \_y\_,) signifying

\_give, add, join\_, denote that the names of qualities to which they

are postfixed, are to be attributed to other nouns possessing such

qualities: wood-\_en\_, wood-\_y\_. See page 37.

\_Left\_ is the past participle of the verb \_leave\_. Horne Tooke

defines \_right\_ to be that which is \_ordered\_ or \_directed\_. The

\_right\_ hand is that which your parents and custom direct you to use

in preference to the other. And when you employ that in preference,

the other is the \_leaved, leav'd\_, or \_left\_ hand; i.e. the one

\_leaved\_ or \_left\_. "The one shall be taken, and the other \_(leaved)

left\_."

\_Own\_. Formerly a man's \_own\_ was what he \_worked for, own\_ being a

past participle of a verb signifying to \_work\_.

\_Restrictive\_. Some restrictives, in modern times, are applied only

to singular nouns; such as \_a\_ or \_an, another, one, this, that,

each, every, either\_. Others, only to plural nouns; as, \_these,

those, two, three, few, several, all\_. But most restrictives, like

adjectives, are applied to both singular and plural nouns: \_first,

second, last, the, former, latter, any, such, same, some, which,

what\_.

\_Numerals\_. All numeration was, doubtless, originally performed by

the fingers; for the number of the fingers is still the utmost

extent of its signification. \_Ten\_ is the past participle of

\_tynan\_, to close, to shut in. The hands \_tyned, tened\_, closed, or

shut in, signified \_ten\_; for there numeration \_closed\_. To denote a

number greater than ten, we must begin again, \_ten\_ and \_one, ten\_

and \_two\_, &c.

\_Twain, twa-in, twa-ain, twa-ane\_, is a compound of \_two (twa, twae,

twee, twi, two\_ or \_dwo\_ or \_duo)\_ and \_one (ane, ain, an.)\_ It

signifies \_two\_ units \_joined, united, aned,\_ or \_oned. Twenty

(twa-ane-ten)\_ signifies \_two tens aned, oned\_, or \_united\_. Things

\_separated\_ into parcels of twenty each, are called \_scores. Score\_

is the past participle of \_shear\_, to \_separate\_.

\_The Ordinals\_ are formed like abstract nouns in \_eth. Fifth,

sixth\_, or \_tenth\_ is the number which \_fiv-eth, six-eth, ten-eth\_,

or mak-\_eth\_ up the number \_five, six\_, or \_ten\_.

Philosophical writers who limit our acceptation of words to that in

which they were \_originally\_ employed, and suppose that all the

complicated, yet often definable, associations which the gradual

progress of language and intellect has connected with words, are to

be reduced to \_the standard of our forefathers\_; appear not to have

sufficiently attended to the \_changes\_ which this principle of

association actually produces. As language is transmitted from

generation to generation, many words become the representatives of

ideas with which they were not originally associated; and thus they

undergo a change, not only in the \_mode\_ of their application, but

also in their meaning. Words being the signs of things, their

meaning must necessarily change as much, \_at least\_, as things

themselves change; but this variation in their import more

frequently depends on accidental circumstances. Among the ideas

connected with a word that which was once of primary, becomes only

of secondary importance; and sometimes, by degrees, it loses

altogether its connexion with the word, giving place to others with

which, from some accidental causes, it has been associated.

Two or three instances will illustrate the truth of these remarks.

In an ancient English version of the New Testament, we find the

following language: "I, Paul, a \_rascal\_ of Jesus Christ, unto you

Gentiles," &c. But who, in the present acceptation of the word,

would dare to call "the great apostle of the Gentiles" a \_rascal?

Rascal\_ formerly meant a \_servant:\_ one devoted to the interest of

another; but now it is nearly synonymous with \_villain. Villain\_

once had none of the odium which is now associated with the term;

but it signified one who, under the feudal system, rented or held

lands of another. Thus, Henry the VIII. says to a vassal or tenant,

"As you are an accomplished \_villain\_, I order that you receive £700

out of the public treasury." The word \_villain\_, then, has given up

its original idea, and become the representative of a new one, the

word \_tenant\_ having supplanted it. To prove that the meaning of

words \_changes\_, a thousand examples could be adduced; but with the

intelligent reader, proof is unnecessary.

\* \* \* \* \*

QUESTIONS ON THE PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

How are adnouns divided?--What constitutes the true character of an

adjective?--What are the signification and denotement of the

terminations, \_en, ed\_, and \_ig?\_--What do \_left\_ and \_own\_

signify?--Name the three ways in which restrictives are applied.--How

was numeration originally performed?--What is said of \_twain, twenty,

score\_, and the ordinal numbers?--What is said of the changes produced

in the meaning of words, by the principle of association?

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX. NOTE 9, under RULE 18. Double \_Comparatives\_

and \_Superlatives\_ should be avoided; such as, \_worser, lesser, more\_

deeper, \_more\_ wickeder, &c.: \_chiefest, supremest, perfectest,

rightest\_; or \_more\_ perfect, \_most\_ perfect, \_most\_ supreme, &c.

Virtue confers the most supreme dignity on man, and it should be his

chiefest desire.

He made the greater light to rule the day, and the lesser light to

rule the night.

The phrases "most supreme," and "chiefest," in the first sentence, are

incorrect, because \_supreme\_ and \_chief\_ are in the superlative degree

without having the superlative form superadded, which addition makes

them double superlatives. They should be written, "confers supreme

dignity," and, "his chief desire."

We can say, one thing is \_less\_ than another, or \_smaller\_ than another,

because the adjectives \_less\_ and \_smaller\_ are in the comparative

degree; but the phrase "\_lesser\_ light," in the second sentence, is

inaccurate. \_Lesser\_ is a double comparative, which, according to the

preceding Note, should be avoided. \_Lesser\_ is as incorrect as \_badder,

gooder, worser\_. "The \_smaller\_ light," would be less exceptionable. You

can correct the following without my assistance. Correct them \_four\_

times over.

The pleasures of the understanding are more preferable than those of

imagination or sense. The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the

faster the lesser weight it carries. The nightingale's voice is the most

sweetest in the grove. The Most Highest hath created us for his glory,

He was admitted to the chiefest offices. The first witness gave a strong

proof of the fact; the next more stronger still; but the last witness,

the most stronger of all. He gave the fullest and the most sincere proof

of the truer friendship.

LECTURE V.

OF PARTICIPLES.

A PARTICIPLE is a word derived from a verb, and partakes of the nature

of a verb, and also of an adjective.

Verbs have three participles, the present or imperfect, the perfect, and

the compound.

The \_present\_ or \_imperfect\_ participle denotes action or being

continued, but not perfected. It always ends in \_ing\_; as, \_ruling,

being\_: "I am \_writing\_ a letter."

The \_perfect\_ participle denotes action or being perfected or finished.

When derived from a regular verb, it ends in \_ed\_, and corresponds with

the imperfect tense; as, \_ruled, smiled:\_ "The letter is \_written\_."

The \_compound\_ participle implies action or being completed before the

time referred to. It is formed by placing \_having\_ before the perfect

participle; as, \_having ruled, having been ruled: "Having written\_ the

letter, he mailed it."

The term \_Participle\_ comes from the Latin word \_participio\_, which

signifies to \_partake\_: and this name is given to this part of speech,

because it \_partakes\_ of the nature of the verb and of the adjective.

By many writers, the participle is classed with the verb, and treated as

a part of it; but, as it has no nominative, partakes of the nature of an

adjective, requires many syntactical rules which apply not to the verb,

and, in some other respects, has properties peculiar to itself, it is

believed that its character is sufficiently distinct from the verb, to

entitle it to the rank of a separate part of speech. It is, in fact, the

connecting link between, not only the adjective and the verb, but also

the noun and the verb.

All participles are compound in their meaning and office. Like verbs,

they express action and being, and denote time; and, like adjectives,

they describe the nouns of which they denote the action or being. In the

sentences, The boatman is \_crossing\_ the river; I see a man \_laboring\_

in the field; Charles is \_standing\_; you perceive that the participles

\_crossing\_ and \_laboring\_ express the actions of the boatman and the

man, and \_standing\_ the state of being of Charles. In these respects,

then, they partake of the nature of verbs. You also notice, that they

\_describe\_ the several nouns associated with them, like describing

adjectives; and that, in this respect, they participate the properties

of adjectives. And, furthermore, you observe they denote actions which

are still going on; that is, \_incomplete\_ or \_unfinished\_ actions; for

which reason we call them \_imperfect\_ participles.

Perhaps I can illustrate their character more clearly. When the

imperfect or present and perfect participles are placed before nouns,

they become defining or describing adjectives, and are denominated

\_participial adjectives\_; as, A \_loving\_ companion; The \_rippling\_

stream; \_Roaring\_ winds; A \_wilted\_ leaf; An \_accomplished\_ scholar.

Here the words \_loving, rippling, roaring, wilted\_, and \_accomplished\_,

describe or define the nouns with which they are associated. And where

the participles are placed after their nouns, they have, also, this

descriptive quality. If I say, I see the moon \_rising\_; The horse is

\_running\_ a race; The dog is \_beaten\_; I describe the several objects,

as a \_rising\_ moon, a \_running\_ horse, and a \_beaten\_ dog, as well as

when I place these participles before the nouns. The same word is a

participle or a participial adjective, according to its manner of

meaning. The preceding illustration, however, shows that this

distinction is founded on a very slight shade of difference in the

meaning of the two. The following examples will enable you to

distinguish the one from the other.

\_Participles. Participial adjectives\_.

See the sun \_setting\_. See the \_setting\_ sun.

See the moon \_rising\_. See the \_rising\_ moon.

The wind is \_roaring\_. Hear the \_roaring\_ wind.

The twig is \_broken\_. The \_broken\_ twig fell.

The vessel \_anchored\_ in the The \_anchored\_ vessel spreads

bay, lost her mast. her sail.

The \_present\_ or \_imperfect\_ participle is known by its ending in \_ing\_;

as, float\_ing\_, rid\_ing\_, hear\_ing\_, see\_ing\_. These are derived from

the verbs, \_float, ride, hear\_, and \_see\_. But some words ending in

\_ing\_ are not participles; such as \_evening, morning, hireling, sapling,

uninteresting, unbelieving, uncontrolling\_. When you parse a word ending

in \_ing\_, you should always consider whether it comes from a verb or

not. There is such a verb as \_interest\_, hence you know that the word

\_interesting\_ is a participle; but there is no such verb as

\_un\_interest, consequently, \_un\_interesting can \_not\_ be a participle:

but it is an adjective; as, an \_uninteresting\_ story. You will be able

very easily to distinguish the participle from the other parts of

speech, when you shall have acquired a more extensive knowledge of the

verb.

Speak the participles from each of these verbs, learn, walk, shun,

smile, sail, conquer, manage, reduce, relate, discover, overrate,

disengage. Thus, Pres. \_learning\_, Perf. \_learned\_, Comp. \_having

learned\_. Pres. \_walking\_, Perf. \_walked\_, Compound, \_having walked\_,

and so on.

You may now commit the \_order\_ of parsing a participle, and then proceed

with me.

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

The \_order of parsing\_ a PARTICIPLE, is--a participle, and why?--from

what verb is it derived?--speak the three--present, perfect, or

compound, and why?--to what does it refer or belong?--RULE.

"I saw a vessel \_sailing"\_

\_Sailing\_ is a participle, a word derived from a verb, and partakes of

the nature of a verb, and also of an adjective--it comes from the verb

to sail--pres. sailing, perf. sailed, comp. having sailed--it is a

present or imperfect participle, because it denotes the continuance of

an unfinished action--and refers to the noun "vessel" for its subject,

according to

RULE 27. \_The present participle refers to some noun or pronoun denoting

the subject or actor\_.

"Not a breath disturbs the \_sleeping\_ billow."

\_Sleeping\_ is a participial adjective, a word added to a noun to express

its quality--it cannot, with propriety, be compared--- it belongs to the

noun "billow," agreeably to

RULE 18. \_Adjectives belong to, and qualify, nouns expressed or

understood\_.

You will please to parse these two words several times over, and, by a

little reflection, you will perfectly understand the 27th RULE.

Recollect, the participle never varies its termination to \_agree\_ with a

noun or pronoun, for, as it has no \_nominative\_, it has no agreement;

but it simply \_refers to\_ an actor. Examples: I see a \_vessel\_ sailing;

or, I see three \_vessels\_ sailing. You perceive that the participle

\_sailing\_ refers to a singular noun in the first example, and to a

plural noun in the second; and yet the participle is in the same form in

both examples. The noun \_vessel\_ is in the objective case, and governed

by the transitive verb \_see\_. But when a verb follows a noun, the ending

of the verb generally varies in order to agree with the noun which is

its nominative; as, the vessel \_sails;\_ the vessels \_sail\_.

In this place it may not be improper to notice another Rule that relates

to the participle. In the sentence, "The man is \_beating\_ his horse,"

the noun \_horse\_ is in the objective case, because it is the object of

the action expressed by the active-transitive participle "beating," and

it is governed by the participle beating, according to

RULE 26. \_Participles have the same government as the verbs have from

which they are derived\_.

The principle upon which this rule is founded, is quite apparent. As a

participle derived from a transitive verb, expresses the same kind of

action as its verb, it necessarily follows, that the participle must

govern the same case as the verb from which it is derived.

When you shall have studied this lecture attentively, you may proceed

and parse the following exercises, containing five parts of speech. If,

in analyzing these examples, you find any words which you cannot parse

correctly and \_systematically\_ by referring to your Compend for

definitions and rules, you will please to turn back and read over again

the whole \_five\_ lectures. You must exercise a little patience; and, for

your encouragement, permit me to remind you, that when you shall have

acquired a thorough knowledge of these five parts of speech, only \_five\_

more will remain for you to learn. Be ambitious to excel. Be thorough in

your investigations. Give your reasoning powers free scope. By studying

these lectures with attention, you will acquire more grammatical

knowledge in \_three\_ months, than is commonly obtained in \_two\_ years.

In the following examples, the words \_purling, crusted, slumbering\_, and

\_twinkling\_, are participial adjectives. \_There\_ and \_its\_ you may omit.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Orlando left the herd grazing. The hunters heard the young dog barking.

The old fox heard the sportsman's horn sounding. Deep rivers float long

rafts. Purling streams moisten the earth's surface. The sun approaching,

melts the crusted snow. The slumbering seas calmed the grave old

hermit's mind. Pale Cynthia declining, clips the horizon. Man beholds

the twinkling stars adorning night's blue arch. The stranger saw the

desert thistle bending there its lowly head.

REMARKS ON PARTICIPLES.

Participles frequently become nouns; as, "A good \_understanding\_;

Excellent \_writing\_; He made a good \_beginning\_, but a bad \_ending\_."

Constructions like the following, have long been sanctioned by the best

authorities: "The goods are \_selling\_;" "The house is \_building\_;" "The

work is now \_publishing\_." A modern innovation, however, is likely to

supersede this mode of expression: thus, "The goods are \_being sold\_;"

"The house is \_being built\_;" "The work is now \_being published\_."

You may now answer these

QUESTIONS NOT ANSWERED IN PARSING.

How many kinds of participles are there?--What is the ending of a

present participle?--What does a perfect participle denote?--With what

does the perfect participle of a regular verb correspond?--What is a

compound participle?--From what word is the term participle

derived?--Why is this part of speech thus named?--Wherein does this part

of speech partake of the nature of a verb?--Do all participles

participate the properties of adjectives?--In what respect?--When are

participles called \_participial adjectives\_?--Give examples.--How may a

present participle be known?--Repeat the order of parsing a

participle.--What rule applies in parsing a \_present\_ participle?--What

Rule in parsing a participial adjective?--Do participles vary in their

terminations in order to agree with their subject or actor?--What Rule

applies in parsing a noun in the \_objective case\_, governed by a

participle?--Do participles ever become nouns?--Give examples.

\* \* \* \* \*

PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

Participles are formed by adding to the verb the termination \_ing,

ed\_, or \_en\_. \_Ing\_ signifies the same as the noun \_being\_. When

postfixed to the noun-state of the verb, the compound word thus

formed, expresses a continued state of the verbal denotement. It

implies that what is meant by the verb, is \_being\_ continued. \_En\_

is an alteration of \_an\_, the Saxon verbalizing adjunct; \_ed\_ is a

contraction of \_dede\_; and the terminations \_d\_ and \_t\_, are a

contraction of \_ed\_. Participles ending in \_ed\_ or \_en\_, usually

denote the \_dodo, dede, doed, did, done\_, or \_finished\_ state of

what is meant by the verb. The book is \_printed\_. It is a \_print-ed\_

or \_print-done\_ book, or such a one as the \_done\_ act of \_printing\_

has made it. The book is \_written\_; i.e. it has received the \_done\_

or \_finish-ed\_ act of \_writ-ing\_ it.

Participles bear the same relation to verbs, that adnouns do to

nouns. They might, therefore, be styled \_verbal adjectives\_. But

that theory which ranks them with adnouns, appears to rest on a

sandy foundation. In classifying words, we ought to be guided more

by their \_manner\_ of meaning, and their \_inferential\_ meaning, than

by their primitive, essential signification. "I have a \_broken\_

plate;" i.e. I have a plate--\_broken\_; "I have \_broken\_ a plate." If

there is no difference in the \_essential\_ meaning of the word

\_broken\_, in these two constructions, it cannot be denied, that

there is a wide difference in the meaning--\_inferred\_ by custom;

which difference depends on the \_manner\_ in which the term is

applied. The former construction denotes, that I \_possess\_ a plate

which was \_broken\_, (whether with or without my agency, is not

intimated,) perhaps, one hundred or one thousand years ago; whereas,

the meaning of the latter is, that I \_performed the act\_ of reducing

the plate from a whole to a \_broken\_ state; and it is not intimated

whether I possess it, or some one else. It appears reasonable, that,

in a practical grammar, at least, any word which occurs in

constructions differing so widely, may properly be classed with

different parts of speech. This illustration likewise establishes

the propriety of retaining what we call the \_perfect tense\_ of the

verb.

\* \* \* \* \*

QUESTIONS ON THE PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

How are participles formed?--What does the imperfect part express?--

What do perfect participles denote?

\* \* \* \* \*

LECTURE VI.

OF ADVERBS.

An ADVERB is a word used to modify the sense of a \_verb\_, a\_participle\_,

an \_adjective\_, or another \_adverb\_.

Recollect, an adverb never qualifies a \_noun\_. It qualifies any of the

four parts of speech abovenamed, and none others.

To \_modify\_ or \_qualify\_, you know, means to produce some \_change\_. The

adverb modifies. If I say, Wirt's style \_excels\_ Irving's, the

proposition is affirmative, and the verb \_excels\_ expresses the

affirmation. But when I say, Wirt's style \_excels not\_ Irving's, the

assertion is changed to a negative. What is it that thus modifies or

changes the meaning of the verb \_excels\_? You perceive that it is the

little word \_not\_. This word has power to reverse the meaning of the

sentence. \_Not\_, then, is a modifier, qualifier, or negative adverb.

When an adverb is used to modify the sense of a verb or participle, it

generally expresses the manner, time, or place, in which the action is

performed, or some accidental circumstance respecting it. In the

phrases, The man rides \_gracefully, awkwardly\_, \_badly, swiftly,

slowly\_, &c.; or, I saw the man riding \_swiftly, slowly, leisurely, very

fast\_, &c., you perceive that the words \_gracefully, awkwardly, very

fast\_, &c., are adverbs, qualifying the verb \_rides\_, or the participle

\_riding\_, because they express the \_manner\_ in which the action denoted

by the verb and participle, is done.

In the phrases, The man rides \_daily, weekly, seldom, frequently, often,

sometimes, never\_; or, The man rode \_yesterday, heretofore, long since,

long ago, recently, lately, just now\_ or, The man will ride \_soon,

presently, directly, immediately, by and by, to-day, hereafter\_, you

perceive that all these words in \_italics\_, are adverbs, qualifying the

meaning of the verb, rides, because they express the \_time\_ of the

action denoted by the verb.

Again, if I say, The man lives \_here, near by, yonder, remote, far off,

somewhere, nowhere, everywhere\_, &c., the words in \_italics\_ are adverbs

of \_place\_, because they tell where he lives.

Adverbs likewise qualify adjectives, and sometimes other adverbs; as,

\_more\_ wise, \_most\_ wise; or \_more wisely, most wisely\_. When an adverb

is joined to an adjective or adverb, it generally expresses \_the degree\_

of comparison; for adverbs, like adjectives, have degrees of comparison.

Thus, in the phrase, A skilful artist, you know the adjective \_skilful\_

is in the positive degree; but, by placing the adverb \_more\_ before the

adjective, we increase the degree of quality denoted by the adjective to

the comparative; as, A \_more\_ skilful artist: and \_most\_ renders it

superlative; as, A \_most\_ skilful artist. And if we place more and most

before other adverbs, the effect is the same; as, skilfully, \_more\_

skilfully, \_most\_ skilfully.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

\_Positive\_ \_Comparative\_ \_Superlative\_.

soon sooner soonest.

often oftener oftenest.

much more most.

well better best.

far farther farthest.

wisely more wisely most wisely.

justly more justly most justly.

justly less justly least justly.

You will generally know an adverb at sight; but sometimes you will find

it more difficult to be distinguished, than any other part of speech in

the English language. I will, therefore, give you some \_signs\_ which

will assist you a little.

Most words ending in \_ly\_ are adverbs; such as, \_politely, gracefully,

judiciously\_. Any word or short phrase that will answer to any one of

the questions, \_how? how much? when?\_ or \_where?\_ is an adverb; as, The

river flows \_rapidly\_; He walks \_very fast\_; He has gone \_far away;\_ but

he will \_soon\_ return; She sings \_sweetly\_; They learn \_none at all\_.

How, or in what manner does the river flow? \_Rapidly\_. How does he walk?

\_Very fast\_. Where has he gone? \_Far away\_. When will he return? \_Soon\_.

How does she sing? \_Sweetly\_. How much do they learn? \_None at all\_.

From this illustration, you perceive, that, if you could not tell these

adverbs by the sense, you would know them by their answering to the

questions. However, your better way will be to distinguish adverbs by

considering the office they perform in the sentence; or by noticing

their grammatical relation, or their situation, with respect to other

words. To gain a thorough knowledge of their real character, is highly

important. \_Rapidly, fast, far away, soon, sweetly\_, &c. are known to be

adverbs by their qualifying the sense of verbs. "A \_very\_ good pen

writes \_extremely well." Well\_, in this sentence, is known to be an

adverb by its qualifying the sense of the verb \_writes; extremely\_, by

its ending in \_ly\_, or by its being joined to the adverb \_well\_ to

qualify it; and \_very\_ is known as an adverb by its joining the

adjective \_good\_.

Expressions like these, \_none at all, a great deal, a few days ago, long

since, at length, in vain\_, when they are used to denote the \_manner\_ or

\_time\_ of the action of verbs or participles, are generally termed

\_adverbial phrases\_.

Adverbs, though very numerous, may, for the sake of practical

convenience, be reduced to particular classes.

1. \_Of Number;\_ as, Once, twice, thrice, &c.

2. \_Of Order;\_ as, First, secondly, lastly, finally, &c.

3. \_Of Place;\_ as, Here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, somewhere,

nowhere, herein, whither, hither, thither, upward, downward, forward,

backward, whence, thence, whithersoever, &c.

4. \_Of Time\_. \_Present\_; as, Now, to-day, &c. \_Past\_; as, Already,

before, lately, yesterday, heretofore, hitherto, long since, long ago,

&c. \_Future\_; as, To-morrow, not yet, hereafter, henceforth,

henceforward, by and by, instantly, presently, immediately, ere long,

straightways, &c. \_Time indefinite\_; as, Oft, often, oft-times,

often-times, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly,

always, when, then, ever, never, again, &c.

5. \_Of Quantity\_; as, Much, little, sufficiently, how much, how great,

enough, abundantly, &c.

6. \_Of Manner\_ or \_quality\_; as, Wisely, foolishly, justly, unjustly,

quickly, slowly, &c. Adverbs of quality are the most numerous kind; and

they are generally formed by adding the termination \_ly\_ to an adjective

or a participle, or by changing \_le\_ into \_ly;\_ as, Bad, badly;

cheerful, cheerfully; able, ably; admirable, admirably.

7. \_Of Doubt\_; as, Haply, perhaps, peradventure, possibly, perchance.

8. \_Of Affirmation\_; as, Verily, truly, undoubtedly, doubtless,

certainly, yea, yes, surely, indeed, really, &c.

9. \_Of Negation\_; as, Nay, no, not, by no means, not at all, in no wise,

&c.

10. \_Of Interrogation\_; as, How, why, wherefore, whither, &c., and

sometimes when, whence, where.

11. \_Of Comparison\_; as, More, most, better, best, worse, worst, less,

least, very, almost, little, alike, &c.

NOTES.

1. This catalogue contains but a small portion of the adverbs in our

language. Many adverbs are formed by a combination of prepositions

with the adverbs of place, \_here, there, where\_; as, Hereof,

thereof, whereof; hereto, thereto, whereto; hereby, thereby,

whereby; herewith, therewith, wherewith; herein, therein, wherein;

therefore, (i.e. there-for,) wherefore, (i.e. where-for,) hereupon,

hereon, thereupon, thereon, whereupon, whereon, &c.

2. Some adverbs are composed of nouns or verbs and the letter \_a\_,

used instead of \_at, an\_, &c.; as, Aside, athirst, afoot, asleep,

aboard, ashore, abed, aground, afloat, adrift, aghast, ago, askance,

away, asunder, astray, &c.

You will now please to read this lecture \_four\_ times over, and read

slowly and carefully, for unless you understand well the nature and

character of this part of speech, you will be frequently at a loss to

distinguish it from others in composition. Now do you notice, that, in

this sentence which you have just read, the words \_slowly, carefully,

well\_, and \_frequently\_, are adverbs? And do you again observe, that, in

the question I have just put to you, the words \_now\_ and \_just\_ are

adverbs? Exercise a little sober thought. Fifteen minutes spent in

reflection, are worth whole days occupied in careless reading.

In the following exercises six parts of speech are presented, namely,

Nouns, Verbs, Articles, Adjectives, Participles, and Adverbs; and I

believe you are now prepared to parse them all agreeably to the

systematic order, \_four\_ times over. Those words in \_italics\_ are

adverbs.

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

\_The order of parsing an\_ ADVERB, is--an adverb, and why?--what

sort?--what does it qualify?--RULE.

"My friend has returned \_again\_; but his health is \_not very\_ good."

\_Again\_, is an adverb, a word used to modify the sense of a verb--of

time indefinite, it expresses a period of time not precisely defined--it

qualifies the verb "has returned," according to

Rule 29. \_Adverbs qualify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other

adverbs\_.

\_Not\_ is an adverb, a word used to modify the sense of an adverb--of

negation, it makes the assertion negative; that is, it changes the

proposition from an affirmative to a negative--and it qualifies the

adverb "very," agreeably to Rule 29. \_Adverbs qualify verbs, &c\_.

\_Very\_ is an adverb, a word used to qualify the sense of an

adjective--of comparison, it compares the adjective "good," and

qualifies it according to Rule 29. \_Adverbs qualify adjectives, &c\_.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The traveller described a lofty castle decaying \_gradually. Very\_ few

literary men \_ever\_ became distinguished poets. The great Milton excels

\_not\_ Homer. The Roman women, \_once voluntarily\_ contributed their

\_most\_ precious jewels to save the city.

Many small streams uniting, form \_very\_ large rivers. The river Funza

falling \_perpendicularly\_ forms a vast cataract. Attentive servants

\_always\_ drive horses \_very carefully\_; negligent servants \_often\_ drive

horses \_very carelessly\_. Assiduous scholars improve \_very fast\_; idle

scholars learn \_none at all\_. Friendship \_often\_ ends in love; but love

in friendship, \_never\_.

NOTE. Several adverbs frequently qualify one verb. Have you walked? \_Not

yet quite far enough, perhaps. Not, yet, far\_, and \_enough\_, qualify

"have walked" understood; \_perhaps\_ qualifies \_not\_; and \_quite\_

qualifies \_far\_. The adverbs \_always\_ and \_carefully\_ both qualify the

verb "drive:" the former expresses \_time\_, and the latter, \_manner.

Once\_ and \_voluntarily\_ qualify the verb "contributed;" the former

expresses \_number\_, and the latter, \_manner\_. The word \_their\_ you need

not parse. The active verb \_to save\_ has no nominative. The nouns \_love\_

and \_friendship\_, following \_in\_, are in the objective case, and

governed by that preposition.

REMARKS ON ADVERBS.

When the words \_therefore, consequently, accordingly\_, and the like,

are used in connexion with other conjunctions, they are \_adverbs\_; but

when they appear single, they are commonly considered \_conjunctions\_.

The words \_when\_ and \_where\_, and all others of the same nature, such as

\_whence, whither, whenever, wherever, till, until, before, otherwise,

while, wherefore\_, &c. may be properly called \_adverbial conjunctions\_,

because they participate the nature both of adverbs and conjunctions; of

adverbs, as they denote the attributes either of \_time\_ or \_place\_; of

conjunctions, as they \_conjoin sentences\_.

There are many words that are sometimes used as adjectives, and,

sometimes as adverbs; as, "\_More\_ men than women were there; I am \_more\_

diligent than he." In the former sentence \_more\_ is evidently an

adjective, for it is joined to a noun to qualify it; in the latter it is

an adverb, because it qualifies an adjective. There are others that are

sometimes used as nouns, and sometimes as adverbs; as, "\_to-day's\_

lesson is longer than \_yesterday's\_." In this example, \_to-day\_ and

\_yesterday\_ are nouns in the possessive case; but in phrases like the

following, they are generally considered adverbs of time; "He came [\_to

his] home yesterday\_, and will set out again \_to-day\_." Here they are

nouns, if we supply \_on\_ before them.

"Where \_much [wealth, talent\_, or something else] is given, \_much

[increase, improvement\_] will be required; \_Much\_ money has been

expended; It is \_much\_ better to write than starve." In the first two of

these examples, \_much\_ is an adjective, because it qualifies a noun; in

the last, an adverb, because it qualifies the adjective \_better\_. In

short, you must determine to what part of speech a word belongs, by its

\_sense\_, or by considering the \_manner\_ in which it is associated with

other words.

An adjective may, in general, be distinguished from an \_adverb\_ by this

rule: when a word qualifies a \_noun\_ or \_pronoun\_, it is an adjective,

but when it qualifies a \_verb, participle, adjective\_, or \_adverb\_, it

is an adverb.

Prepositions are sometimes erroneously called adverbs, when their nouns

are understood. "He rides \_about\_;" that is, about the \_town, country\_,

or some-\_thing\_ else. "She was \_near\_ [the \_act\_ or \_misfortune of\_]

falling;" "But do not \_after\_ [that \_time\_ or \_event\_] lay the blame on

me." "He came \_down\_ [the \_ascent\_] from the hill;" "They lifted him

\_up\_ [the \_ascent\_] out of the pit." "The angels \_above\_;"--above

\_us\_--"Above these lower \_heavens\_, to us invisible, or dimly seen."

Before you proceed to correct the following exercises in false Syntax,

you may answer these

QUESTIONS NOT ANSWERED IN PARSING.

Does an adverb ever qualify a noun?--What parts of speech does it

qualify?--When an adverb qualifies a verb or participle, what does it

express?--When an adverb qualifies an adjective or adverb, what does it

generally express?--Compare some adverbs.--By what signs may an adverb

be known?--Give examples.--Repeat some \_adverbial phrases\_.--Name the

different classes of adverbs.--Repeat some of each class.--Repeat the

order of parsing an adverb.--What rule do you apply in parsing an

adverb?

QUESTIONS ON THE NOTES.

Repeat some adverbs that are formed by combining prepositions with

adverbs of place.--Repeat some that are composed of the article \_a\_ and

nouns.--What part of speech are the words, \_therefore, consequently\_,

&c.?--What words are styled \_adverbial conjunctions\_?--Why are they so

called?--Is the same word sometimes used as an adjective, and sometimes

as an adverb?--Give examples.--What is said of \_much\_?--By what rule can

you distinguish an adjective from an adverb?--Do prepositions ever

become adverbs?

\* \* \* \* \*

PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

As the happiness and increasing prosperity of a people essentially

depend on their advancement in science and the arts, and as

language, in all its sublime purposes and legitimate bearings, is

strictly identified with these, it may naturally be supposed, that

that nation which continues, through successive generations,

steadily to progress in the former, will not be neglectful of the

cultivation and refinement of the latter. The truth of this remark

is illustrated by those who have, for many ages, employed the

English language as their medium for the transmission of thought.

Among its refinements may be ranked those procedures by which verbs

and nouns have been so modified and contracted as to form what we

call adverbs, distributives, conjunctions, and prepositions; for I

presume it will be readily conceded, that conciseness, as well as

copiousness and perspicuity in language, is the offspring of

refinement. That an immense amount of time and breath is saved by

the use of adverbs, the following development will clearly

demonstrate. He who is successful in contracting one mode of

expression that is daily used by thirty millions, doubtless does

much for their benefit.

Most adverbs express in one word what would otherwise require two or

more words; as, "He did it \_here\_," for, He did it \_in this place;

there\_, for, \_in that place; where\_, for, \_in what place; now\_, for,

\_at this time. Why\_ means \_for what reason; how--in what mind, mood,

mode\_, or \_manner; exceedingly--to a great degree; very--in an

eminent degree; often\_ and \_seldom\_ signify \_many times, few times\_.

The procedures by which words have been contracted, modified and

combined, to form this class of words, have been various. The most

prolific family of this illegitimate race, are those in \_ly\_, a

contraction of \_like. Gentleman-ly\_, means \_gentleman-like, like\_ a

gentleman. We do not yet say, \_ladily\_, but \_lady-like\_. The north

Britons still say, \_wiselike, manlike\_, instead of, \_wisely, manly\_.

\_Quick\_ comes from \_gwick\_, the past part. of the Anglo-Saxon verb

\_gwiccian\_, to vivify, give life. \_Quick-ly\_ or \_live-ly\_, means, in

a \_quick-like\_ or \_life-like\_ manner; in the manner of a creature

that has \_life. Rapid-ly--rapid-like, like a rapid\_; a \_quick-ly\_ or

\_swift-ly\_ running place in a stream.

\_Al-ways\_, contraction of \_in all ways\_. By a slight transition, it

means \_in\_ or \_at all times. Al-one\_, contraction of \_all-one.

On-ly--one-like. Al-so--all the same\_ (thing.) \_Ever\_--an \_age\_. For

\_ever\_ and \_ever\_--for \_ages\_ and \_ages\_. Ever is not synonymous

with always. \_Never\_--\_ne ever\_. It signifies \_no age, no period of

time. No\_, contraction of \_not. Not\_, a modification of \_no-thing,

noth-ing, naught\_. "He is \_not\_ greater"--is greater \_in

naught\_--\_in no thing\_.

\_Adrift\_ is the past part. \_adrifed, adrif'd, adrift\_; from the

Saxon \_drifan\_, or \_adrifan\_, to drive. \_Ago\_, formerly written

\_ygo, gon, agon, gone, agone\_, is the past part. of the verb \_to

go\_. It refers to time \_gone by. Asunder\_, the Saxon past part.

\_asundren\_, from the verb \_sondrian\_ or \_asondrian\_, to separate.

\_Aloft--on the loft, on luft, on lyft; lyft\_ being the Anglo-Saxon

word for \_air\_ or \_clouds. Astray\_, the part. of \_straegan\_, to

stray. \_Awry\_, part. of \_wry than\_, to writhe.

\_Needs\_--\_need-is\_; anciently, \_nedes\_, nede is.

To-\_wit\_, the infinitive of \_witan\_, to know. It means, \_to be

known\_. \_Ay\_ or \_yea\_ signifies \_have it, enjoy it. Yes\_ is \_ay-es\_,

have, possess, enjoy \_that\_. Our corrupt \_o-yes\_ of the crier, is

the French imperative, \_oyez\_, hear, listen. \_Straight way\_--by a

straight way. \_While--wheel\_; period in which some thing \_whiles\_ or

\_wheels\_ itself round. \_Till\_--to while. \_Per\_, Latin,--the English

\_by\_. Perhaps--per haps, per chance. These examples of derivation

are given with the view to invite the attention of the intelligent

pupil to the "Diversions of Purley, by John Horne Tooke."

\* \* \* \* \*

QUESTIONS ON THE PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

How does the use of adverbs contribute to the conciseness of

language?--Illustrate the fact.--What is said of \_ly, like\_, and

\_quick\_?--How are the following words composed, \_always, alone, only,

also\_?--What is the meaning of \_ever, never, not, adrift, ago, asunder,

aloft, astray, awry\_?--Give the signification of \_needs, to-wit, ye,

yes, o-yes, straightway, while, till\_, and \_per\_.

NOTE. Learners need not answer the questions on the Philosophical Notes,

in this or any other Lecture, unless the teacher deem it expedient.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

NOTE 3, TO RULE 29, Adjectives are sometimes improperly applied as

adverbs; as, indifferent honest; excellent well; miserable poor:--She

writes elegant; He is walking slow.

The adjectives \_indifferent, excellent\_, and \_miserable\_, are here

improperly used, because adjectives do not express the degree of

adjectives or adverbs, but such modifications are denoted by adverbs.

The phrases should, therefore, be, "\_indifferently\_ honest,

\_excellently\_ well, \_miserably\_ poor." \_Elegant\_ and \_slow\_ are also

inaccurate, for it is not the office of the adjective to express the

manner, time, or place of the action of verbs and participles, but it is

\_the office\_ of the adverb. The constructions should be, "She writes

\_elegantly\_; He is walking \_slowly\_."

You may correct the following examples several times over, and explain

the principles that are violated.

FALSE SYNTAX.

He speaks fluent, and reasons coherent.

She reads proper, and writes very neat.

They once lived tolerable well, but now they are miserable poor.

The lowering clouds are moving slow.

He behaved himself submissive, and was exceeding careful not to give

offence.

NOTE 4, TO RULE 29. Adverbs are sometimes improperly used instead of

adjectives; as, "The tutor addressed him in terms rather warm, but

\_suitably\_ to his offence."

The adverb \_suitably\_ is incorrect. It does not express the manner of

the action of the verb "addressed," but it denotes the \_quality\_ of the

noun \_terms\_ understood; for which reason it should be an adjective,

\_suitable\_.

FALSE SYNTAX.

The man was slowly wandering about, \_solitarily\_ and distressed.

He lived in a manner \_agreeably\_ to his condition.

The study of Syntax should be \_previously\_ to that of Punctuation.

He introduced himself in a manner very \_abruptly\_.

\_Conformably\_ to their vehemence of thought, was their vehemence of

gesture.

I saw him \_previously\_ to his arrival.

LECTURE VII

OF PREPOSITIONS.

A PREPOSITION is a word which serves to connect words, and show the

relation between them.

The term \_preposition\_ is derived from the two Latin words, \_pre\_, which

signifies \_before\_, and \_pono, to place\_. Prepositions are so called,

because they are mostly placed before the nouns and pronouns which they

govern in the objective case.

The principal prepositions are presented in the following list, which

you may now commit to memory, and thus you will be enabled to

distinguish them from other parts of speech whenever you see them in

composition.

A LIST OF THE PREPOSITIONS.

of, over, at, after, betwixt,

to, under, near, about, beside,

for, through, up, against, athwart,

by, above, down, unto, towards,

with, below, before, across, notwithstanding,

in, between, behind, around, out of,

into, beneath, off, amidst, instead of,

within, from, on upon, throughout, over against,

without, beyond, among, underneath, according to.

This list contains many words that are sometimes used as conjunctions,

and sometimes as adverbs; but when you shall have become acquainted with

the \_nature\_ of the preposition, and of the conjunction and adverb too,

you will find no difficulty in ascertaining to which of these classes

any word belongs.

By looking at the definition of a preposition, you will notice, that it

performs a \_double\_ office in a sentence, namely, it \_connects\_ words,

and also shows a \_relation\_ between them. I will first show you the use

and importance of this part of speech as a connective. When corn is

ripe--October, it is gathered--the field--men--who

go--hill--hill--baskets,--which they put the ears. You perceive, that in

this sentence there is a total want of connexion and meaning; but let us

fill up each vacancy with a preposition, and the sense will be clear.

"When corn is ripe, \_in\_ October, it is gathered \_in\_ the field \_by\_

men, who go \_from\_ hill \_to\_ hill \_with\_ baskets, \_into\_ which they put

the ears."

From this illustration you are convinced, no doubt, that our language

would be very deficient without prepositions to connect the various

words of which it is composed. It would, in fact, amount to nothing but

nonsense. There is, however, another part of speech that performs this

office, namely, the conjunction. This will be explained in Lecture IX.;

in which lecture you will learn, that the nature of a preposition, as a

connective particle, is nearly allied to that of a conjunction. In the

next place I will show you how prepositions express a \_relation\_ between

words.

The boy's hat is \_under\_ his arm. In this expression, what relation does

the preposition \_under\_ show? You know that \_hat\_ and \_arm\_ are words

used as signs of two objects, or ideas; but \_under\_ is \_not\_ the sign of

a thing you can think of: it is merely the sign of the \_relation\_

existing between the two objects. Hence you may perceive, that since the

word \_under\_ is the sign of the \_relation\_ existing between particular

\_ideas\_, it also expresses a relation existing between the words \_hat\_

and \_arm\_, which words are the representatives of those ideas.

The boy holds his hat \_in\_ his hand. In this sentence the preposition

\_in\_ shows the relation existing between \_hat\_ and \_hand\_, or the

situation, or relative position, each has in regard to the other. And,

if I say, The boy's hat is \_on\_ his head, you perceive that \_on\_ shows

the relation between \_hat\_ and \_head\_. Again, in the expressions, The

boy threw his hat \_up stairs\_--\_under\_ the bed--\_behind\_ the

table--\_through\_ the window--\_over\_ the house--\_across\_ the

street--\_into\_ the water--and so on, you perceive that the several

prepositions express the different relations existing between the \_hat\_

and the other nouns, \_stairs, bed, table, window, house, street\_, and

\_water\_.

A preposition tells \_where\_ a thing is: thus, "The pear is on the

ground, \_under\_ the tree."

Prepositions govern the objective case, but they do \_not\_ express an

action done to some object, as an active-transitive verb or participle

does. When a noun or pronoun follows a preposition, it is in the

objective case, because it is the object of the \_relation\_ expressed by

the preposition, and \_not\_ the object of an \_action\_.

I can now give you a more extensive explanation of the \_objective case\_,

than that which was given in a former lecture. I have already informed

you, that the objective case expresses the object of an action \_or\_ of a

relation; and, also, that there are \_three\_ parts of speech which govern

nouns and pronouns in the objective case, namely, \_active-transitive

verbs, participles derived from transitive verbs\_, and \_prepositions\_. A

noun or pronoun in the objective case, cannot be, at the same time, the

object of an action \_and\_ of a relation. It must be either the object of

an action \_or\_ of a relation. And I wish you particularly to remember,

that whenever a noun or pronoun is governed by a transitive verb or

participle, it is the object of an \_action\_; as, The tutor \_instructs\_

his \_pupils\_; or, The tutor is \_instructing\_ his \_pupils\_; but whenever

a noun or pronoun is governed by a preposition, it is the object of a

\_relation\_; as, The tutor gives good instruction \_to\_ his \_pupils\_.

Before you proceed to parse the following examples, please to review

this lecture, and then the whole seven in the manner previously

recommended, namely, read one or two sentences, and then look off your

book and repeat them two or three times over in your mind. This course

will enable you to retain the most important ideas advanced. If you wish

to proceed with ease and advantage, you must have the subject-matter of

the preceding lectures stored in your mind. Do not consider it an

unpleasant task to comply with my requisitions, for when you shall have

learned thus far, you will understand \_seven\_ parts of speech; and only

\_three\_ more will remain to be learned.

If you have complied with the foregoing request, you may commit the

following \_order\_, and then proceed in parsing.

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

\_The order of parsing a\_ PREPOSITION, is--a preposition, and why?--what

does it connect?--what relation does it show?

"He saw an antelope \_in\_ the \_wilderness."\_

\_In\_ is a preposition, a word which serves to connect words, and show

the relation between them--it connects the words "antelope" and

"wilderness"--and shows the relation between them.

\_Wilderness\_ is a noun, the name of a place--com. the name of a sort or

species--neut. gend. it denotes a thing without sex--third pers. spoken

of--sing. num. it implies but one--and in the objective case, it is the

object of a \_relation\_ expressed by the preposition "in," and governed

by it, according to

RULE 31. \_Prepositions govern the objective case\_.

The genius of our language will not allow us to say, Stand before \_he\_;

Hand the paper to \_they\_. Prepositions \_require\_ the pronoun following

them to be in the objective form, position, or case; and this

requisition amounts to \_government\_. Hence we say, "Stand before \_him\_;"

"Hand the paper to \_them\_." Every preposition expresses a relation, and

every relation must have an \_object\_: consequently, every preposition

must be followed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The all-wise Creator bestowed the power of speech upon man, for the most

excellent uses. Augustus heard the orator pleading the client's cause,

in a flow of most powerful eloquence. Fair Cynthia smiles serenely over

nature's soft repose. Life's varying schemes no more distract the

laboring mind of man. Septimius stabbed Pompey standing on the shore of

Egypt.

A beam of tranquillity often plays round the heart of the truly pious

man. The thoughts of former years glide over my soul, like

swift-shooting meteors over Ardven's gloomy vales.

At the approach of day, night's swift dragons cut the clouds full fast;

and ghosts, wandering here and there, troop home to church-yards.

Love still pursues an ever devious race,

True to the winding lineaments of grace.

\* \* \* \* \*

NOTE.--The words \_my\_ and \_and\_ you need not parse. The noun "meteors,"

following the adverb "like," is in the objective case, and governed by

\_unto\_ understood, according to NOTE 2, under Rule 32. The noun "home"

is governed by \_to\_ understood, according to Rule 32.

REMARKS ON PREPOSITIONS AND VERBS.

A noun or pronoun in the objective case, is often governed by a

preposition understood; as, "Give \_him\_ that book;" that is, "Give that

book \_to\_ him;" "Ortugrul was one \_day\_ wandering," &c. that is, \_on\_

one day. "Mercy gives \_affliction\_ a grace;" that is, Mercy gives a

grace \_to\_ affliction. See Note 1, under Rule 32.

To be able to make a proper use of prepositions, particular attention is

requisite. There is a peculiar propriety to be observed in the use of

\_by\_ and \_with;\_ as, "He walks \_with\_ a staff \_by\_ moonlight;" "He was

taken \_by\_ stratagem, and killed \_with\_ a sword." Put the one

preposition for the other, and say, "He walks \_by\_ a staff \_with\_

moonlight;" "He was taken \_with\_ stratagem, and killed \_by\_ a sword;"

and it will appear, that the latter expressions differ from the former

in signification, more than one, at first view, would be apt to imagine.

Verbs are often compounded of a verb and a \_preposition;\_ as, to

\_up\_hold, to \_with\_stand, to \_over\_look; and this composition gives a

new meaning to the verb; as, to \_under\_stand, to \_with\_draw, to

\_for\_give. But the preposition is more frequently placed after the verb,

and separately from it, like an adverb; in which situation it does not

less affect the sense of the verb, and give it a new meaning; and in all

instances, whether the preposition is placed either before or after the

verb, if it gives a new meaning to the verb, it may be considered as \_a

part of the verb\_. Thus, \_to cast\_ means \_to throw\_; but \_to cast up\_ an

account, signifies \_to compute\_ it; therefore \_up\_ is a part of the

verb. The phrases, \_to fall on, to bear out, to give over\_, convey very

different meanings from what they would if the prepositions \_on, out\_

and \_over\_, were not used. Verbs of this kind are called \_compound\_

verbs.

You may now answer the following

QUESTIONS NOT ANSWERED IN PARSING.

From what words is the term \_preposition\_ derived?--Why is it thus

named?--Repeat the list of prepositions.--Name the three parts of speech

that govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case.--When is a noun or

pronoun in the objective case, the object of an action?--When is it the

object of a relation?--Repeat the order of parsing a preposition.--What

rule do you apply in parsing a noun or pronoun governed by a

preposition?--Does every preposition require an objective case after

it?--Is a noun or pronoun ever governed by a preposition

understood?--Give examples.--What is said of verbs compounded of a verb

and preposition?--Give the origin and meaning of the prepositions

explained in the Philosophical Notes.

\* \* \* \* \*

PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

\_From\_, according to H. Tooke, is the Anglo-Saxon and Gothic noun

\_frum\_, beginning, source, author. "He came \_from (beginning\_)

Rochester." \_Of\_, he supposes to be a fragment of the Gothic and

Saxon noun \_afora\_, consequence, offspring, follower. "Solomon, the

son \_of (offspring\_) David." \_Of\_ or \_off\_, in its modern

acceptation, signifies \_disjoined, sundered\_: A piece \_of (off\_) the

loaf, is, a piece \_disjoined\_, or \_separated\_ from the loaf. The

fragrance \_of\_ or \_off\_ the rose.

\_For\_ signifies \_cause\_. "I write \_for\_ your satisfaction;" i.e.

your satisfaction being the \_cause. By\_ or \_be\_ is the imperative

\_byth\_, of the Saxon \_beon\_, to be. \_With\_, the imperative of

\_withan\_, to join; or, when equivalent to \_by\_, of \_wyr-than\_, to

be. "I will go \_with\_ him." "I, \_join\_ him, will go." \_In\_ comes

from the Gothic noun \_inna\_, the interior of the body; a cave or

cell. \_About\_, from \_boda\_, the first outward boundary. \_Among\_ is

the past part. of \_gamaengan\_, to mingle. \_Through\_ or \_thorough\_ is

the Gothic substantive \_dauro\_, or the Teutonic \_thuruh\_. It means

passage, gate, door.

\_Before\_--\_be-fore, be-hind, be-low, be-side, be-sides, be-neath\_

are formed by combining the imperative, \_be\_, with the nouns \_fore,

hind, low, side, neath. Neath\_--Saxon \_neothan, neothe\_, has the

same signification as \_nadir. Be-tween, be-twixt\_--\_be\_ and \_twain\_.

A dual preposition. \_Be-yond\_--\_be-passed. Beyond\_ a place, means,

\_be passed\_ that place.

\_Notwithstanding--not-stand-ing-with, not-withstanding\_. "Any order

to the contrary not-withstanding," (this order;) i.e. \_not\_

effectually \_withstanding\_ or \_opposing\_ it.

\* \* \* \* \*

LECTURE VIII.

OF PRONOUNS.

A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun, and generally to avoid the

too frequent repetition of the same word. A pronoun is, likewise,

sometimes a substitute for a sentence, or member of a sentence.

The word \_pronoun\_ comes from the two Latin words, \_pro\_, which means

\_for\_, or \_instead of\_, and \_nomen\_, a \_name\_, or \_noun.\_ Hence you

perceive, that \_pronoun\_ means \_for a noun\_, or \_instead of a noun\_.

In the sentence, "The man is happy; \_he\_ is benevolent; \_he\_ is useful;"

you perceive, that the word \_he\_ is used instead of the noun \_man;\_

consequently \_he\_ must be a \_pronoun\_. You observe, too, that, by making

use of the pronoun \_he\_ in this sentence, we avoid the \_repetition\_ of

the \_noun\_ man, for without the pronoun, the sentence would be rendered

thus, "The man is happy; \_the man\_ is benevolent; \_the man\_ is useful."

By looking again at the definition, you will notice, that pronouns

always \_stand for\_ nouns, but they do not always \_avoid the repetition\_

of nouns. \_Repetition\_ means \_repeating\_ or mentioning the same thing

again. In the sentence, "I come to die for my country," the pronouns,

\_I\_ and \_my, stand\_ for the name of the person who speaks; but they do

not \_avoid the repetition\_ of that name, because the name or noun for

which the pronouns are used, is not mentioned at all. Pronouns of the

\_third\_ person, generally avoid the repetition of the nouns for which

they stand; but pronouns of the \_first\_ and \_second\_ person, sometimes

avoid the repetition of nouns, and sometimes they do not.

A little farther illustration of the pronoun will show you its

importance, and, also, that its nature is very easily comprehended. If

we had no pronouns in our language, we should be obliged to express

ourselves in this manner: "A woman went to a man, and told the man that

the man was in danger of being murdered by a gang of robbers; as a gang

of robbers had made preparations for attacking the man. The man thanked

the woman for the woman's kindness, and, as the man was unable to defend

the man's self, the man left the man's house, and went to a neighbor's."

This would be a laborious style indeed; but, by the help of pronouns, we

can express the same ideas with far greater ease and conciseness: "A

woman went to a man, and told \_him\_, that \_he\_ was in great danger of

being murdered by a gang of robbers, \_who\_ had made preparations for

attacking \_him. He\_ thanked \_her\_ for \_her\_ kindness, and, as \_he\_ was

unable to defend \_himself\_, \_he\_ left \_his\_ house and went to a

neighbor's."

If you look at these examples a few moments, you cannot be at a loss to

tell which words are pronouns; and you will observe too, that they all

stand for nouns.

Pronouns are generally divided into three kinds, the \_Personal\_, the

\_Adjective\_, and the \_Relative\_ pronouns. They are all known by the

\_lists\_.

1. OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS. Personal Pronouns are distinguished from the

relative, by their denoting the \_person\_ of the nouns for which they

stand. There are five of them; \_I\_, \_thou, he, she, it\_; with their

plurals, \_We, ye\_ or \_you, they\_.

To pronouns belong gender, person, number, and case.

GENDER. When we speak of a \_man\_, we say, \_he, his, him\_; when we speak

of a \_woman\_, we say, \_she, hers, her\_; and when we speak of a \_thing\_,

we say \_it\_. Hence you perceive, that gender belongs to pronouns as well

as to nouns. Example; "The general, in gratitude to the lady, offered

\_her his\_ hand; but \_she\_, not knowing \_him\_, declined accepting \_it\_."

The pronouns \_his\_ and \_him\_, in this sentence, personate or represent

the noun \_general\_; they are, therefore, of the masculine gender: \_her\_

and \_she\_ personate the \_lady\_; therefore, they are feminine: and \_it\_

represents \_hand\_; for which reason it is of the neuter gender. This

illustration shows you, then, that pronouns must be of the same gender

as the nouns are for which they stand. But, as it relates to the

variation of the pronouns to express the sex,

Gender has respect only to the third person singular of the pronouns,

\_he, she, it. He\_ is masculine; \_she\_ is feminine; \_it\_ is neuter.

You may naturally inquire, why pronouns of the first and second persons

are not varied to denote the gender of their nouns, as well as of the

third. The reason is obvious. The first person, that is, the person

speaking, and the second person, or the person spoken to, being at the

same time the subjects of the discourse, are supposed to be present;

from which, and other circumstances, their sex is commonly known, and,

therefore, the pronouns that represent these persons, need not be marked

by a distinction of gender; but the third person, that is, the person or

thing spoken of, being absent, and in many respects unknown, necessarily

requires the pronoun that stands for it, to be marked by a distinction

of gender.

In parsing, we sometimes apply gender to pronouns of the first and

second person, and also to the plural number of the third person; but

these have no peculiar form to denote their gender; therefore they have

no agreement, in this respect, with the nouns which they represent.

PERSON. Pronouns have three persons in each number.

\_I\_, is the first person }

\_Thou\_, is the second person } Singular.

\_He, she\_, or \_it\_, is the third person }

\_We\_, is the first person }

\_Ye\_ or \_you\_, is the second person } Plural.

\_They\_, is the third person }

This account of persons will be very intelligible, when you reflect,

that there are three persons who may be the subject of any discourse:

first, the person who speaks, may speak of himself; secondly, he may

speak of the person to whom he addresses himself; thirdly, he may speak

of some other person; and as the speakers, the persons spoken to, and

the persons spoken of, may be many, so each of these persons must have a

plural number.

Pronouns of the second and third person, always agree, in person with

the nouns they represent; but pronouns of the first person, do not.

Whenever a pronoun of the first person is used, it represents a noun;

but nouns are \_never\_ of the first person, therefore these pronouns

cannot agree in person with their nouns.

NUMBER. Pronouns, like nouns, have two numbers, the singular and the

plural; as, \_I, thou, he\_; \_we, ye\_ or \_you, they\_.

CASE. Pronouns have three cases, the nominative, the possessive, and the

objective.

In the next place I will present to you the \_declension\_ of the personal

pronouns, which declension you must commit to memory before you proceed

any farther.

The advantages resulting from the committing of the following

declension, are so great and diversified, that you cannot be too

particular in your attention to it. You recollect, that it is sometimes

very difficult to distinguish the nominative case of a noun from the

objective, because these cases of nouns are not marked by a difference

in termination; but this difficulty is removed in regard to the personal

pronouns, for their cases are always known by their termination. By

studying the declension you will learn, not only the cases of the

pronouns, but, also, their genders, persons, and numbers.

DECLENSION OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

\_Sing. \_Plur\_.

\_Nom\_. I, we,

\_Poss\_. my \_or\_ mine, our \_or\_ ours,

\_Obj\_. me. us.

SECOND PERSON.

\_Sing\_. \_Plur\_.

\_Nom\_. thou, ye \_or\_ you,

\_Poss\_. thy \_or\_ thine, your \_or\_ yours,

\_Obj\_. thee. you.

THIRD PERSON.

\_Mas. Sing.\_ \_Plur\_.

\_Nom\_, he, they,

\_Poss\_. his, their \_or\_ theirs,

\_Obj\_. him. them.

THIRD PERSON.

\_Fem. Sing.\_ \_Plur\_.

\_Nom\_. she, they,

\_Poss\_. her \_or\_ hers, their \_or\_ theirs.

\_Obj\_. her. them.

THIRD PERSON.

\_Neut. Sing.\_ \_Plur\_.

\_Nom\_. it, they,

\_Poss\_. its, their \_or\_ theirs,

\_Obj.\_ it. them.

\* \* \* \* \*

NOTES.

1. When \_self\_ is added to the personal pronouns, as himself,

myself, itself, themselves, &c. they are called \_compound personal

pronouns\_, and are used in the nominative or objective case, but not

in the possessive.

2. In order to avoid the disagreeable harshness of sound, occasioned

by the frequent recurrence of the terminations \_est, edst\_, in the

adaptation of our verbs to the nominative \_thou\_, a modern

innovation which substitutes \_you\_ for \_thou\_, in familiar style,

has generally been adopted. This innovation contributes greatly to

the harmony of our colloquial style. \_You\_ was formerly restricted

to the plural number; but now it is employed to represent either a

singular or a plural noun. It ought to be recollected, however, that

when used as the representative of a singular noun, this word

retains its original \_plural form\_; and, therefore, the verb

connected with it, should always be plural. Inattention to this

peculiarity, has betrayed some writers into the erroneous

conclusion, that, because \_you\_ implies unity when it represents a

singular noun, it ought, when thus employed, to be followed by a

singular verb; as, "When \_was you\_ there?" "How far \_was you\_ from

the parties?" Such a construction, however, is not supported by

\_good\_ usage, nor by analogy. It is as manifest a solecism as to

say, We \_am\_, or we \_is\_. Were it, in any case, admissible to

connect a singular verb with \_you\_, the use of \_was\_ would still be

ungrammatical, for this form of the verb is confined to the first and

third persons, and \_you\_ is second person. \_Wast\_ being second

person, it would approximate nearer to correctness to say, you

\_wast\_. We never use the singular of the present tense with

you:--you \_art\_, you \_is\_; you \_walkest\_, you \_walks\_. Why, then,

should any attempt be made to force a usage so unnatural and

gratuitous as the connecting of the singular verb in the past tense

with this pronoun? In every point of view, the construction, "When

\_were\_ you there?" "How far \_were\_ you from the parties?" is

preferable to the other.

3. The words \_my, thy, his, her, our, your, their\_, are, by many,

denominated \_possessive adjective pronouns\_; but they always \_stand

for\_ nouns in the possessive case. They ought, therefore, to be

classed with the \_personal\_ pronouns. That principle of

classification which ranks them with the adjective pronouns, would

also throw all nouns in the possessive case among the adjectives.

Example: "The lady gave the gentleman \_her\_ watch for \_his\_ horse."

In this sentence \_her\_ personates, or stands for, the noun "lady,"

and \_his\_ represents "gentleman." This fact is clearly shown by

rendering the sentence thus, "The lady gave the gentleman the

\_lady's\_ watch for the \_gentleman's\_ horse." If \_lady's\_ and

\_gentleman's\_ are nouns, \_her\_ and \_his\_ must be personal pronouns.

The same remarks apply to \_my, thy, our, your, their\_ and \_its\_.

This view of these words may be objected to by those who speculate

and refine upon the principles of grammar until they prove their

non-existence, but it is believed, nevertheless, to be based on

sound reason and common sense.

4. \_Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs\_, have, by many

respectable grammarians, been considered merely the possessive cases

of personal pronouns, whilst, by others, they have been denominated

pronouns or nouns in the nominative or objective case. It is

believed, however, that a little attention to the meaning and office

of these words, will clearly show the impropriety of both these

classifications. Those who pursue the former arrangement, allege,

that, in the examples, "You may imagine what kind of faith \_theirs\_

was; My pleasures are past; \_hers\_ and \_yours\_ are to come; they

applauded his conduct, but condemned \_hers\_ and \_yours\_," the words

\_theirs, hers\_, and \_yours\_, are personal pronouns in the possessive

case, and governed by their respective nouns understood. To prove

this, they construct the sentence thus, "You may imagine what kind

of faith \_their faith\_ was;--\_her pleasures\_ and \_your pleasures\_

are to come;--but condemned \_her conduct\_ and \_your conduct\_;" or

thus, "You may imagine what kind of faith the faith of them

was;--the pleasures of her and the pleasures of you, are to come;--

but condemned the conduct of her and the conduct of you." But these

constructions, (both of which are correct,) prove too much for their

purpose; for, as soon as we supply the nouns after these words, they

are resolved into personal pronouns of kindred meaning, and the

nouns which we supply: thus, \_theirs\_ becomes, their faith: \_hers\_,

her pleasures; and \_yours\_, your pleasures. This evidently gives us

two words instead of, and altogether distinct from, the first; so

that, in parsing, \_their faith\_, we are not, in reality, analyzing

\_theirs\_, but two other words of which \_theirs\_ is the proper

representative. These remarks also prove, with equal force, the

impropriety of calling these words merely simple pronouns or nouns

in the nominative or objective case. Without attempting to develop

the original or intrinsic meaning of these pluralizing adjuncts,

\_ne\_ and \_s\_, which were, no doubt, formerly detached from the

pronouns with which they now coalesce, for all practical purposes,

it is sufficient for us to know, that, in the present application of

these pronouns, they invariably stand for, not only the person

possessing, but, also the thing possessed, which gives them a

\_compound\_ character. They may, therefore, be properly denominated

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS; and, as they always perform a double

office in a sentence by representing two other words, and,

consequently, including two cases, they should, like the compound

relative \_what\_, be parsed as two words. Thus, in the example, "You

may imagine what kind of faith theirs was," \_theirs\_ is a compound

personal pronoun, equivalent to \_their faith. Their\_ is a pronoun, a

word used instead of a noun; personal, it personates the persons

spoken of, understood; third pers. plur. numb., &c.--and in the

possessive case, and governed by "faith," according to Rule 12.

\_Faith\_ is a noun, the name of a thing, &c. &c.--and in the

nominative case to "was," and governs it; Rule 3. Or, if we render

the sentence thus, "You may imagine what kind of faith \_the faith of

them[4]\_ was," \_faith\_ would be in the nominative case to "was," and

\_them\_ would be in the objective case, and governed by "of:" Rule

31.

[4] In the note next preceding, it is asserted, that my, thy, his,

her, our your, and their, are personal pronouns. What can more

clearly demonstrate the correctness of that assertion, than this

latter construction of the word theirs? All admit, that, in the

construction, "The faith \_of them\_," the word \_them\_, is a personal

pronoun: and for this conclusive reason:--it represents a noun

understood. What, then, is \_their\_, in the phrase, "their faith?" Is

it not obvious, that, if \_them\_ is a personal pronoun, \_their\_ must

be, also? for the latter represents the same noun as the former.

Objections to this method of treating these pronouns, will doubtless

be preferred by those who assert, that a noun is understood after

these words, and not represented by them. But this is assertion

without proof; for, if a noun were understood, it might be supplied.

If the question be put, whose book? and the answer be, \_mine, ours,

hers\_, or \_theirs\_, the word book is included in such answer. Were

it not included, we might supply it, thus, mine \_book\_, ours \_book\_,

hers \_book\_, and so on. This, however, we cannot do, for it would be

giving a \_double\_ answer: but when the question is answered by a

noun in the possessive case, the word book is not included, but

implied; as, Whose book? John's, Richard's; that is, John's \_book\_;

Richard's \_book\_.

This view of the subject, without a parallel, except in the

compounds \_what, whoever\_, and \_others\_, is respectfully submitted

to the public; believing, that those who approve of a critical

analysis of words, will coincide with me. Should any still be

disposed to treat these words so superficially as to rank them among

the simple pronouns, let them answer the following interrogatory: If

\_what\_, when compound, should be parsed as two words, why not \_mine,

thine, his, hers, ours, yours\_, and \_theirs\_?

5. \_Mine\_ and \_thine\_, instead of \_my\_ and \_thy\_, are used in solemn

style, before a word beginning with a vowel or silent \_h\_; as, "Blot

out all \_mine\_ iniquities;" and when thus used, they are not

compound. \_His\_ always has the same form, whether simple or

compound; as, "Give John \_his\_ book; That desk is \_his." Her\_, when

placed before a noun, is in the possessive case; as, Take \_her\_ hat:

when standing alone, it is in the objective case; as, Give the hat

to \_her\_.

When you shall have studied this lecture attentively, and committed the

\_declension\_ of the personal pronouns, you may commit the following

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

\_The order of parsing a\_ PERSONAL PRONOUN, is--a pronoun, and

why?--personal, and why?--person, and why?--gender and number, and

why?--RULE: case, and why?--RULE.--Decline it.

There are many peculiarities to be observed in parsing personal pronouns

in their different persons; therefore, if you wish ever to parse them

correctly, you must pay particular attention to the manner in which the

following are analyzed. Now notice, particularly, and you will perceive

that we apply only \_one\_ rule in parsing \_I\_ and \_my\_, and \_two\_ in

parsing \_thou, him\_, and \_they\_.

"\_I\_ saw \_my\_ friend."

\_I\_ is a pronoun, a word used instead of a noun--personal, it represents

the person speaking, understood--first person, it denotes the

speaker--singular number, it implies but one--and in the nominative

case, it represents the actor and subject of the verb "saw," and governs

it, agreeably to RULE 3. \_The nom. case gov. the verb\_. Declined--first

pers. sing. num. nom. I, poss. my or mine, obj. me. Plur. nom. we, poss.

our or ours, obj. us.

\_My\_ is a pronoun, a word used instead of a noun--personal, it

personates the person speaking, understood--first pers. it denotes the

speaker--sing. num. it implies but one--and in the possessive case, it

denotes possession; it is governed by the noun "friend", agreeably to

RULE 12. \_A noun or pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the

noun it possesses\_. Declined--first pers. sing. nom. I, poss. my or

mine, obj. me. Plur. nom. we, poss. our or ours, obj. us.

"Young man, \_thou\_ hast deserted thy companion, and left \_him\_ in

distress."

\_Thou\_ is a pronoun, a word used instead of a noun--personal, it

personates "man"--second person, it represents the person spoken

to--mas. gend. sing. num. because the noun "man" is for which it stands,

according to RULE 13. \_Personal pronouns must agree with the nouns for

which they stand in gender and number\_.

\_Thou\_ is in the nom. case, it represents the actor and subject of the

verb "hast deserted," and governs it agreeably to RULE 3. \_The nom. case

governs the verb.\_ Declined--sec. pers. sing. num. nom. thou, poss. thy

or thine, obj. thee. Plur. nom. ye or you, poss. your or yours, obj.

you.

\_Him\_ is a pronoun, a word used instead of a noun--personal, it

personates "companion"--third pers. it represents the person spoken

of--mas. gend. sing. num. because the noun "companion" is for which it

stands: RULE 13. \_Pers. pro. &c\_. (Repeat the Rule.)--\_Him\_ is in the

objective case, the object of the action expressed by the

active-transitive verb "hast left," and gov. by it: RULE 20.

\_Active-trans. verbs gov. the obj. case\_. Declined--third pers. mas.

gend. sing. num. nom. he, poss. his, obj. him. Plur. nom. they, poss.

their or theirs, obj. them.

"Thrice I raised my voice, and called the chiefs to combat, but

\_they\_ dreaded the force of my arm."

\_They\_ is a pronoun, a word used instead of a noun--personal, it

represents "chiefs"--third pers. it denotes the persons spoken of--mas.

gend. plur. num. because the noun "chiefs" is for which it stands: RULE

13. \_Pers. Pron. &c\_. (Repeat the Rule.) It is the nom. case, it

represents the actors and subject of the verb "dreaded," and governs it:

RULE 3. \_The nom. case, gov. the verb\_. Declined--third pers. mas. gend.

sing. num. nom. he, poss. his, obj. him. Plur. nom. they, poss. their or

theirs, obj. them.

NOTE. We do not apply gender in parsing the personal pronouns,

(excepting the third person singular,) if the nouns they represent are

understood; and therefore we do not, in such instances, apply Rule 13.

But when the noun is expressed, gender should be applied, and \_two\_

Rules.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

I saw a man leading his horse slowly over the new bridge. My friends

visit me very often at my father's office. We improve ourselves by close

application. Horace, thou learnest many lessons. Charles, you, by your

diligence, make easy work of the task given you by your preceptor. Young

ladies, you run over your lessons very carelessly. The stranger drove

his horses too far into the water, and, in so doing, he drowned them.

Gray morning rose in the east. A green narrow vale appeared before us:

its winding stream murmured through the grove. The dark host of Rothmar

stood on its banks, with their glittering spears. We fought along the

vale. They fled. Rothmar sunk beneath my sword. Day was descending in

the west, when I brought his arms to Crothar. The aged hero felt them

with his hands: joy brightened his thoughts.

NOTE. \_Horace, Charles\_, and \_ladies\_, are of the second person, and

nom. case \_independent\_: see RULE 5, and NOTE. The first \_you\_ is used

in the nom. poss. and obj. case.--It represents Charles, therefore it is

\_singular\_ in sense, although plural in form. In the next example, \_you\_

personifies \_ladies\_, therefore it is \_plural. Given\_ is a perfect

participle. \_You\_ following given, is governed by \_to\_ understood,

according to NOTE 1, under Rule 32. \_Run over\_ is a compound verb. \_And\_

is a conjunction. The first \_its\_ personates vale; the second \_its\_

represents stream.

You may now parse the following examples three times over.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

"Juliet, retain her paper, and present \_yours\_."

\_Yours\_ is a compound personal pronoun, representing both the possessor

and the thing possessed, and is equivalent to \_your paper\_. \_Your\_ is a

pronoun, a word used instead of a noun--personal, it personates

"Juliet"--second person, it represents the person spoken to--fem.

gender, sing. number, (singular in sense, but \_plural\_ in form,) because

the noun Juliet is for which it stands: Rule 13. \_Pers. Pron.

&c\_.--\_Your\_ is in the possessive case, it denotes possession, and is

governed by "paper," according to Rule 12. \_A noun or pron. &c.\_ (Repeat

the Rule, and decline the pronoun.) \_Paper\_ is a noun, the name of a

thing--common, the name of a sort of things--neuter gender, it denotes a

thing without sex--third person, spoken of--sing. number, it implies but

one--and in the obj. case, it is the object of the action expressed by

the transitive verb "present," and governed by it: Rule 20.

\_Active-transitive verbs govern the obj. case\_.

NOTE. Should it be objected, that \_yours\_ does not mean \_your paper\_,

any more than it means \_your book, your house, your\_ any thing, let it

be borne in mind, that pronouns have no \_definite\_ meaning, like other

words; but their \_particular\_ signification is always determined by the

nouns they represent.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Julia injured her book, and soiled mine: hers is better than mine. My

friend sacrificed his fortune to secure yours: his deeds deserve reward;

yours merit disgrace. Henry's labors are past; thine are to come. We

leave your forests of beasts for ours of men. My sword and yours are

kin.

NOTE. \_She\_ understood, is nominative to \_soiled\_, in the first example;

and the substantive part of \_mine\_, after than, is nom. to \_is\_,

understood: Rule 35. The verbs \_to secure\_ and \_to come\_ have no

nominative. The pronouns \_mine, my, yours, thine, we, your, ours, my\_,

and \_yours\_, personate nouns understood.

REMARKS ON \_IT\_.

For the want of a proper knowledge of this little pronoun \_it\_, many

grammarians have been greatly puzzled how to dispose of it, or how to

account for its multiform, and, seemingly, contradictory characters. It

is in great demand by writers of every description. They use it without

ceremony; either in the nominative or objective case; either to

represent one person or thing, or more than one. It is applied to nouns

in the masculine, feminine, or neuter gender, and, very frequently, it

represents a member of a sentence, a whole sentence, or a number of

sentences taken in a mass.

A little attention to its true character, will, at once, strip it of all

its mystery. \_It\_, formerly written \_hit\_, according to H. Tooke, is the

past participle of the Moeso-Gothic verb \_haitan\_. It means, \_the said\_,

and, therefore, like its near relative \_that\_, meaning, \_the assumed\_,

originally had no respect, in its application, to number, person, or

gender. "\_It\_ is a wholesome law;" i.e. \_the\_ \_said\_ (law) is a

wholesome law; or, \_that\_ (law) is a wholesome law;--\_the assumed\_ (law)

is a wholesome law. "\_It\_ is the man; I believe \_it\_ to be them:"--\_the

said\_ (man) is the man; \_that\_ (man) is the man: I believe \_the said\_

(persons) to be them; I believe \_that\_ persons (according to the ancient

application of \_that\_) to be them. "\_It\_ happened on a summer's day,

that many people were assembled," &c.--Many people were assembled: \_it,

that\_, or \_the said\_ (fact or circumstance) happened on a summer's day.

\_It\_, according to its accepted meaning in modern times, is not referred

to a noun understood after it, but is considered a substitute. "How is

\_it\_ with you?" that is, "How is your \_state\_ or \_condition\_?" "\_It\_

rains; \_It\_ freezes; \_It\_ is a hard winter;"--\_The rain\_ rains; \_The

frost\_ frosts or freezes; \_The said\_ (winter) is a hard winter. "\_It\_ is

delightful to see brothers and sisters living in uninterrupted love to

the end of their days." What is delightful? \_To see brothers and sisters

living in uninterrupted love to the end of their days. It, this thing\_,

is delightful. \_It\_, then, stands for all that part of the sentence

expressed in italics; and the sentence will admit of the following

construction; "To see brothers living in uninterrupted love to the end

of their days, is delightful."

\* \* \* \* \*

OF ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS, PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES, or, more properly, SPECIFYING

ADJECTIVES, are a kind of adjectives which point out nouns by some

distinct specification.

Pronouns and adjectives are totally distinct in their character. The

former \_stand for\_ nouns, and never belong to them; the latter \_belong

to\_ nouns, and never stand for them. Hence, such a thing as an

\_adjective-pronoun\_ cannot exist. \_Each, every, either, this, that,

some, other\_, and the residue, are pure adjectives.

Those specifying adjectives commonly called Adjective Pronouns, may be

divided into three sorts; the \_distributive\_, the \_demonstrative\_, and

the \_indefinite\_. They are all known by the \_lists\_.

I. The \_distributive adjectives\_ are those that denote the persons or

things that make up a number, each taken separately and singly. \_List:

each, every, either\_, and sometimes \_neither\_; as, "\_Each\_ of his

brothers is in a favorable situation;" "\_Every\_ man must account for

himself;" "\_Neither\_ of them is industrious."

These distributives are words which are introduced into language in its

refined state, in order to express the nicest shades and colors of

thought. "\_Man\_ must account for himself;" "\_Mankind\_ must account for

themselves;" "\_All men\_ must account for themselves;" "\_All men, women,\_

and \_children,\_ must account for themselves;" "\_Every man\_ must account

for himself." Each of these assertions conveys the same fact or truth.

But the last, instead of presenting the whole human family for the mind

to contemplate in a mass, by the peculiar force of \_every, distributes\_

them, and presents each separately and singly; and whatever is affirmed

of one individual, the mind instantaneously transfers to the whole human

race.

\_Each\_ relates to two or more persons or things, and signifies either of

the two, or every one of any number taken separately.

\_Every\_ relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of

them all taken separately.

\_Either\_ relates to \_two\_ persons or things taken separately, and

signifies the one or the other. "\_Either\_ of the \_three\_," is an

improper expression. It should be, "any of the three."

\_Neither\_ imports \_not either\_; that is, not one nor the other; as,

"\_Neither\_ of my friends was there." When an allusion is made to more

than \_two, none\_ should be used instead of \_neither\_; as, "\_None\_ of my

friends was there."

\* \* \* \* \*

II. The \_demonstrative\_ are those which precisely point out the subject

to which they relate. \_List: this\_ and \_that\_, and their plurals,

\_these\_ and \_those\_, and \_former\_ and \_latter\_; as, "\_This\_ is true

charity; "\_that\_ is only its image."

There is but a slight shade of difference in the meaning and application

of \_the\_ and \_that\_. When reference is made to a particular book, we

say, "Take \_the\_ book;" but when we wish to be very pointed and precise,

we say, "Take \_that\_ book;" or, if it be near by, "Take \_this\_ book."

You perceive, then, that these demonstratives have all the force of the

definite article, and a little more.

\_This\_ and \_these\_ refer to the nearest persons or things, \_that\_ and

\_those\_ to the most distant; as, "\_These\_ goods are superior to those."

\_This\_ and \_these\_ indicate the latter, or last mentioned; \_that\_ and

\_those\_, the former, or first mentioned; as, "Both \_wealth\_ and

\_poverty\_ are temptations; \_that\_ tends to excite pride, \_this\_,

discontent."

"\_Some\_ place the bliss in action, \_some\_ in ease;

\_Those\_ call it pleasure, and contentment, \_these\_."

\_They, those\_. As it is the office of the personal \_they\_ to represent a

noun previously introduced to our notice, there appears to be a slight

departure from analogy in the following application of it: "\_They\_ who

seek after wisdom, are sure to find her: \_They\_ that sow in tears,

sometimes reap in joy." This usage, however, is well established, and

\_they\_, in such constructions, is generally employed in preference to

\_those\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

III. The \_indefinite\_ are those which express their subjects in an

indefinite or general manner. \_List: some, other, any, one, all, such,

both, same, another none\_. Of these, \_one\_ and \_other\_ are declined like

nouns. \_Another\_ is declined, but wants the plural.

The indefinite adjectives, like the indefinite article, leave the

meaning unfixed, or, in some degree, vague. With a slight shade of

difference in meaning, we say, Give me \_a\_ paper, \_one\_ paper, \_any\_

paper, \_some\_ paper, and so on. Though these words restrict the meaning

of the noun, they do not fix it to a \_particular\_ object. We therefore

call them indefinite.

These adjectives, or adjective pronouns, frequently belong to nouns

understood, in which situation they should be parsed accordingly; as

"You may take \_either\_; He is pleased with \_this\_ book, but dislikes

\_that\_ (book;) \_All\_ (men) have sinned, but \_some\_ (men) have repented."

The words, \_one, other\_, and \_none\_, are used in both numbers; and, when

they \_stand for\_ nouns, they are not adjectives, but indefinite

\_pronouns\_; as, "The great \_ones\_ of the world have their failings;"

"Some men increase in wealth, while \_others\_ decrease;" "\_None\_ escape."

The word "ones," in the preceding example, does not belong to a noun

understood. If it did, we could supply the noun. The meaning is not "the

great one men, nor ones men," therefore \_one\_ is not an adjective

pronoun; but the meaning is, "The great \_men\_ of the world," therefore

\_ones\_ is a pronoun of the indefinite kind, representing the noun \_men\_

understood, and it ought to be parsed like a personal pronoun. The word

\_others\_, in the next example, is a compound pronoun, equivalent to

\_other men\_; and should be parsed like \_mine, thine\_, &c. See Note 4th,

page 100.

I will now parse two pronouns, and then present some examples for you to

analyze. If, in parsing the following exercises, you should be at a loss

for definitions and rules, please to refer to the compendium. But before

you proceed, you may commit the following

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

The order of parsing an ADJECTIVE PRONOUN, is--an adjective pronoun, and

why?--distributive, demonstrative, or indefinite, and why?--to what

noun does it belong, or with what does it agree?--RULE.

"\_One\_ man instructs many \_others." One\_ is an adjective pronoun, or

specifying adjective, it specifically points out a noun--indefinite, it

expresses its subject in an indefinite or general manner, and belongs to

the noun "man," according to RULE 19. \_Adjective pronouns belong to

nouns, expressed or understood\_.

\_Others\_ is a compound pronoun, including both an adjective pronoun and

a noun, and is equivalent to \_other men\_. \_Other\_ is an adjective

pronoun, it is used specifically to describe its noun--indefinite, it

expresses its subject in an indefinite manner, and belongs to \_men\_:

Rule 19. (Repeat the rule.) \_Men\_ is a noun, a name denoting

persons--common, &c. (parse it in full;) and in the objective case, it

is the object of the action expressed by the transitive verb

"instructs," and gov. by it: Rule 20. \_Active-transitive verbs, &c\_.

"\_Those\_ books are \_mine\_."

\_Those\_ is an adjective pronoun, it specifies what noun is referred

to--demonstrative, it precisely points out the subject to which it

relates--and agrees with the noun "books" in the plural number,

according to NOTE 1, under Rule 19. \_Adjective pronouns must agree in

number with their nouns\_.

\_Mine\_ is a compound personal pronoun, including both the possessor and

the thing possessed, and is equivalent to \_my books\_. \_My\_ is a pron. a

word used instead of a noun--personal, it stands for the name of the

person speaking--first person, it denotes the speaker--sing. number, it

implies but one--and in the poss. case, it denotes possession, and is

gov. by "books," according to Rule 12. (Repeat the rule, and decline

the pronoun.) \_Books\_ is a noun, the name of a thing--common, &c. (parse

it in full;)--and in the nominative case after "are," according to RULE

21. \_The verb\_ to be \_admits the same case after it as before it\_.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Each individual fills a space in creation. Every man helps a little.

These men rank among the great ones of the world. That book belongs to

the tutor, this belongs to me. Some men labor, others labor not; the

former increase in wealth, the latter decrease. The boy wounded the old

bird, and stole the young ones. None performs his duty too well. None of

those poor wretches complain of their miserable lot.

NOTE. In parsing the distributive pronominal adjectives, NOTE 2, undo

Rule 19, should be applied.

\* \* \* \* \*

III. OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Relative Pronouns are such as relate, in general, to some word or phrase

going before, which is called the antecedent. They are \_who, which\_, and

\_that\_.

The word \_antecedent\_, comes from the two Latin words, \_ante, before\_,

and \_cedo, to go\_. Hence you perceive, that antecedent means going

before; thus, "The \_man\_ is happy \_who\_ lives virtuously; This is the

\_lady who\_ relieved my wants; \_Thou who\_ lovest wisdom, &c. \_We who\_

speak from experience," &c. The relative who, in these sentences,

relates to the several words, \_man, lady, thou\_, and \_we\_, which words,

you observe, come before the relative: they are, therefore, properly

called antecedents.

The relative is not varied on account of gender, person, or number, like

a personal pronoun. When we use a personal pronoun, in speaking of a

man, we say \_he\_, and of a woman, \_she\_; in speaking of one person or

thing, we use a singular pronoun, of more than one, a plural, and so on;

but there is no such variation of the relative. \_Who\_, in the first of

the preceding examples, relates to an antecedent of the mas. gend. third

pers. sing.; in the second, the antecedent is of the fem. gend.; in the

third, it is of the second pers.; and in the fourth, it is of the first

pers. plur. num.; and, yet, the relative is in the same form in each

example. Hence you perceive, that the relative has no peculiar \_form\_ to

denote its gend. pers. and num., but it always agrees with its

antecedent \_in sense\_. Thus, when I say, The \_man who\_ writes, \_who\_ is

mas. gend. and sing.; but when I say, The \_ladies who\_ write, \_who\_ is

feminine, and plural. In order to ascertain the gend. pers. and num. of

the relative, you must always look at its antecedent.

WHO, WHICH, and THAT.

\_Who\_ is applied to \_persons, which\_ to \_things\_ and \_brutes\_; as, "He

is a \_friend who\_ is faithful in adversity; The \_bird which\_ sung so

sweetly, is flown; This is the \_tree which\_ produces no fruit."

\_That\_ is often used as a relative, to prevent the too frequent

repetition of \_who\_ and \_which\_. It is applied both to persons and

things; as, "\_He that\_ acts wisely, deserves praise; Modesty is a

\_quality that\_ highly adorns a woman."

NOTES.

1. \_Who\_ should never be applied to animals. The following

application of it is erroneous:--"He is like a \_least\_ of prey,

\_who\_ destroys without pity." It should be, \_that\_ destroys, &c.

2. \_Who\_ should not be applied to children. It is incorrect to say,

"The \_child whom\_ we have just seen," &c. It should be, "The child

\_that\_ we have just seen."

3. \_Which\_ may be applied to persons when we wish to distinguish one

person of two, or a particular person among a number of others; as,

"\_Which\_ of the two? \_Which\_ of them is he?"

4. \_That\_, in preference to \_who\_ or \_which\_, is applied to persons

when they are qualified by an adjective in the superlative degree,

or by the pronominal adjective \_same\_; as, "Charles XII., king of

Sweden, was one of the \_greatest\_ madmen \_that\_ the world ever

saw;--He is the \_same\_ man \_that\_ we saw before."

5. \_That\_ is employed after the interrogative \_who\_, in cases like

the following; "Who \_that\_ has any sense of religion, would have

argued thus?"

When the word \_ever\_ or \_soever\_ is annexed to a relative pronoun, the

combination is called a \_compound pronoun\_; as, \_whoever\_ or \_whosoever,

whichever\_ or \_whichsoever, whatever\_ or \_whatsoever\_.

DECLENSION OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

\_Nom.\_ who, \_Poss.\_ whose, \_Obj.\_ whom.

" whoever, " whosever, " whomever.

" whosoever, " whosesoever, " whomsoever.

\_Which\_ and \_that\_ are indeclinable, except that \_whose\_ is sometimes

used as the possessive case of \_which\_; as, "Is there any other doctrine

\_whose\_ followers are punished;" that is, the followers \_of which\_ are

punished. The use of this license has obtained among our best writers;

but the construction is not to be recommended, for it is a departure

from a plain principle of grammar, namely, who, whose, whom, in their

applications, should be confined to rational beings.

\_That\_ may be used as a pronoun, an adjective, and a conjunction,

depending on the office which it performs in the sentence.

\_That\_ is a relative only when it can be changed to \_who\_ or \_which\_

without destroying the sense; as, "They \_that\_ (who) reprove us, may be

our best friends; From every thing \_that\_ (which) you see, derive

instruction." \_That\_ is a demonstrative adjective, when it belongs to,

or points out, some particular noun, either expressed or implied; as,

"Return \_that\_ book; \_That\_ belongs to me; Give me \_that\_." When \_that\_

is neither a relative nor an adjective pronoun, it is a conjunction; as,

"Take care \_that\_ every day be well employed." The word \_that\_, in this

last sentence, cannot be changed to \_who\_ or \_which\_ without destroying

the sense, therefore you know it is not a relative pronoun; neither does

it point out any particular noun, for which reason you know it is not an

adjective pronoun; but it connects the sentence, therefore it is a

conjunction.

If you pay particular attention to this elucidation of the word \_that\_,

you will find no difficulty in parsing it. When it is a relative or an

adjective pronoun, it may be known by the signs given; and whenever

these signs will not apply to it, you know it is a conjunction.

Some writers are apt to make too free use of this word. I will give you

one example of affronted \_that\_, which may serve as a caution. The tutor

said, in speaking of the word that, that that that that that lady

parsed, was not the that that that gentleman requested her to analyze.

This sentence, though rendered inelegant by a bad choice of words, is

strictly grammatical. The first \_that\_ is a noun; the second, a

conjunction; the third, an adjective pronoun; the fourth, a noun; the

fifth, a relative pronoun; the sixth, an adjective pronoun; the seventh,

a noun; the eighth, a relative pronoun; the ninth, an adjective pronoun.

The meaning of the sentence will be more obvious, if rendered thus; The

tutor said, in speaking of the word that, that that that \_which\_ that

lady parsed, was not the that \_which\_ that gentleman requested her to

analyze.

WHAT.

\_What\_ is generally a compound relative, including both the antecedent

and the relative, and is equivalent to \_that which\_; as, "This is \_what\_

I wanted;" that is, \_that which\_, or, \_the thing which\_ I wanted.

\_What\_ is compounded of \_which that\_. These words have been contracted

and made to coalesce, a part of the orthography of both being still

retained: \_what--wh[ich--t]hat\_; (\_which-that\_.) Anciently it appeared

in the varying forms, \_tha qua, qua tha, qu'tha, quthat, quhat, hwat\_,

and finally, \_what\_.

\_What\_ may be used as three kinds of a pronoun, and as an interjection.

When it is equivalent to \_that which, the thing which\_, or \_those things

which\_, it is a compound relative, because it includes both the

antecedent and the relative; as, "I will try \_what\_ (that which) can be

found in female delicacy; \_What\_ you recollect with most pleasure, are

the virtuous actions of your past life;" that is, \_those things which\_

you recollect, &c.

When \_what\_ is a compound relative, you must always parse it as two

words; that is, you must parse the antecedent part as a noun, and give

it a case; the relative part you may analyze like any other relative,

giving it a case likewise. In the first of the preceding examples,

\_that\_, the antecedent part of \_what\_, is in the obj. case, governed by

the verb "will try;" \_which\_, the relative part, is in the nom. case to

"can be found." "I have heard \_what\_ (i.e. \_that which\_, or \_the thing

which\_) has been alleged."

\_Whoever\_ and \_whosoever\_ are also compound relatives, and should be

parsed like the compound \_what\_; as, "\_Whoever\_ takes that oath, is

bound to enforce the laws." In this sentence, \_whoever\_ is equivalent to

\_he who\_, or, \_the man who\_; thus, "\_He who\_ takes that oath, is bound,"

&c.

\_Who, which\_, and \_what\_, when used in asking questions, are called

interrogative pronouns, or relatives of the interrogative kind; as,

\_"Who\_ is he? \_Which\_ is the person? \_What\_ are you doing?"

Interrogative pronouns have no antecedent; but they relate to the word

or phrase which is the answer to the question, for their subsequent; as,

"\_Whom\_ did you see? The \_preceptor. What\_ have you done? \_Nothing\_."

Antecedent and subsequent are opposed to each other in signification.

Antecedent means preceding, or going before; and subsequent means

following, or coming after. \_What\_, when used as an interrogative, is

never compound.

\_What, which\_, and \_that\_, when joined to nouns, are specifying

adjectives, or adjective pronouns, in which situation they have no case,

but are parsed like adjective pronouns of the demonstrative or

indefinite kind; as, "Unto \_which\_ promise our twelve tribes hope to

come;" "\_What\_ misery the vicious endure! \_What\_ havock hast thou made,

foul monster, sin!"

\_What\_ and \_which\_, when joined to nouns in asking questions, are

denominated interrogative pronominal adjectives; as, "\_What man\_ is

that? \_Which road\_ did he take?"

\_What, whatever\_, and \_whatsoever, which, whichever\_, and \_whichsoever\_,

in constructions like the following, are compound pronouns, but not

compound relatives; as, "In \_what\_ character Butler was admitted, is

unknown; Give him \_what\_ name you choose; Nature's care largely endows

\_whatever\_ happy man will deign to use her treasures; Let him take

\_which\_ course, or, \_whichever\_ course he will." These sentences may be

rendered thus; "\_That\_ character, or, \_the\_ character in \_which\_ Butler

was admitted, is unknown; Give him \_that\_ name, or, \_the\_ name \_which\_

you choose; Nature's care endows \_that\_ happy man \_who\_ will deign, &c.;

Let him take \_that\_ course, or \_the\_ course \_which\_ he will." A compound

relative necessarily includes both an antecedent and a relative. These

compounds, you will notice, do not include antecedents, the first part

of each word being the article \_the\_, or the adjective pronoun, \_that\_;

therefore they cannot properly be denominated compound relatives.--With

regard to the word \_ever\_ annexed to these pronouns, it is a singular

fact, that, as soon as we analyze the word to which it is subjoined,

\_ever\_ is entirely excluded from the sentence.

\_What\_ is sometimes used as an interjection; as, "But \_what!\_ is thy

servant a dog, that he should do this? \_What!\_ rob us of our right of

suffrage, and then shut us up in dungeons!"

You have now come to the most formidable obstacle, or, if I may so

speak, to the most rugged eminence in the path of grammatical science;

but be not disheartened, for, if you can get safely over this, your

future course will be interrupted with only here and there a gentle

elevation. It will require close application, and a great deal of sober

thinking, to gain a clear conception of the nature of the relative

pronouns, particularly the compound relatives, which are not easily

comprehended by the young learner. As this eighth lecture is a very

important one, it becomes necessary for you to read it carefully four or

five times over before you proceed to commit the following order.

Whenever you parse, you may spread the Compendium before you, if you

please.

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

\_The order of parsing a\_ RELATIVE PRONOUN, is--a pronoun, and

why?--relative, and why?--gender, person, and number, and

why?--RULE:--case, and why?--RULE.--Decline it.

"This is the man \_whom\_ we saw."

\_Whom\_ is a pronoun, a word used instead of a noun--relative, it relates

to "man" for its antecedent--mas. gend. third pers. sing. num. because

the antecedent "man" is with which it agrees, according to

RULE 14. \_Relative pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender,

person, and number. Whom\_ is in the objective case, the object of the

action expressed by the active-transitive verb "saw," and governed by

it, agreeably to

RULE 16. \_When a nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the

relative is governed by the following verb, or some other word in its

own member of the sentence\_.

\_Whom\_, in the objective case, is placed before the verb that governs

it, according to NOTE 1, under Rule 16. (Repeat the Note, and decline

\_who\_.)

"From \_what\_ is recorded, he appears," &c.

\_What\_ is a comp. rel. pron. including both the antecedent and the

relative, and is equivalent to \_that which\_, or the \_thing

which\_--\_Thing\_, the antecedent part of \_what\_, is a noun, the name of a

thing--com. the name of a species--neuter gender, it has no sex--third

person, spoken of--sing. number, it implies but one--and in the obj.

case, it is the object of the relation expressed by the prep. "from,"

and gov. by it: RULE 31. (Repeat the Rule, and every other Rule to which

I refer.) \_Which\_, the relative part of \_what\_, is a pronoun, a word

used instead of a noun--relative, it relates to "thing" for its

antecedent--neut. gender, third person, sing. number, because the

antecedent "thing" is with which it agrees, according to RULE 14. \_Rel

pron\_. &c. \_Which\_ is in the nom. case to the verb "is recorded,"

agreeably to

RULE 15. \_The relative is the nominative case to the verb, when no

nominative comes between it and the verb\_.

"\_What\_ have you learned? Nothing."

\_What\_ is a pron. a word used, &c.--relative of the interrogative kind,

because it is used in asking a question--it refers to the word "nothing"

for its \_subsequent\_, according to

RULE 17. \_When the rel. pron. is of the interrog. kind, it refers to the

word or phrase containing the answer to the question, for its

subsequent, which subsequent must agree in case with the interrogative.

What\_ is of the neut. gend. third pers. sing. because the subsequent

"nothing" is with which it agrees; RULE 14. \_Rel. pron. agree\_, &c.--It

is in the obj. case, the object of the action, of the active-transitive

verb "have learned," and gov. by it, agreeably to RULE 16. \_When a nom\_.

&c. See NOTE 1, under the Rule.

NOTE. 1. You need not apply gend. pers. and numb, to the interrogative

when the answer to the question is \_not\_ expressed.

WHO, WHICH, WHAT.

Truth and simplicity are twin sisters, and generally go hand in hand.

The foregoing exposition of the "relative pronouns," is in accordance

with the usual method of treating them; but if they were unfolded

according to their true character, they would be found to be very

simple, and, \_doubtless\_, much labor and perplexity, on the part of the

learner, would thereby be saved.

Of the words called "relatives," \_who\_, only, is a pronoun; and this is

strictly \_personal\_; more so, indeed, if we except \_I\_ and \_we\_, than

any other word in our language, for it is always restricted to persons.

It ought to be classed with the personal pronouns. \_I, thou, he, she,

it, we, ye, you\_, and \_they, relate\_ to antecedents, as well as \_who.

Which, that\_, and \_what\_, are always adjectives. They never \_stand for\_,

but always \_belong\_ to nouns, either expressed or implied. They

\_specify\_, like many other adjectives, and \_connect\_ sentences.

\_Who\_ supplies the place of \_which\_ or \_what\_ and its \_personal noun\_.

\_Who\_ came? i.e. \_what man, what woman, what person;--which man, woman\_,

or \_person\_, came? "They heard \_what\_ I said"--they heard \_that\_ (thing)

\_which\_ (thing) I said. "Take \_what\_ (or \_whichever\_) course you

please;"--take \_that\_ course \_which\_ (course) you please to take.

"\_What\_ have you done?" i.e. \_what thing, act\_, or \_deed\_ have you

done? "\_Which thing\_ I also did at Jerusalem." "\_Which\_ will you

take?"--\_which book, hat\_, or something else? "This is the tree \_which\_

(tree) produces no fruit." "He \_that\_ (man, or \_which\_ man) acts wisely,

deserves praise."

They who prefer this method of treating the "relatives," are at liberty

to adopt it, and parse accordingly.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The man who instructs you, labors faithfully. The boy whom I instruct,

learns well. The lady whose house we occupy, bestows many charities.

That modesty which highly adorns a woman, she possesses. He that acts

wisely deserves praise. This is the tree which produces no fruit. I

believe what He says. He speaks what he knows. Whatever purifies the

heart, also fortifies it. What doest[5] thou? Nothing. What book

have you? A poem. Whose hat have you? John's. Who does that work? Henry.

Whom seest thou? To whom gave you the present? Which pen did he take?

Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you. I heard what he

said. George, you may pursue whatever science suits your taste. Eliza,

take whichever pattern pleases you best. Whoever lives to see this

republic forsake her moral and literary institutions, will behold her

liberties prostrated. Whosoever, therefore, will be a friend of the

world, is the enemy of God.

[5] The second person singular of \_do\_, when used as a principal

verb, is spelled with an \_e\_; thus, "What thou \_doest\_, do quickly;"

but when employed as an auxiliary, the \_e\_ should be omitted; as,

"\_Dost\_ thou not \_behold\_ a rock with its head of heath?"

NOTE. The nominative case is frequently placed after the verb, and

the objective case, before the verb that governs it. \_Whom\_, in

every sentence except one, \_house, modesty, book, hat, pen, him\_,

the third \_what\_ and \_which\_, the relative part of the first \_two

whats\_, are all in the \_objective\_ case, and governed by the several

verbs that follow them. See RULE 16, and NOTE 1. \_Tree\_ is nom.

after is, according to RULE 21. Thing, the antecedent part of

\_whatever\_, is nom. to "fortifies;" \_which\_, the relative part, is

nom. to "purifies." \_Nothing\_ is governed by \_do\_, and \_poem\_, by

\_have\_, understood. \_Henry\_ is nominative to \_does\_, understood.

\_Whose\_ and \_John's\_ are governed according to RULE 12. \_I, thou,

you, him\_, &c. represent nouns understood. \_Him\_, in the last

sentence but five, is governed by \_declare\_, and \_I\_ is nominative

to \_declare. George\_ and \_Eliza\_ are in the nominative case

independent: Rule 5. "\_Whatever\_ science," &c. is equivalent to,

\_that\_ science \_which\_ suits your taste;--"\_whichever\_ pattern;"

i.e. \_that\_ pattern \_which\_ pleases you best. \_Whoever\_ is a

compound relative; \_he\_, the antecedent part, is nominative to "will

behold." \_Take\_ agrees with \_you\_ understood. \_Forsake\_ is in the

infinitive mood after "see:" Rule 25.

REMARKS ON RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

\_Which\_ sometimes relates to a member of a sentence, or to a whole

sentence, for its antecedent: as, "We are required to fear God and keep

his commandments, \_which\_ is the whole duty of man." What is the whole

duty of man? "To fear God and keep his commandments:" therefore, this

phrase is the antecedent to \_which\_.

The conjunction \_as\_, when it follows \_such, many\_, or \_same\_, is

frequently denominated a relative pronoun; as, "I am pleased with \_such

as\_ have a refined taste;" that is, with \_those who\_, or \_them who

have\_, &c. "Let \_such as\_ presume to advise others, look well to their

own conduct;" that is, Let \_those\_, or \_them who\_ presume, &c. "\_As many

as\_ were ordained to eternal life, believed;" that is, \_they, those\_, or

\_all who\_ were ordained, believed. "He exhibited the \_same\_ testimonials

\_as\_ were adduced on a former occasion;" that is, \_those\_ testimonials

\_which\_ were adduced, &c. But, in examples like these, if we supply the

ellipsis which a critical analysis requires us to do, \_as\_ will be found

to be a conjunction; thus, "I am pleased with \_such persons, as those

persons are who\_ have a refined taste; Let \_such persons, as those

persons are who\_ presume," &c.

QUESTIONS NOT ANSWERED IN PARSING.

From what words is the term pronoun derived?--Do pronouns always avoid

the repetition of nouns?--Name the three kinds of pronouns.--What

distinguishes the personal from the relative pronouns?--How many

personal pronouns are there?--Repeat them.--What belong to pronouns?--Is

gender applied to all the personal pronouns?--To which of them is it

applied?--Which of the personal pronouns have no peculiar termination to

denote their gender?--How many persons have pronouns?--Speak them in

their different persons.--How many numbers have pronouns?--How many

cases?--What are they?--Decline all the personal pronouns.--When \_self\_

is added to the personal pronouns, what are they called, and how are

they used?--When is \_you\_ singular in sense?--Is it ever singular in

form?--Why are the words, \_my, thy, his, her, our, your, their\_, called

personal pronouns?--Why are the words, \_mine, thine, his, hers, ours,

yours, theirs\_, denominated compound pers. pron.?--How do you parse

these compounds?--What is said of \_others\_?--Repeat the order of parsing

a personal pronoun.--What rule do you apply in parsing a pronoun of the

first person, and in the nom. case?--What rule when the pronoun is in

the possessive case?--What Rules apply in parsing personal pronouns of

the second and third person?--What Rules in parsing the compounds,

\_yours, ours, mine\_, &c.?--What is said of the pronoun \_it\_?

What are adjective pronouns?--Name the three kinds.--What does \_each\_

relate to?--To what does \_every\_ relate?--To what does \_either\_

relate?--What does \_neither\_ import?--To what do \_this\_ and \_these\_

refer?--Give examples.--To what do \_that\_ and \_those\_ refer?--Give

examples.--Repeat all the adjective pronouns.--When adj. pronouns belong

to nouns understood, how are they parsed?--When they stand for, or

represent nouns, what are they called?--Give examples.--Repeat the

order of parsing an adj. pronoun.--What Rule do you apply in parsing

the indefinite adjective pronouns?--What Notes, in parsing the

distributives and demonstratives?

What are relative pronouns?--Repeat them.--From what words is the term

antecedent derived?--What does \_antecedent\_ mean?--Are relatives varied

on account of gender, person, or number?--To what are \_who\_ and \_which\_

applied?--To what is \_that\_ applied?--Should \_who\_ ever be applied to

irrational beings or children?--In what instances may \_which\_ be applied

to persons?--Decline the rel. pronouns.--Can \_which\_ and \_that\_ be

declined?--Is \_that\_ ever used as three parts of speech?--Give

examples.--What part of speech is the word \_what\_?--Is \_what\_ ever used

as three kinds of a pronoun?--Give examples.--What is said of

\_whoever\_?--What words are used as interrogative pronouns?--Give

examples.--When are the words, \_what, which\_, and \_that\_, called adj.

pron.?--When are they called interrogative pronominal adjectives?--What

is said of \_whatever\_ and \_whichever\_?--Is \_what\_ ever used as an

interjection?--Give examples.--Repeat the order of parsing a rel.

pron.--What Rules do you apply in parsing a relative?--What Rules in

parsing a compound relative?--What Rules in parsing an

interrogative?--Does the relative \_which\_ ever relate to a sentence for

its antecedent?--When does the conjunction \_as\_ become a relative?--Give

examples.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

NOTE 1, to RULE 13. When a noun or pronoun is the subject of a verb, it

must be in the nominative case.

Who will go? Him and I. How does thee do? Is thee well?

"Him and I;" not proper, because the pronoun \_him\_ is the subject of the

verb \_will go\_ understood, therefore him should be in the nominative

case, \_he\_, according to the above NOTE. (Repeat the NOTE.) \_Him\_ and I

are connected by the conjunction \_and\_, and \_him\_ is in the obj. case,

and I in the nom., therefore RULE 33d, is violated. (Repeat the Rule.)

In the second and third examples, \_thee\_ should be \_thou\_, according to

the NOTE. The verbs, \_does\_ and \_is\_, are of the third person, and the

nom. \_thou\_ is second, for which reason the verbs should be of the

second person, \_dost do\_ and \_art\_, agreeably to RULE 4. You may correct

the other examples, \_four\_ times over.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Him and me went to town yesterday. Thee must be attentive. Him who is

careless, will not improve. They can write as well as me. This is the

man whom was expected. Her and I deserve esteem. I have made greater

proficiency than him. Whom, of all my acquaintances, do you think was

there? Whom, for the sake of his important services, had an office of

honor bestowed upon him.

NOTE 2, to RULE 13. Personal pronouns being used to supply the place of

nouns, should not be employed in the same member of the sentence with

the noun which they represent.

FALSE SYNTAX.

The men they are there. I saw him the king. Our cause it is just. Many

words they darken speech. That noble general who had gained so many

victories, he died, at last, in prison. Who, instead of going about

doing good, they are continually doing evil.

In each of the preceding examples, the personal pronoun should be

omitted, according to Note 2.

NOTE 3, to RULE 13. A personal pronoun in the objective case, should not

be used instead of \_these\_ and \_those\_.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Remove them papers from the desk. Give me them books. Give them men

their discharge. Observe them three there. Which of them two persons

deserves most credit?

In all these examples, \_those\_ should be used in place of \_them\_. The

use of the personal, \_them\_, in such constructions, presents two

objectives after one verb or preposition. This is a solecism which may

be avoided by employing an adjective pronoun in its stead.

\* \* \* \* \*

LECTURE IX.

OF CONJUNCTIONS.

A CONJUNCTION is a part of speech that is chiefly used to connect

sentences, joining two or more simple sentences into one compound

sentence: it sometimes connects only words; as, "Thou \_and\_ he are

happy, \_because\_ you are good."

Conjunctions are those parts of language, which, by joining sentences in

different ways, mark the connexions and various dependances of human

thought. They belong to language only in its refined state.

The term CONJUNCTION comes from the two Latin words, \_con\_, which

signifies \_together\_, and \_jungo\_, to \_join\_. A conjunction, then, is a

word that conjoins, or joins together something. Before you can fully

comprehend the nature and office of this sort of words, it is requisite

that you should know what is meant by a sentence, a simple sentence, and

a compound sentence, for conjunctions are chiefly used to connect

sentences.

A SENTENCE is an assemblage of words forming complete sense.

A SIMPLE SENTENCE contains but one subject, or nominative, and one verb

which agrees with that nominative; as, "\_Wheat grows\_ in the field."

You perceive that this sentence contains several words besides the

nominative and the verb, and you will often see a simple sentence

containing many parts of speech; but, if it has only one nominative and

one \_finite\_ verb, (that is, a verb \_not\_ in the infinitive mood,) it is

a simple sentence, though it is longer than many compound sentences.

A COMPOUND SENTENCE is composed of two or more simple sentences

connected together; as, "\_Wheat grows\_ in the field, and \_men reap\_ it."

This sentence is compound, because it is formed of two simple sentences

joined together by the word \_and\_; which word, on account of its

connecting power, is called a conjunction. If we write this sentence

without the conjunction, it becomes two simple sentences: thus, "Wheat

grows in the field. Men reap it."

The nature and importance of the conjunction, are easily illustrated.

After expressing one thought or sentiment, you know we frequently wish

to \_add\_ another, or several others, which are closely connected with

it. We generally effect this addition by means of the conjunction: thus,

"The Georgians cultivate rice \_and\_ cotton;" that is, "They cultivate

rice \_add\_ cotton." This sentence is compound, and without the use of

the conjunction, it would be written in two separate, simple sentences:

thus, "The Georgians cultivate rice. They cultivate cotton." The

conjunction, though chiefly used to connect sentences, sometimes

connects only words; in which capacity it is nearly allied to the

preposition; as, "The sun \_and (add)\_ the planets constitute the solar

system." In this, which is a simple sentence, \_and\_ connects two

\_words\_.

A few more examples will illustrate the nature, and exhibit the use of

this part of speech so clearly, as to enable you fully to comprehend it.

The following simple sentences and members of sentences, have no

relation to each other until they are connected by conjunctions. He

labors harder--more successfully--I do. That man is healthy--he is

temperate. By filling up the vacancies in these sentences with

conjunctions, you will see the importance of this sort of words: thus,

He labors harder \_and\_ more successfully \_than\_ I do. That man is

healthy \_because\_ he is temperate.

Conjunctions are divided into two sorts, the Copulative and Disjunctive.

I. The Conjunction \_Copulative\_ serves to connect and continue a

sentence by joining on a member which expresses an addition, a

supposition, or a cause; as, "Two \_and\_ three are five; I will go \_if\_

he will accompany me; You are happy \_because\_ you are good."

In the first of these examples, \_and\_ joins on a word that expresses an

\_addition\_; in the second, \_if\_ connects a member that implies a

\_supposition\_ or \_condition\_; and in the third, \_because\_ connects a

member that expresses a \_cause\_.

II. The Conjunction \_Disjunctive\_ serves to connect and continue a

sentence by joining on a member that expresses opposition of meaning;

as, "They came with her, \_but\_ they went away without her."

\_But\_ joins on a member of this sentence which expresses, not only

something added, but, also, \_opposition\_ of meaning.

The principal conjunctions, may be known by the following \_lists\_, which

you may now commit to memory. Some words in these lists, are, however,

frequently used as adverbs, and sometimes as prepositions; but if you

study well the nature of all the different sorts of words, you cannot be

at a loss to tell the part of speech of any word in the language.

LISTS OF THE CONJUNCTIONS.

\_Copulative\_. And, if, that, both, then, since, for, because, therefore,

wherefore, provided, besides.

\_Disjunctive\_. But, or, nor, as, than, lest, though, unless, either,

neither, yet, notwithstanding, nevertheless, except, whether, whereas,

as well as.

Some conjunctions are followed by corresponding conjunctions, so that,

in the subsequent member of the sentence, the latter answers to the

former; as,

1. \_Though\_--\_yet\_ or \_nevertheless\_; as, "\_Though\_ he was rich, \_yet\_

for our sakes he became poor."

2. \_Whether\_--\_or\_; as, "\_Whether\_ he will go, \_or\_ not, I cannot tell."

It is improper to say, "Whether he will go or \_no\_."

3. \_Either\_--\_or\_; as, "I will \_either\_ send it, \_or\_ bring it myself."

4. \_Neither--nor\_; as, "\_Neither\_ thou \_nor\_ I can comprehend it."

5. \_As\_--\_as\_; as, "She is \_as\_ amiable \_as\_ her sister."

6. \_As\_--\_so\_; as, "\_As\_ the stars, \_so\_ shall thy seed be."

7. \_So\_--\_as\_; as, "To see thy glory, \_so as\_ I have seen thee in the

sanctuary."

8. \_So\_--\_that\_; as, "He became \_so\_ vain, \_that\_ everyone disliked

him."

NOTES.

1. Some conjunctions are used to connect simple \_sentences\_ only,

and form them into compound \_sentences\_; such as, further, again,

besides, &c. Others are employed to connect simple \_members\_ only,

so as to make them compound \_members\_; such as, than, lest, unless,

that, so that, if, though, yet, because, as well as, &c. But, and,

therefore, or, nor, for, &c., connect either whole sentences, or

simple members.

2. Relative pronouns, as well as conjunctions, serve to connect

sentences; as, "Blessed is the man \_who\_ feareth the Lord, \_and\_

keepeth his commandments."

You will now please to turn back and read this lecture four or five

times over; and then, after committing the following order, you may

parse the subsequent exercises.

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

\_The order of parsing a\_ CONJUNCTION, is--a conjunction, and

why?--copulative or disjunctive, and why?--what does it connect?

"Wisdom \_and\_ virtue \_form\_ the good man's character." \_And\_ is a

conjunction, a word that is chiefly used to connect sentences; but in

this example it connects only words--copulative, it serves to connect

and continue the sentence by joining on a member which expresses an

addition--it connects the words "wisdom and virtue."

\_Wisdom\_ is a noun, the name of a thing--(You may parse it in

full.)--\_Wisdom\_ is one of the nominatives to the verb "form."

\_Virtue\_ is a noun, the name, &c.--(Parse it in full:)--and in the nom.

case to the verb "form," and connected to the noun "wisdom" by and,

according to RULE 33. \_Conjunctions connect nouns and pronouns in the

same case\_.

\_Form\_ is a verb, a word which signifies to do, &c.--of the third

person, \_plural\_, because its two nominatives, "wisdom and virtue," are

connected by a copulative conjunction, agreeably to RULE 8. \_Two or more

nouns in the singular number, joined by\_ copulative \_conjunctions, must

have verbs, nouns, and pronouns agreeing with them in the\_ plural.

"Wisdom \_or\_ folly \_governs\_ us." \_Or\_ is a conjunction, a word that is

chiefly used to connect sentences: it sometimes connects

words--disjunctive, it serves not only to connect and continue the

sentence, but also to join on a member which expresses opposition of

meaning--it connects the nouns "wisdom and folly."

\_Governs\_ is a verb, a word that signifies, &e.--of the third person,

singular number, agreeing with "wisdom or folly," according to

RULE 9. \_Two or more nouns singular, joined by\_ disjunctive

\_conjunctions, must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns agreeing with them

in the\_ singular:

If you reflect, for a few moments, on the meaning of me last two Rules

presented, you will see, at once, their propriety and importance. For

example; in the sentence, "Orlando \_and\_ Thomas, \_who study their

lessons, make\_ rapid progress," you notice that the two singular nouns,

\_Orlando\_ and \_Thomas\_, are connected by the copulative conjunction

\_and\_, therefore the verb \_make\_, which agrees with them, is plural,

because it expresses the action of \_both\_ its nominatives or actors. And

you observe, too, that the pronouns \_who\_ and \_their\_, and the noun

\_lessons\_, are \_plural\_, agreeing with the nouns \_Orlando\_ and \_Thomas\_,

according to RULE 8. The verb \_study\_ is plural, agreeing with \_who\_,

according to RULE 4.

But let us connect these two nouns by a disjunctive conjunction, and see

how the sentence will read: "Orlando \_or\_ Thomas, \_who studies his

lesson, makes\_ rapid progress." Now, you perceive, that a different

construction takes place, for the latter expression does not imply, that

Orlando and Thomas, \_both\_ study and make rapid progress; but it

asserts, that either the one \_or\_ the other studies, and makes rapid

progress. Hence the verb \_makes\_ is singular, because it expresses the

action of the one \_or\_ the other of its nominatives. And you observe,

too, that the pronouns \_who\_ and \_his\_, and the noun \_lesson\_, are

likewise in the singular, agreeing with Orlando \_or\_ Thomas, agreeably

to RULE 9. \_Studies\_ is also singular, agreeing with \_who\_, according to

RULE 4.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Joseph and his brother reside in New York. The Sun, moon, and stars,

admonish us of a superior and superintending Power. I respect my friend,

because he is upright and obliging. Henry and William, who obey their

teacher, improve rapidly. Henry or William, who obeys his teacher,

improves very fast. Neither rank nor possession makes the guilty mind

happy. Wisdom, virtue, and meekness, form the good man's happiness and

interest: they support him in adversity, and comfort him in prosperity.

Man is a little lower than the angels. The United States, as justly as

Great Britain, can now boast of their literary institutions.

NOTE. The verb \_form\_ is plural, and agrees with three nouns singular,

connected by copulative conjunctions, according to RULE 8. The verb

\_comfort\_ agrees with \_they\_ for its nominative. It is connected to

\_support\_ by the conjunction \_and\_, agreeably to RULE 34. \_Angels\_ is

nom. to \_are\_ understood, and \_Great Britain\_ is nom. to \_can boast\_

understood, according to RULE 35.

REMARKS ON CONJUNCTIONS AND PREPOSITIONS.

The same word is occasionally employed, either as a conjunction, an

adverb, or a preposition. "I submitted, \_for\_ it was in vain to resist;"

in this example, \_for\_ is a conjunction, because it connects the two

members of a compound sentence. In the next it is a preposition, and

governs \_victory\_ in the objective case: "He contended \_for\_ victory

only."

In the first of the following sentences, \_since\_ is a conjunction; in

the second, it is a preposition, and in the third, an adverb; "\_Since\_

we must part, let us do it peaceably; I have not seen him \_since\_ that

time; Our friendship commenced long \_since.\_"

"He will repent \_before\_ he dies; Stand \_before\_ me; Why did you not

return \_before\_" [that or this \_time\_;] in the first of these three

examples, \_before\_ is an adverbial conjunction, because it expresses

time and connects; and in the second and third, it is a preposition.

As the words of a sentence are often transposed, so are also its

members. Without attending to this circumstance, the learner may

sometimes be at a loss to perceive the \_connecting\_ power of a

preposition or conjunction, for every preposition and every conjunction

connects either words or phrases, sentences or members of sentences.

Whenever a sentence begins with a preposition or conjunction, its

members are transposed; as, "\_In\_ the days of Joram, king of Israel,

flourished the prophet Elisha;" "\_If\_ thou seek the Lord, he will be

found of thee; but, \_if\_ thou forsake him, he will cast thee off for

ever."

"\_When\_ coldness wraps this suffering clay,

"Ah, whither strays the immortal mind?"

That the words \_in, if\_, and \_when\_, in these examples, connect the

members of the respective sentences to which they are attached, will

obviously appear if we restore these sentences to their natural order,

and bring these particles \_between\_ the members which they connect:

thus, "Elisha the prophet flourished \_in\_ the days of Joram, king of

Israel;" "The Lord will be found of thee \_if\_ thou seek him; but he will

cast thee off for ever \_if\_ thou forsake him:"

"Ah, whither strays the immortal mind,

"\_When\_ coldness wraps this suffering clay?"

As an exercise on this lecture, you may now answer these QUESTIONS NOT

ANSWERED IN PARSING.

From what words is the term conjunction derived?--What is a

sentence?--What is a simple sentence?--What is a compound

sentence?--Give examples.--In what respect do conjunctions and

prepositions agree in their nature?--How many sorts of conjunctions are

there?--Repeat the lists of conjunctions.--Repeat some conjunctions with

their corresponding conjunctions.--Do relative pronouns ever connect

sentences?--Repeat the order of parsing a conjunction.--Do you apply any

Rule in parsing a conjunction?--What Rule should be applied in parsing

a noun or pronoun connected with another?--What Rule in parsing a verb

agreeing with two or more nouns singular, connected by a copulative

conjunction?--What Rule when the nouns are connected by a

disjunctive?--In parsing a verb connected to another by a conjunction,

what Rule do you apply?--Is a conjunction ever used as other parts of

speech?--Give examples.--What is said of the words \_for, since\_, and

\_before?\_--What is said of the transposition of sentences?

\* \* \* \* \*

PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

On scientific principles, our \_connectives\_, commonly denominated

prepositions and conjunctions, are but one part of speech, the

distinction between them being merely technical. Some conjunctions

unite only words, and some prepositions connect sentences. They are

derived from nouns and verbs; and the time has been, when, perhaps,

in our language, they did not perform the office of connectives.

"I wish you to believe, \_that\_ I would not wilfully hurt a fly."

Here, in the opinion of H. Tooke, our modern conjunction \_that\_, is

merely a demonstrative adjective, in a disguised form; and he

attempts to prove it by the following resolution: "I would not

wilfully hurt a fly. I wish you to believe \_that [assertion\_."] Now,

if we admit, that \_that\_ is an adjective in the latter construction,

it does not necessarily follow, that it is the same part of speech,

nor that its associated meaning is precisely the same, in the former

construction. Instead of expressing our ideas in two detached

sentences, by the former phraseology we have a quicker and closer

transition of thought, and both the mode of employing \_that\_, and

its \_inferential\_ meaning, are changed. Moreover, if we examine the

meaning of each of these constructions, taken as a whole, we shall

find, that they do not both convey the same ideas. By the latter, I

assert, positively, that "I would not wilfully hurt a fly:" whereas,

by the former, I merely \_wish you to believe\_ that "I would not

wilfully hurt a fly;" but I do not \_affirm\_, that as a fact.

\_That\_ being the past part, of \_thean\_, to get, take, assume, by

rendering it as a \_participle\_, instead of an adjective, we should

come nearer to its primitive character. Thus, "I would not wilfully

hurt a fly. I wish you to believe the \_assumed [fact\_ or

\_statement\_;] or, the fact \_assumed\_ or \_taken\_."

\_If\_, (formerly written \_gif, give, gin\_,) as previously stated, is

the imperative of the Anglo-Saxon verb \_gifan\_, to give. In

imitation of Horne Tooke, some of our modern philosophical writers

are inclined to teach pupils to render it as a verb. Thus, "I will

go, \_if\_ he will accompany me:"--"He will accompany me.

\_Grant\_--\_give\_ that [fact] I will go." For the purpose of

ascertaining the \_primitive\_ meaning of this word, I have no

objection to such a resolution; but, by it, do we get the exact

meaning and force of \_if\_ as it is applied in our modern, refined

state of the language? I \_trow\_ not. But, admitting we do, does this

prove that such a mode of resolving sentences can be advantageously

adopted by learners in common schools? I presume it can not be

denied, that instead of teaching the learner to express himself

correctly in modern English, such a resolution is merely making him

familiar with an ancient and barbarous construction which modern

refinement has rejected. Our forefathers, I admit, who were governed

by those laws of necessity which compel all nations in the early and

rude state of their language, to express themselves in short,

detached sentences, employed \_if\_ as a verb when they used the

following circumlocution: "My son will reform. \_Give that fact\_. I

will forgive him." But in the present, improved state of our

language, by using \_if\_ as a \_conjunction\_, (for I maintain that it

is one,) we express the same thought more briefly; and our modern

mode of expression has, too, a decisive advantage over the ancient,

not only in point of elegance, but also in perspicuity and force. In

Scotland and the north of England, some people still make use of

\_gin\_, a contraction of \_given:\_ thus, "I will pardon my son, \_gin\_

he reform." But who will contend, that they speak pure English?

But perhaps the advocates of what \_they\_ call a philosophical

development of language, will say, that by their resolution of

sentences, they merely supply an ellipsis. If, by an ellipsis, they

mean such a one as is necessary, to the grammatical construction, I

cannot accede to their assumption. In teaching grammar, as well as

in other things, we ought to avoid extremes:--we ought neither to

pass superficially over an ellipsis necessary to the sense of a

phrase, nor to put modern English to the blush, by adopting a mode

of resolving sentences that would entirely change the character of

our language, and carry the learner back to the Vandalic age.

\_But\_ comes from the Saxon verb, \_beon-utan\_, to be-out. "All were

well \_but (be-out, leave-out)\_ the stranger." "Man is \_but\_ a reed,

floating on the current of time." Resolution: "Man is a reed,

floating on the current of time; \_but (be-out\_ this fact) he is not

a stable being."

\_And--aned, an'd, and\_, is the past part. of \_ananad\_, to add, join.

\_A, an, ane\_, or \_one\_, from the same verb, points out whatever is

\_aned, oned\_, or made \_one. And\_ also refers to the thing that is

\_joined\_ to, \_added\_ to, or \_made one\_ with, some other person or

thing mentioned. "Julius \_and\_ Harriet will make a happy pair."

Resolution: "Julius, Harriet \_joined, united\_, or \_aned\_, will make

a happy pair;" i.e. Harriet \_made one\_ with Julius; will make a

happy pair.

\_For\_ means \_cause\_.

\_Because\_--\_be-cause\_, is a compound of the verb \_be\_, and the noun

\_cause\_. It retains the meaning of both; as, "I believe the maxim,

\_for\_ I know it to be true;"--"I believe the maxim, \_be-cause\_ I

know it to be true;" i.e. the \_cause\_ of my belief, \_be\_, or \_is\_, I

know it to be true.

\_Nor\_ is a contraction of \_ne or. Ne\_ is a contraction of \_not\_, and

\_or\_, of \_other. Nor\_ is, \_not other\_-wise: \_not\_ in the \_other\_ way

or manner.

\_Else\_ is the imperative of \_alesan, unless\_, of \_onlesan\_, and

\_lest\_, the past part. of \_lesan\_, all signifying to dismiss,

release, loosen, set free. "He will be punished, \_unless\_ he

repent;"--"\_Unless, release, give up\_, (the fact) he repents he will

be punished." \_Though\_ is the imperative of the Saxon verb

\_thafigan\_, to allow, and \_yet\_ of \_getan\_, to get. \_Yet\_ is simply,

\_get\_; ancient \_g\_ is the modern \_y\_. "\_Though\_ he slay me, \_yet\_

will I trust in him:--\_Grant\_ or \_allow\_ (the fact) he slay me,

\_get\_, or \_retain\_ (the opposite fact) I will trust in

him."

\* \* \* \* \*

QUESTIONS ON THE PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

From what parts of speech are prepositions and conjunctions

derived?--What is Horne Tooke's opinion of that?--From what is each of

the following words derived, \_that, if, but, and, because, nor, else,

unless, lest, though\_, and \_yet?\_

LECTURE X.

OF INTERJECTIONS.--CASES OF NOUNS.

INTERJECTIONS are words which express the sudden emotions of the

speaker; as, "\_Alas!\_ I fear for life;" "\_O\_ death! where is thy sting?"

Interjections are not so much the signs of thought, as of feeling.

Almost any word may be used as an interjection; but when so employed, it

is not the representative of a \_distinct\_, idea. A word which denotes a

distinct conception of the mind, must necessarily belong to some other

part of speech. They who wish to speak often, or rather, to make

\_noises\_, when they have no useful information to communicate, are apt

to use words very freely in this way; such as the following expressions,

\_la, la me, my, O my, O dear, dear me, surprising, astonishing\_, and the

like.

Interjections not included in the following list, are generally known by

their taking an exclamation point after them.

A LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL INTERJECTIONS.

1. Of \_earnestness\_ or \_grief\_; as, O! oh! ah! alas!

2. \_Contempt;\_ as, Pish! tush!

3. \_Wonder;\_ as, Heigh! really! strange!

4. \_Calling;\_ as, Hem! ho! halloo!

5. \_Disgust\_ or \_aversion;\_ as, Foh! fy! fudge! away!

6. \_Attention\_; as, Lo! behold! hark!

7. \_Requesting silence\_; as, Hush! hist!

8. \_Salutation\_; as, Welcome! hail! all hail!

NOTE. We frequently meet with what some call an \_interjective

phrase\_; such as, Ungrateful wretch! impudence of hope! folly in the

extreme! what ingratitude! away with him!

As the interjection is the least important part of speech in the English

language, it will require but little attention. You may, however, make

yourself well acquainted with what has been said respecting it, and then

commit the

SYSTEMATIC ORDER OF PARSING.

\_The order of parsing an\_ INTERJECTION, is--an interjection, and

why?

"O virtue! how amiable thou art!"

\_O\_ is an interjection, a word used to express some passion or emotion

of the speaker.

The ten parts of speech have now been unfolded and elucidated, although

some of them have not been fully explained. Before you proceed any

farther, you will please to begin again at the first lecture, and read

over, attentively, the whole, observing to parse every example in the

exercises systematically. You will then be able to parse the following

exercises, which contain all the parts of speech. If you study

faithfully \_six\_ hours in a day, and pursue the directions given, you

may become, if not a critical, at least, a good, practical grammarian,

in \_six weeks\_; but if you study only \_three\_ hours in a day, it will

take you nearly \_three months\_ to acquire the same knowledge.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

True cheerfulness makes a man happy in himself, and promotes the

happiness of all around him.

Modesty always appears graceful in youth: it doubles the lustre of every

virtue which it seems to hide.

He who, every morning, plans the transactions of the day, and follows

out that plan, carries on a thread that will guide him through the

labyrinth of the most busy life.

The king gave me a generous reward for committing that barbarous act;

but, alas! I fear the consequence.

E'en now, where Alpine solitudes ascend,

I set me down a pensive hour to spend;

And, placed on high, above the storm's career,

Look downward where a hundred realms appear:--

Alas! the joys that fortune brings,

Are trifling, and decay;

And those who mind the paltry things,

More trifling still than they.

NOTE. In the second sentence of the foregoing exercises, \_which\_ is

governed by the verb \_to hide\_, according to RULE 16. \_He\_ is nom.

to \_carries; who\_ is nom. to \_plans. Follows\_ agrees with \_who\_

understood, and is connected to \_plans\_ by \_and\_; RULE 34. What did

the king give? A \_reward to\_ me. Then \_reward\_ is in the \_obj\_.

case, gov. by \_gave\_; RULE 20. \_Me\_ is gov. by \_to\_ understood; NOTE

1, RULE 32. The phrase, \_committing that barbarous act\_, is gov. by

\_for\_; NOTE 2, under RULE 28. \_Hour\_ is in the \_obj\_. case, gov. by

\_to spend\_; RULE 20. \_Look\_ is connected to \_set\_ by \_and\_; RULE 34.

\_Joys\_ is nom. to \_are. That\_ is gov. by \_brings\_; RULE 16. \_Those\_

is nom. to \_are\_ understood. \_They\_ is nom. to \_are\_ understood;

RULE 35.

CASES OF NOUNS.

In a former lecture, I promised to give you a more extensive explanation

of the cases of nouns; and, as they are, in many situations, a little

difficult to be ascertained, I will now offer some remarks on this

subject. But before you proceed, I wish you to parse all the examples in

the exercises just presented, observing to pay particular attention to

the remarks in the subjoined NOTE. Those remarks will assist you much in

analyzing.

A noun is sometimes nominative to a verb placed many lines after the

noun. You must exercise your judgment in this matter. Look at the

sentence in the preceding exercises beginning with, "He who, every

morning," &c. and see if you can find the verb to which \_he\_ is

nominative. What does \_he\_ do? He carries on a thread, &c. \_He\_, then,

is nominative to the verb \_carries\_. What does \_who\_ do? Who \_plans\_,

and who \_follows\_, &c. Then \_who\_ is nom. to \_plans\_, and \_who\_

understood, is nominative to \_follows\_.

"A soul without reflection, like a pile

Without inhabitant, to ruin runs."

In order to find the verb to which the noun \_soul\_, in this sentence, is

the nominative, put the question; What does a \_soul\_ without reflection

do? Such, a soul \_runs\_ to ruin, like a pile without inhabitant. Thus

you discover, that \_soul\_ is nominative to \_runs\_.

When the words of a sentence are arranged according to their natural

order, the nominative case, you recollect, is placed before the verb,

and the objective, after it; but when the words of a sentence are

transposed; that is, not arranged according to their natural order, it

frequently happens, that the nominative comes \_after\_, and the

objective, \_before\_ the verb; especially in poetry, or when a question

is asked: as, "Whence \_arises\_ the \_misery\_ of the present world?" "What

good \_thing shall\_ I \_do\_ to inherit eternal life?" Put these

expressions in the declarative form, and the nominative will \_precede\_,

and the objective \_follow\_ its verb: thus, "The \_misery\_ of the present

world \_arises\_ whence; I \_shall do\_ what good \_thing\_ to inherit eternal

life."

"Now came still \_evening\_ on, and twilight gray

Had, in her sober livery, all \_things\_ clad."

"Stern rugged nurse, thy rigid \_lore\_

With patience many a \_year\_ she bore."

What did the \_evening\_ do? The evening \_came on\_. Gray \_twilight\_ had

clad what? Twilight had clad all \_things\_ in her sober livery.

\_Evening\_, then, is nom. to \_came\_, and the noun \_things\_ is in the

objective case, and gov. by \_had clad\_: RULE 20. What did \_she\_ bear?

She bore thy rigid \_lore\_ with patience, \_for\_, or \_during\_, many a

year. Hence you find, that \_lore\_ is in the objective case, and governed

by \_bore\_, according to RULE 20. \_Year\_ is gov. by \_during\_ understood:

RULE 32.

A noun is frequently nominative to a verb understood, or in the

objective, and governed by a verb understood; as, "Lo, [\_there is\_] the

poor \_Indian!\_ whose untutored mind." "O, the \_pain\_ [\_there is!\_] the

\_bliss\_ [\_there is\_] in dying!" "All were sunk, but the wakeful

\_nightingale\_ [\_was not sunk\_."] "He thought as a \_sage\_ [\_thinks\_,]

though he felt as a \_man\_ [\_feels\_."] "His hopes, immortal, blow them

by, as \_dust\_ [\_is blown by\_."] Rule 35 applies to these last three

examples.

In the next place I will explain several cases of nouns and pronouns

which have not yet come under our notice. Sometimes a noun or pronoun

may be in the nominative case when it has no verb to agree with it.

OF THE NOMINATIVE CASE INDEPENDENT.

Whenever a direct address is made, the person or thing spoken to, is in

the \_nominative case independent\_; as, "\_James\_, I desire you to study."

You notice that, in this expression, I address myself to \_James\_ that

is, I speak to him; and you observe, too, that there is no verb, either

expressed or implied, to which James can be the nominative; therefore

you know that \_James\_ is in the nom. case independent, according to Rule

5. Recollect, that \_whenever a noun is of the second person\_, it is in

the nom. case independent; that is, independent of any verb; as,

\_Selma\_, thy halls are silent; Love and meekness, my \_lord\_, become a

churchman, better than ambition; O \_Jerusalem, Jerusalem\_, how often

would I have gathered thy children together, even as a hen gathereth her

chickens under her wings, but ye would not!--For a farther illustration

of this case, see Note 2, under the 5th Rule of Syntax.

NOTE. When a pronoun of the \_second\_ person is in apposition with a

noun independent, it is in the same case; as, "\_Thou traitor\_, I

detest thee."

OF THE NOMINATIVE CASE ABSOLUTE.

A noun or pronoun placed before a participle, without any verb to agree

with it, is in the nominative case \_absolute\_; as, "The \_sun being

risen\_, we pursued our journey."

\_Sun\_ is here placed before the participle "being risen," and has no

verb to agree with it; therefore it is in the nominative case absolute,

according to RULE 6.

NOTE 1. A noun or pronoun in the nominative case independent, is always

of the \_second\_ person; but, in the case absolute, it is generally of

the \_third\_ person.

2. The case absolute is always nominative; the following sentence is

therefore incorrect; "Whose top shall tremble, \_him\_ descending," &c.;

it should be, \_he\_ descending.

OF NOUNS IN APPOSITION.

Two or more nouns or pronouns signifying the same person or thing, are

put, by \_apposition\_, in the same case; as, "\_Cicero\_, the great

\_orator, philosopher\_, and \_statesman\_ of Rome, was murdered by Antony."

\_Apposition\_, in a grammatical sense, means something added, or names

added, in order more fully to define or illustrate the sense of the

first name mentioned.

You perceive that \_Cicero\_, in the preceding example, is merely the

proper name of a man; but when I give him the three additional

appellations, and call him a great \_orator, philosopher\_, and

\_statesman\_, you understand what kind of a man he was; that is, by

giving him these three additional names, his character and abilities as

a man are more fully made known. And, surely, you cannot be at a loss to

know that these four nouns must be in the same case, for they are all

names given to the same person; therefore, if \_Cicero\_ was murdered, the

\_orator\_ was murdered, and the \_philosopher\_ was murdered, and the

\_statesman\_ was murdered, because they all mean one and the same person.

Nouns and pronouns in the objective case, are frequently in

\_apposition\_; as, He struck \_Charles\_ the \_student\_. Now it is obvious,

that, when he struck \_Charles\_, he struck the \_student\_, because Charles

was the \_student\_, and the \_student\_ was \_Charles\_; therefore the noun

\_student\_ is in the objective case, governed by "struck," and put by

apposition with Charles, according to RULE 7.

Please to examine this lecture very attentively. You will then be

prepared to parse the following examples correctly and systematically.

PARSING.

"Weep on the rocks of roaring winds, O \_maid\_ of Inistore."

\_Maid\_ is a noun, the name of a person--- com. the name of a sort--fem.

gender, it denotes a female--second pers. spoken to--sing. num. it

implies but one--and in the nominative case independent, because it is

addressed, and has no verb to agree with it, according to

RULE 5. \_When an address is made, the noun or pronoun addressed, is put

in the nominative case independent\_.

"The \_general\_ being ransomed, the barbarians permitted him to

depart."

\_General\_ is a noun, the name, &c. (parse it in full:)--and in the

nominative case absolute, because it is placed before the participle

"being ransomed," and it has no verb to agree with it, agreeably to

RULE 6. \_A noun or pronoun placed before a participle, and being

independent of the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case

absolute\_.

\_"Thou man\_ of God, flee to the land of Judah."

\_Thou\_ is a pronoun, a word used instead of a noun--personal, it

personates "man"--second pers. spoken to--mas. gender, sing. num.

because the noun "man" is for which it stands; RULE 13 (Repeat the

Rule.)--\_Thou\_ is in the nominative case independent and put by

\_apposition\_ with \_man\_, because it signifies the same thing, according

to

RULE 7. \_Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns, signifying the same

thing, are put, by apposition, in the same case\_.

\_Man\_ is in the nominative case independent, according to Rule 5. \_Flee\_

agrees with \_thou\_ understood.

"Lo! \_Newton, priest\_ of Nature, shines afar,

Scans the wide world, and numbers every star."

\_Newton\_ is a noun, (parse it in full,) and in the nominative case to

"shines." RULE 3.

\_Priest\_ is a noun, (parse it in full,) and in the nom. case, it is the

actor and subject of the verb "shines," and put by apposition with

"Newton," because it signifies the same thing, agreeably to Rule 7.

(Repeat the Rule.)

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

\_Turn\_ from your evil ways, O house of Israel! Ye fields of light,

celestial plains, ye scenes divinely fair! proclaim your Maker's

wondrous power. O king! \_live\_ for ever. The murmur of thy streams, O

Lora, brings back the memory of the past. The sound of thy woods,

Garmallar, is lovely in my ear. Dost thou not behold, Malvina, a rock

with its head of heath? Three aged pines bend from its face; green is

the plain at its feet; there the flower of the mountain grows, and

shades its white head in the breeze.

The General being slain, the army was routed. Commerce having thus got

into the legislative body, privilege must be done away. Jesus had

conveyed himself away, a multitude being in that place. I being in great

haste, he consented. The rain having ceased, the dark clouds rolled

away. The Son of God, while clothed in flesh, was subject to all the

frailties and inconveniences of human nature, sin excepted; (that is,

sin being excepted.)

In the days of Joram, king of Israel, flourished the prophet Elisha.

Paul the apostle suffered martyrdom. \_Come\_, peace of mind, delightful

guest! and \_dwell\_ with me. Friends, Romans, countrymen, \_lend\_ me your

ears.

Soul of the just, companion of the dead!

Where is thy home, and whither art thou fled?

Till Hymen brought his love-delighted hour,

There dwelt no joy in Eden's rosy bower:--

The world was sad, the garden was a wild,

And man the hermit sighed, till woman smiled.

NOTE. Those verbs in \_italics\_, in the preceding examples, are all

in the imperative mood, and \_second\_ person, agreeing with \_thou,

ye\_, or \_you\_, understood. \_House of Israel\_ is a noun of multitude.

\_Was routed\_ and \_must be done\_ are passive verbs. \_Art fled\_ is a

neuter verb in a passive form. \_Clothed\_ is a perfect participle.

\_Till\_ is an adverbial conjunction.

When you shall have analyzed, systematically, every word in the

foregoing exercises, you may answer the following

QUESTIONS NOT ANSWERED IN PARSING.

Repeat the list of interjections.--Repeat some interjective

phrases.--Repeat the order of parsing an interjection.--In order to

find the verb to which a noun is nom. what question do you put?--Give

examples.--Is the nominative case ever placed after the

verb?--When?--Give examples.--Does the objective case ever come before

the verb?--Give examples.--Is a noun ever nom. to a verb

understood?--Give examples.--When is a noun or pronoun in the nom. case

independent?--Give examples.--Are nouns of the \_second\_ person always in

the nom. case independent?--When a pronoun is put by apposition with a

noun independent, in what case is it?--When is a noun or pronoun in the

nom. case absolute?--Give examples.--When are nouns or nouns and

pronouns put, by apposition, in the same case?--Give examples.--In

parsing a noun or pronoun in the nom. case independent, what Rule should

be applied?--In parsing the nom. case absolute, what Rule?--What Rule in

parsing nouns or pronouns in apposition?--Do real interjections belong

to written language?--(\_Phil. Notes\_.)--From what are the following

words derived, \_pish, fy, lo, halt, farewell, welcome, adieu!\_

\* \* \* \* \*

PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

The term INTERJECTION is applied to those \_inarticulate\_ sounds

employed both by men and brutes, not to express distinct ideas, but

emotions, passions, or feelings. The sounds employed by human beings

in groaning, sighing, crying, screaming, shrieking, and laughing, by

the dog in barking, growling, and whining, by the horse in snorting

and neighing, by the sheep in bleating, by the cat in mewing, by the

dove in cooing, by the duck in quacking, and by the goose in

hissing, we sometimes attempt to represent by words; but, as

\_written\_ words are the ocular representatives of \_articulate\_

sounds, they cannot be made clearly to denote \_inarticulate\_ or

\_indistinct noises\_. Such indistinct utterances belong to natural

language; but they fall below the bounds of regulated speech. Hence,

\_real\_ interjections are not a part of written language.

The meaning of those words commonly called interjections, is easily

shown by tracing them to their roots.

\_Pish\_ and \_pshaw\_ are the Anglo-Saxon \_paec, paeca\_; and are

equivalent to \_trumpery\_! i.e. \_tromperie\_, from \_tromper\_.

\_Fy\_ or \_fie\_ is the imperative, \_foe\_, the past tense, and \_foh\_ or

\_faugh\_, the past part. of the Saxon verb \_fian\_, to hate.

\_Lo\_ is the imperative of \_look. Halt\_ is the imperative of

\_healden\_, to hold. \_Farewell--fare-well\_, is a compound of \_faran\_,

to go, and the adverb \_well\_. It means, to \_go well.

Welcome--well-come\_, signifies, it is \_well\_ that you are \_come.

Adieu\_ comes from the French \_a Dieu\_, to God; meaning, I commend

you \_to God\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

LECTURE XI.

OF THE MOODS AND TENSES OF VERBS.

You have now acquired a general, and, I may say, an extensive, knowledge

of nine parts of speech; but you know but little, as yet, respecting the

most important one of all; I mean the VERB. I will, therefore, commence

this lecture by giving you an explanation of the Moods and Tenses of

verbs. Have the goodness, however, first to turn back and read over

Lecture II., and reflect well upon what is there said respecting the

verb; after which I will conduct you so smoothly through the moods and

tenses, and the conjugation of verbs, that, instead of finding yourself

involved in obscurities and deep intricacies, you will scarcely find an

obstruction to impede your progress.

I. OF THE MOODS.

The MOOD or MODE of a verb means the \_manner\_ in which its action,

passion, or being, is represented.

When I wish to assert a thing, positively, I use the \_declarative\_ or

\_indicative\_ mode; as, The man \_walks\_; but sometimes the action or

occurrence of which I wish to speak, is doubtful, and then I must not

declare it positively, but I must adopt another \_mode\_ of expression;

thus, \_If\_ the man \_walk\_, he will refresh himself with the bland

breezes. This second mode or manner of representing the action, is

called the \_subjunctive\_ or \_conditional\_ mode.

Again, we sometimes employ a verb when we do not wish to \_declare\_ a

thing, nor to represent the action in a \_doubtful\_ or \_conditional\_

manner; but we wish to \_command\_ some one to act. We then use the

\_imperative\_ or \_commanding\_ mode, and say, \_Walk\_, sir. And when we do

not wish to command a man to act, we sometimes allude to his \_power\_ or

\_ability\_ to act. This fourth mode of representing action, is called the

\_potential\_ mode; as, He \_can walk\_; He \_could walk\_. The fifth and last

mode, called the \_infinitive\_ or \_unlimited\_ mode, we employ in

expressing action in an unlimited manner; that is, without confining it,

in respect to number and person, to any particular agent; as, \_To walk,

to ride\_. Thus you perceive, that the mood, mode, or manner of

representing the action, passion, or being of a verb, must vary

according to the different intentions of the mind.

Were we to assign a particular name to \_every\_ change in the mode or

manner of representing action or being, the number of moods in our

language would amount to many hundreds. But this principle of division

and arrangement, if followed out in detail, would lead to great

perplexity, without producing any beneficial result. The division of Mr.

Harris, in his Hermes, is much more curious than instructive. He has

fourteen moods; his \_interrogative, optative, hortative, promissive,

precautive, requisitive, enunciative\_, &c. But as far as philosophical

accuracy and the convenience and advantage of the learner are concerned,

it is believed that no arrangement is preferable to the following. I am

not unaware that plausible objections may be raised against it; but what

arrangement cannot be objected to?

There are five moods of verbs, the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the

Imperative, the Potential, and the Infinitive.

The INDICATIVE MOOD simply indicates or declares a thing; as, "He

\_writes\_;" or it asks a question; as, "\_Does\_ he \_write\_? Who \_wrote\_

that?"

The term \_indicative\_, comes from the Latin \_indico\_, to \_declare\_.

Hence, the legitimate province of the indicative mood, is to \_declare\_

things, whether positively or negatively; thus, \_positively\_, He \_came\_

with me; \_negatively\_, He \_came not\_ with me. But in order to avoid a

multiplication of moods, we extend its meaning, and use the indicative

mood in asking a question; as, Who \_came\_ with you?

The subjunctive mood being more analogous to the indicative in

conjugation, than any other, it ought to be presented next in order.

This mood, however, differs materially from the indicative in sense;

therefore you ought to make yourself well acquainted with the nature of

the indicative, before you commence with the subjunctive.

The SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD expresses action, passion, or being, in a doubtful

or conditional manner or,

When a verb is preceded by a word that expresses a condition, doubt,

motive, wish, or supposition, it is in the SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD; as, "\_If\_

he \_study\_, he will improve; I will respect him, \_though\_ he \_chide\_ me;

He will not be pardoned, \_unless\_ he \_repent; \_Had\_ he \_been\_ there, he

would have conquered;" (that is, \_if\_ he \_had been\_ there.)

The conjunctions \_if, though, unless\_, in the preceding examples,

express condition, doubt, &c.; therefore, the verbs \_study, chide,

repent\_, and \_had been\_, are in the subjunctive mood.

NOTE 1. A verb in this mood is generally attended by another verb in

some other mood. You observe, that each of the first three of the

preceding examples, contains a verb in the indicative mood, and the

fourth, a verb in the potential.

2. Whenever the conjunctions \_if, though, unless, except, whether,

lest\_, or any others, denote contingency or doubt, the verbs that

follow them are in the subjunctive mood; as, "\_If\_ he \_ride\_ out

every day, his health will probably improve;" that is, if he \_shall\_

or \_should\_ ride out hereafter. But when these conjunctions do not

imply doubt, &c. the verbs that follow them are in the indicative,

or some other mood; as, "\_Though\_ he \_rides\_ out daily, his health

is no better." The conjunctive and indicative forms of this mood,

are explained in the conjugation of the verb to \_love\_. See page.

The IMPERATIVE MOOD is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, or

permitting; as, \_"Depart\_ thou; \_Remember\_ my admonitions; \_Tarry\_

awhile longer; \_Go\_ in peace."

The verb \_depart\_ expresses a command; \_remember\_ exhorts; \_tarry\_

expresses entreaty; and \_go\_, permission; therefore they are all in the

imperative mood.

The \_imperative\_, from \_impero\_, to command, is literally that mood of

the verb used in \_commanding;\_ but its technical meaning in grammar is

extended to the use of the verb in exhorting, entreating, and

permitting.

A verb in the imperative mood, is always of the second person, though

never varied in its terminations, agreeing with \_thou, ye\_, or \_you\_,

either expressed or implied. You may know a verb in this mood by the

sense; recollect, however, that the nominative is always \_second\_

person, and frequently understood; as, George, \_give\_ me my hat; that

is, give thou, or give you. When the nominative is expressed, it is

generally placed after the verb; as, Go \_thou\_; Depart \_ye\_; or between

the auxiliary and the verb; as, Do \_thou\_ go; Do \_ye\_ depart. (\_Do\_ is

the auxiliary.)

The POTENTIAL MOOD implies possibility, liberty, or necessity, power,

will, or obligation; as, "It \_may rain\_; He \_may go\_ or \_stay\_; We \_must

eat\_ and \_drink\_; I \_can ride\_; He \_would walk\_; They \_should learn\_."

In the first of these examples, the auxiliary \_may\_ implies possibility;

in the second it implies liberty; that is, he is at liberty to go or to

stay; in the third, \_must\_ denotes necessity; \_can\_ denotes power or

ability; \_would\_ implies will or inclination; that is, he had a \_mind\_

to walk; and \_should\_ implies obligation. Hence you perceive, that the

verbs, may rain, may go, must eat, must drink, can ride, world walk, and

should learn, are in the \_potential\_ mood.

NOTE 1. As a verb in the indicative mood is converted into the

subjunctive when it is preceded by a conjunction expressing doubt,

contingency, supposition, &c., so a verb in the potential mood, may,

in like manner, be turned into the subjunctive; as, "\_If\_ I \_could

deceive\_ him, I should abhor it; \_Though\_ he \_should increase\_ in

wealth, he would not be charitable." I \_could deceive\_, is in the

potential; \_If\_ I \_could deceive\_, is in the subjunctive mood.

2. The potential mood, as well as the indicative, is used in asking

a question; as, "May I go? Could you understand him? Must we die?"

The INFINITIVE MOOD expresses action, passion, or being, in a general

and unlimited manner, having no nominative, consequently, neither person

nor number; as, \_"To speak, to walk\_."

\_Infinitive\_ means \_unconfined\_, or \_unlimited\_. This mood is called the

infinitive, because its verb is not confined or limited to a nominative.

A verb in any other mood is limited; that is, it must agree in number

and person with its nominative; but a verb in this mood has \_no\_

nominative, therefore, it never changes its termination, except to form

the perfect tense. Now you understand why all verbs are called \_finite\_

or \_limited\_, excepting those in the infinitive mood.

NOTE. \_To\_, the sign of the infinitive mood, is often understood

before the verb; as, "Let me proceed;" that is, Let me \_to\_ proceed.

See RULE 25. \_To\_ is not a preposition when joined to a verb in this

mood; thus, \_to\_ ride, \_to\_ rule; but it should be parsed with the

verb, and as a part of it.

If you study this lecture attentively, you will perceive, that when I

say, I \_write\_, the verb is in the indicative mood; but when I say, \_if\_

I write, or, \_unless\_ I write, &c. the verb is in the subjunctive mood;

\_write\_ thou, or \_write\_ ye or you, the imperative; I \_may write\_, I

\_must write\_, I \_could write, &c.\_ the potential; and \_to write\_, the

infinitive. Any other verb (except the defective) may be employed in the

same manner.

\* \* \* \* \*

II. OF THE TENSES.

TENSE means time.

Verbs have six tenses, the Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, the

Pluperfect, and the First and Second Future tenses.

The PRESENT TENSE represents an action or event as taking place at the

time in which it is mentioned; as, "I \_smile\_; I \_see\_; I \_am seen\_."

NOTE 1. The present tense is also used in speaking of actions

continued, with occasional intermissions, to the present time; as,

"He \_rides\_ out every morning."

2. This tense is sometimes applied to represent the actions of

persons long since dead; as, "Seneca \_reasons\_ and \_moralizes\_ well;

An honest man \_is\_ the noblest work of God."

3. When the present tense is preceded by the words, \_when, before,

after, as soon as\_, &c. it is sometimes used to point out the

relative time of a future action; as, "\_When\_ he \_arrives\_ we shall

hear the news."

The IMPERFECT TENSE denotes a past action or event, however distant;

or,

The IMPERFECT TENSE represents an action or event as past and finished,

but without defining the precise time of its completion; as, "I \_loved\_

her for her modesty and virtue; They \_were\_ travelling post when he

\_met\_ them."

In these examples, the verbs \_loved\_ and \_met\_ express past and

\_finished\_ actions, and therefore constitute a \_perfect\_ tense as

strictly as any form of the verb in our language; but, as they do not

define the precise time of the completion of these actions, their tense

may properly be denominated an \_indefinite past\_. By defining the

present participle in conjunction with the verb, we have an \_imperfect\_

tense in the expression, \_were travelling\_. This course, however, would

not be in accordance with the ordinary method of treating the

participle. Hence it follows, that the terms \_imperfect\_ and \_perfect\_,

as applied to this and the next succeeding tense, are not altogether

significant of their true character; but if you learn to apply these

tenses \_correctly\_, the propriety or impropriety of their names is not a

consideration of very great moment.

The PERFECT TENSE denotes past time, and also conveys an allusion to the

present; as, "I \_have\_ finished my letter."

The verb \_have finished\_, in this example, signifies that the action,

though past, was perfectly finished at a point of time immediately

preceding, or in the course of a period which comes to the present.

Under this view of the subject, the term \_perfect\_ may be properly

applied to this tense, for it specifies, not only the completion of the

action, but, also, alludes to the particular period of its

accomplishment.

The PLUPERFECT TENSE represents a past action or event that transpired

before some other past time specified; as, "I \_had finished\_ my letter

before my brother arrived."

You observe that the verb \_had finished\_, in this example, represents

one \_past\_ action, and the arrival of my brother, another \_past\_ action;

therefore \_had finished\_ is in the pluperfect tense, because the action

took place prior to the taking place of the other past action specified

in the same sentence.

The FIRST FUTURE TENSE denotes a future action or event; as "I \_will

finish\_; I \_shall finish\_ my letter."

The SECOND FUTURE TENSE represents a future action that will be fully

accomplished, at or before the time of another future action or event;

as, "I \_shall have finished\_ my letter when my brother arrives."

This example clearly shows you the meaning and the proper use of the

second future tense. The verb "shall have finished" implies a future

action that will be completely finished, at or before the time of the

other future event denoted by the phrase, "\_when\_ my brother \_arrives\_."

NOTE. What is sometimes called the \_Inceptive\_ future, is expressed

thus, "I am going \_to write\_;" "I am about \_to write\_." Future time

is also indicated by placing the infinitive present immediately

after the indicative present of the verb \_to be\_; thus, "I am \_to

write\_;" "Harrison is \_to be\_, or ought \_to be\_, commander in

chief;" "Harrison is \_to command\_ the army."

You may now read what is said respecting the moods and tenses several

times over, and then you may learn to \_conjugate\_ a verb. But, before

you proceed to the conjugation of verbs, you will please to commit the

following paragraph on the \_Auxiliary\_ verbs and, also, the \_signs\_ of

the moods and tenses; and, in conjugating, you must pay particular

attention to the manner in which these signs are applied.

OF THE AUXILIARY VERBS.

AUXILIARY or HELPING VERBS are those by the help of which the English

verbs are principally conjugated. \_May, can, must, might, could, would,

should,\_ and \_shall\_, are always auxiliaries; \_do, be, have\_, and

\_will\_, are sometimes auxiliaries, and sometimes principal verbs.

The use of the auxiliaries is shown in the following conjugation.

SIGNS OF THE MOODS.

The \_Indicative\_ Mood is known by the \_sense\_, or by its having \_no

sign\_, except in asking a question; as, "Who \_loves\_ you?"

The conjunctions \_if, though, unless, except, whether\_, and \_lest\_, are

generally signs of the \_Subjunctive\_; as, "\_If\_ I \_love; unless\_ I

\_love\_," &c.

A verb is generally known to be in, the \_Imperative\_ Mood by its

agreeing with \_thou\_, or \_ye\_ or \_you\_, understood; as, \_"Love\_ virtue,

\_and follow\_ her steps;" that is, love \_thou\_, or love \_ye\_ or \_you\_;

follow \_thou\_, &c.

\_May, can\_, and \_must, might, could, would\_, and \_should\_, are signs of

the \_Potential\_ Mood; as, "I \_may\_ love; I \_must\_ love; I \_should\_

love," &c.

\_To\_ is the sign of the \_Infinitive\_; as, "\_To\_ love, \_to\_ smile, \_to\_

hate, \_to\_ walk."

SIGNS OF THE TENSES.

The first form of the verb is the sign of the present tense; as, \_love,

smile, hate, walk\_.

\_Ed\_--the imperfect tense of regular verbs; as, \_loved, smiled, hated,

walked\_.

\_Have\_--the perfect; as, \_have\_ loved.

\_Had\_--the pluperfect; as, \_had\_ loved. \_Shall\_ or \_will\_--the first

future; as, \_shall\_ love, or \_will\_ love; \_shall\_ smile, \_will\_ smile.

\_Shall\_ or \_will have\_--the second future; as, \_shall have\_ loved, or

\_will have\_ loved.

NOTE. There are some exceptions to these signs, which you will

notice by referring to the conjugation in the potential mood.

Now, I hope you will so far consult your own ease and advantage, as to

commit, perfectly, the signs of the moods and tenses before you proceed

farther than to the subjunctive mood. If you do, the supposed Herculean

task of learning to conjugate verbs, will be transformed into a few

hours of pleasant pastime.

The Indicative Mood has \_six\_ tenses.

The Subjunctive has also \_six\_ tenses.

The Imperative has only \_one\_ tense.

The Potential has \_four\_ tenses.

The Infinitive has \_two\_ tenses.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

The CONJUGATION of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of

its several numbers, persons, moods, and tenses.

The Conjugation of an active verb, is styled the \_active voice\_; and

that of a passive verb, the \_passive voice\_.

Verbs are called Regular when they form their imperfect tense of the

indicative mood, and their perfect participle, by adding to the present

tense \_ed\_, or \_d\_ only when the verb ends in \_e\_; as,

Pres. Tense. Imp. Tense. Perf. Participle

I favor. I favor\_ed\_. favor\_ed\_.

I love. I love\_d\_, love\_d\_.

A Regular Verb is conjugated in the following manner.

TO LOVE.--INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. \_Pers\_. I love, 1. We love,

2. \_Pers\_. Thou lovest, 2. Ye \_or\_ you love,

3. \_Pers\_. He, she, \_or\_ it, loveth 3. They love.

\_or\_ loves.

When we wish to express energy or positiveness, the auxiliary \_do\_

should precede the verb in the present tense: thus,

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. I do love, 1. We do love,

2. Thou dost love, 2. Ye \_or\_ you do love,

3. He doth \_or\_ does love. 3. They do love.

Imperfect Tense.

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. I loved, 1. We loved,

2. Thou lovedst, 2. Ye \_or\_ you loved,

3. He loved. 3. They loved.

Or by-prefixing \_did\_ to the present: thus,

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. I did love 1. We did love,

2. Thou didst love, 2. Ye \_or\_ you did love,

3. He did love. 3. They did love.

Perfect Tense.

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. I have loved, 1. We have loved,

2. Thou hast loved, 2. Ye \_or\_ you have loved,

3. He hath \_or\_ has loved. 3. They have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. I had loved, 1. We had loved,

2. Thou hadst loved, 2. Ye \_or\_ you had loved,

3. He had loved. 3. They had loved.

First Future Tense.

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. I shall \_or\_ will love, 1. We shall \_or\_ will love,

2. Thou shalt \_or\_ wilt love, 2. Ye \_or\_ you shall \_or\_ will

love,

3. He shall \_or\_ will love, 3. They shall \_or\_ will love.

Second Future Tense.

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. I shall have loved, 1. We shall have loved,

2. Thou wilt have loved, 2. Ye \_or\_ you will have loved,

3. He will have loved, 3. They will have loved.

NOTE. Tenses formed without auxiliaries, are called \_simple\_ tenses;

as, I \_love;\_ I \_loved;\_ but those formed by the help of

auxiliaries, are denominated \_compound\_ tenses; as, I \_have loved;\_

I \_had loved\_, &c.

This display of the verb shows you, in the clearest light, the

application of the \_signs\_ of the \_tenses\_, which signs ought to be

perfectly committed to memory before you proceed any farther. By looking

again at the conjugation, you will notice, that \_have\_, placed before

the perfect participle of any verb, forms the perfect tense; \_had\_, the

pluperfect; \_shall\_ or \_will\_, the first future, and so on.

Now speak each of the verbs, \_love, hate, walk, smile, rule\_, and

\_conquer\_, in the first person of each tense in this mood, with the

pronoun \_I\_ before it; thus, indicative mood, pres. tense, first pers.

sing. I love; imperf. I loved; perf. I have loved; and so on, through

all the tenses. If you learn thoroughly the conjugation of the verb in

the indicative mood, you will find no difficulty in conjugating it

through those that follow, for in the conjugation through all the moods,

there is a great similarity.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, or elliptical future.--\_Conjunctive form\_.

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. If I love, 1. If we love,

2. If thou love, 2. If ye \_or\_ you love,

3. If he love. 3. If they love.

Look again at the conjugation in the indicative present, and you will

observe, that the form of the verb differs from this form in the

subjunctive. The verb in the present tense of this mood, does not vary

its termination on account of number or person. This is called the

\_conjunctive\_ form of the verb; but sometimes the verb in the

subjunctive mood, present tense, is conjugated in the same manner as it

is in the indicative, with this exception, \_if, though, unless\_, or some

other conjunction, is prefixed; as,

\_Indicative form\_.

\_Singular\_. \_Plural\_.

1. If I love, 1. If we love,

2. If thou lovest, 2. If ye \_or\_ you love,

3. If he loves, 3. If they love.

The following general rule will direct you when to use the \_conjunctive\_

form of the verb, and when the \_indicative\_. When a verb in the

subjunctive mood, present tense, has a \_future\_ signification, or a

reference to \_future\_ time, the conjunctive form should be used; as, "If

thou \_prosper\_, thou shouldst be thankful;" "He will maintain his

principles, though he \_lose\_ his estate;" that is, If thou \_shalt\_ or

\_shouldst\_ prosper; though he \_shall\_ or \_should\_ lose, &c. But when a

verb in the subjunctive mood, present tense, has \_no\_ reference to

future time, the indicative form ought to be used; as, "Unless he

\_means\_ what he says, he is doubly faithless." By this you perceive,

that when a verb in the present tense of the subjunctive mood, has a

future signification, an \_auxiliary\_ is always understood before it, for

which reason, in this construction, the termination of the principal

verb never varies; us, "He will not become eminent, unless he \_exert\_

himself;" that is, unless he \_shall\_ exert, or \_should\_ exert himself.

This tense of the subjunctive mood ought to be called the \_elliptical

future\_.

The imperfect, the perfect, the pluperfect, and the first future tenses

of this mood, are conjugated, in every respect, like the same tenses of

the indicative, with this exception; in the subjunctive mood, a

conjunction implying doubt, &c. is prefixed to the verb. In the second

future tense of this mood, the verb is conjugated thus:

Second Future Tense.

\_Singular.\_ \_Plural\_.

1. If I shall have loved, 1. If we shall have loved,

2. If thou shalt have loved, 2. If you shall have loved,

3. If he shall have loved. 3. If they shall have loved.

Look at the same tense in the indicative mood, and you will readily

perceive the distinction between the two conjugations.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

\_Singular.\_ \_Plural\_.

2. Love, \_or\_ love thou, \_or\_ do 2. Love, \_or\_ love ye \_or\_ you, \_or\_

thou love. do ye \_or\_ you love.

NOTE. We cannot command, exhort, &c. either in \_past\_ or \_future\_

time; therefore a verb in this mood is always in the \_present\_

tense.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

\_Singular.\_ \_Plural\_.

1. I may, can, \_or\_ must love, 1. We may, can, or must love,

2. Thou mayst, canst, \_or\_ must 2. Ye \_or\_ you may, can, \_or\_

love, must love,

3. He may, can, \_or\_ must love. 3. They may, can, \_or\_ must love.

Imperfect Tense.

\_Singular.\_ \_Plural\_.

1. I might, could, would, \_or\_ 1. We might, could, would, \_or\_

should love, should love,

2. Thou mightst, couldst, 2. Ye \_or\_ you might, could,

wouldst, \_or\_ shouldst love, would, \_or\_ should love,

3. He might, could, would, \_or\_ 3. They might, could, would,

should love, \_or\_ should love.

Perfect Tense.

\_Singular.\_ \_Plural\_.

1. I may, can, \_or\_ must have 1. We may, can, \_or\_ must have

loved, loved,

2. Thou mayst, canst, \_or\_ must 2. Ye \_or\_ you may, can, \_or\_

have loved, must have loved,

3. He may, can, \_or\_ must 3. They may, can, \_or\_ must

have loved. have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

\_Singular.\_ \_Plural\_.

1. I might, could, would, 1. We might, could, would,

\_or\_ should have loved, \_or\_ should have loved,

2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, 2. Ye \_or\_ you might, could,

\_or\_ shouldst have loved, would, \_or\_ should have loved,

3. He might, could, would, 3. They might, could, would,

\_or\_ should have loved, \_or\_ should have loved.

By examining carefully the conjugation of the verb through this mood,

you will find it very easy; thus, you will notice, that whenever any of

the auxiliaries, \_may, can\_, or \_must\_, is placed before a verb, that

verb is in the potential mood, \_present\_ tense; \_might, could, would\_,

or \_should\_, renders it in the potential mood, \_imperfect\_ tense; \_may,

can\_, or \_must have\_, the \_perfect\_ tense; and \_might, could, would\_, or

\_should have\_, the \_pluperfect\_ tense.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. Tense. To love. Perf. Tense. To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present \_or\_ imperfect, Loving.

Perfect \_or\_ passive, Loved.

Compound, Having loved.

NOTE. The perfect participle of a regular verb, corresponds exactly

with the imperfect tense; yet the former may, at all times, be

distinguished from the latter, by the following rule: In

composition, the imperfect tense of a verb \_always\_ has a

nominative, either expressed or implied: the perfect participle

\_never\_ has.

For your encouragement, allow me to inform you, that when you shall have

learned to conjugate the verb \_to love\_, you will be able to conjugate

all the regular verbs in the English language, for they are all

conjugated precisely in the same manner. By pursuing the following

direction, you can, in a very short time, learn to conjugate any verb.

Conjugate the verb \_love\_ through all the moods and tenses, in the first

person singular, with the pronoun \_I\_ before it, and speak the

Participles: thus, Indicative mood, pres. tense, first pers. sing. I

\_love\_, imperf. tense, I \_loved\_; perf. tense, I \_have loved\_; and so

on, through every mood and tense. Then conjugate it in the second pers.

sing, with the pronoun \_thou\_ before it, through all the moods and

tenses; thus, Indic. mood, pres. tense, second pers. sing, thou

\_lovest\_; imperf. tense, thou \_lovedst\_; and so on, through the whole.

After that, conjugate it in the third pers. sing, with \_he\_ before it;

and then in the first pers. plural, with \_we\_ before it, in like manner

through all the moods and tenses. Although this mode of procedure may,

at first, appear to be laborious, yet, as it is necessary, I trust you

will not hesitate to adopt it. My confidence in your perseverance,

induces me to recommend any course which I know will tend to facilitate

your progress.

When you shall have complied with my requisition, you may conjugate the

following verbs in the same manner; which will enable you, hereafter, to

tell the mood and tense of any verb without hesitation: \_walk, hate,

smile, rule, conquer, reduce, relate, melt, shun, fail\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

The changes in the termination of words, in all languages, have been

formed by the \_coalescence\_ of words of appropriate meaning. This

subject was approached on page 49. It is again taken up for the

purpose of showing, that the moods and tenses, as well as the number

and person, of English verbs, do not solely depend on inflection.

The coalescing syllables which form the number and person of the

Hebrew verb, are still considered pronouns; and, by those who have

investigated the subject, it is conceded, that the same plan has

been adopted in the formation of the Latin and Greek verbs, as in

the Hebrew. Some languages have carried this process to a very great

extent. Ours is remarkable for the small number of its inflections.

But they who reject the passive verb, and those moods and tenses

which are formed by employing what are called "auxiliary verbs,"

\_because they are formed of two or more verbs\_, do not appear to

reason soundly. It is inconsistent to admit, that walk-\_eth\_, and

walk-\_ed\_, are tenses, because each is but one word, and to reject

\_have\_ walked, and \_will\_ walk, as tenses, because each is composed

of two words. \_Eth\_, as previously shown, is a contraction of

\_doeth\_, or \_haveth\_, and \_ed\_, of \_dede, dodo, doed\_, or \_did\_;

and, therefore, walk-\_eth\_; i.e. walk-\_doeth\_, or \_doeth\_-walk, and

walk-\_ed\_; i.e. walk-\_did\_, or \_doed\_ or \_did\_-walk, are, when

analyzed, as strictly compound, as \_will\_ walk, \_shall\_ walk, and

\_have\_ walked. The only difference in the formation of these tenses,

is, that in the two former, the associated verbs have been

contracted and made to coalesce with the main verb, but in the two

latter, they still maintain their ground as separate words.

If it be said that \_will walk\_ is composed of two words, each of

which conveys a distinct idea, and, therefore, should be analyzed by

itself, the same argument with all its force, may be applied to

walk-\_eth\_, walk-\_ed\_, walk-\_did\_, or \_did\_ walk. The result of all

the investigations of this subject, appears to settle down into the

hackneyed truism, that the passive verbs, and the moods and tenses,

of some languages, are formed by inflections, or terminations either

prefixed or postfixed, and of other languages, by the association of

auxiliary verbs, which have not yet been contracted and made to

coalesce as \_terminations\_. The auxiliary, when contracted into a

\_terminating syllable,\_ retains its distinct and intrinsic meaning,

as much as when associated with a verb by juxtaposition:

consequently, an "auxiliary verb" may form a part of a mood or

tense, or passive verb, with as much propriety as a \_terminating

syllable\_. They who contend for the ancient custom of keeping the

auxiliaries distinct, and parsing them as primary verbs, are, by the

same principle, bound to extend their dissecting-knife \_to every

compound word in the language\_.

Having thus attempted briefly to prove the philosophical accuracy of

the theory which recognises the tenses, moods, and passive verbs,

formed by the aid of auxiliaries, I shall now offer one argument to

show that this theory, and this \_only\_, will subserve the purposes

of the practical grammarian.

As it is not so much the province of philology to instruct in the

exact meaning of single and separate words, as it is to teach the

student to combine and employ them properly in framing sentences,

and as those \_combinations\_ which go by the name of compound tenses

and passive verbs, are necessary in writing and discourse, it

follows, conclusively, that that theory which does not explain these

verbs in their \_combined\_ state, cannot teach the student the

correct use and application of the verbs of our language. By such an

arrangement, he cannot learn when it is proper to use the phrases,

\_shall have walked, might have gone, have seen\_, instead of, \_shall

walk, might go\_, and \_saw\_; because this theory has nothing to do

with the combining of verbs. If it be alleged, that the speaker or

writer's own good sense must guide him in combining these verbs,

and, therefore, that the directions of the grammarian are

unnecessary, it must be recollected, that such an argument would

bear, equally, against every principle of grammar whatever. In

short, the theory of the compound tenses, and of the passive verb,

appears to be so firmly based in the genius of our language, and so

practically important to the student, as to defy all the engines of

the paralogistic speculator, and the philosophical quibbler, to

batter it down.

But the most plausible objection to the old theory is, that it is

encumbered with much useless technicality and tedious prolixity,

which are avoided by the \_simple\_ process of exploding the passive

verb, and reducing the number of the moods to three, and of the

tenses to two. It is certain, however, that if we reject the \_names\_

of the perfect, pluperfect, and future tenses, the \_names\_ of the

potential and subjunctive moods, and of the passive verb, in writing

and discourse we must still employ those \_verbal combinations\_ which

form them; and it is equally certain, that the proper mode of

employing such combinations, is as easily taught or learned by the

old theory, which \_names\_ them, as by the new, which gives them \_no

name\_.

On philosophical principles, we might, perhaps, dispense with the

\_future\_ tenses of the verb, by analyzing each word separately; but,

as illustrated on page 79, the combined words which form our perfect

and pluperfect tenses have an \_associated\_ meaning, which is

destroyed by analyzing each word separately. That arrangement,

therefore, which rejects these tenses, appears to be, not only

\_unphilosophical\_, but inconsistent and inaccurate.

For the satisfaction of those teachers who prefer it, and for their

adoption, too, a modernized \_philosophical\_ theory of the moods and

tenses is here presented. If it is not quite so convenient and

useful as the old one, they need not hesitate to adopt it. It has

the advantage of being \_new\_; and, moreover, it sounds \_large\_, and

will make the \_commonalty stare\_. Let it be distinctly understood,

that you teach \_"philosophical grammar, founded on reason and common

sense\_," and you will pass for a very learned man, and make all the

good housewives wonder at the rapid march of intellect, and the vast

improvements of the age.

MOOD.

Verbs have three moods, the indicative, (embracing what is commonly

included under the \_indicative\_, the \_subjunctive\_, and the

\_potential\_,) the imperative, and the infinitive.--For definitions,

refer to the body of the work.

TENSE OR TIME.

Verbs have only two tenses, the present and the past. A verb

expressing action commenced and not completed, is in the present

tense; as, "Religion \_soars\_: it \_has\_ gained many victories: it

\_will\_ [to] \_carry\_ its votaries to the blissful regions."

When a verb expresses finished action, it is in the past tense; as,

"This page (the Bible) God \_hung\_ out of heaven, and \_retired\_."

A verb in the imperative and infinitive moods, is always in the

\_present\_ tense, high authorities to the contrary notwithstanding.

The \_command\_ must \_necessarily\_ be given in time present, although

its \_fulfilment\_ must be future. John, what are you doing? Learning

my task. Why do you learn it? Because my preceptor \_commanded\_ me to

do so. When \_did\_ he command you? \_Yesterday\_.--Not \_now\_, of

course.

That it is inconsistent with the nature of things for a command to

be given in \_future\_ time, and that the \_fulfilment\_ of the command,

though future, has nothing to do with the tense or time of the

command itself, are truths so plain as to put to the blush the gross

absurdity of those who identify the time of the fulfilment with

that of the command.

\* \* \* \* \*

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

You \_may read\_ the book which I \_have printed\_. \_May\_, an irregular

active verb, signifying "to have and to exercise might or strength,"

indic. mood, pres. tense, second pers. plur. agreeing with its nom.

\_you. Read\_, an irregular verb active, infinitive mood, pres. tense,

with the sign \_to\_ understood, referring to \_you\_ as its agent.

\_Have\_, an active verb, signifying to \_possess\_, indic. present, and

having for its object, book understood after "which." \_Printed\_, a

perf. participle, referring to book understood.

Johnson, and Blair, and Lowth, \_would have been laughed at, had\_

they \_essayed\_ to \_thrust\_ any thing like our modernized

philosophical grammar down the throats of their contemporaries.

\_Would\_, an active verb, signifying "to exercise volition," in the

past tense of the indicative. \_Have\_, a verb, in the infinitive,

\_to\_ understood. \_Been\_, a perfect part. of to \_be\_, referring to

Johnson, Blair, and Lowth. \_Laughed at\_, perf. part, of to \_laugh

at\_, referring to the same as \_been. Had\_, active verb, in the past

tense of the indicative, agreeing with its nom. \_they. Essayed\_,

perf. part, referring to they.

Call this "\_philosophical\_ parsing, on reasoning principles,

according to the original laws of nature and of thought," and the

\_pill\_ will be swallowed, by pedants and their dupes, with the

greatest ease imaginable.

\* \* \* \* \*

LECTURE XII.

OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

Irregular verbs are those that do not form

their imperfect tense and perfect participle by the

addition of \_d\_ or \_ed\_ to the present tense; as,

\_Pres. Tense. Imperf. Tense. Perf. or Pass. Part.\_

I write I wrote written

I begin I began begun

I go I went gone

The following is a list of the \_irregular\_ verbs. Those marked with an R

are sometimes conjugated \_regularly\_.

\_Pres. Tense. Imperf. Tense. Perf. or Pass. Part.\_

Abide abode abode

Am was been

Arise arose arisen

Awake awoke, R. awaked

Bear, \_to bring forth\_ bare born

Bear, \_to carry\_ bore borne

Beat beat beaten, beat

Begin began begun

Bend bent bent

Bereave bereft, R. bereft, R.

Beseech besought besought

Bid bade, bid bidden, bid

Bind bound bound

Bite bit bitten, bit

Bleed bled bled

Blow blew blown

Break broke broken

Breed bred bred

Bring brought brought

Build built built

Burst burst, R. burst, R.

Buy bought bought

Cast cast cast

Catch caught, R. caught, R.

Chide chid chidden, chid

Choose chose chosen

Cleave, \_to adhere\_ clave, R. cleaved

Cleave, \_to split\_ cleft cleft,

\_or\_

clove cloven

Cling clung clung

Clothe clothed clad, R.

Come came come

Cost cost cost

Crow crew, R. crowed

Creep crept crept

Cut cut cut

Dare, \_to venture\_ durst dared

Dare, \_to challenge\_ REGULAR

Deal dealt, R. dealt, R.

Dig dug, R. dug, R.

Do did done

Draw drew drawn

Drive drove driven

Drink drank drunk, drank[6]

Dwell dwelt, R. dwelt, R.

Eat eat, ate eaten

Fall fell fallen

Feed fed fed

Feel felt felt

Fight fought fought

Find found found

Flee fled fled

Fling flung flung

Fly flew flown

Forget forgot forgotten

Forsake forsook forsaken

Freeze froze frozen

Get got got[7]

Gild gilt, R. gilt, R.

Gird girt, R. girt, R.

Give gave given

Go went gone

Grave graved graven, R.

Grind ground ground

Grow grew grown

Have had had

Hang hung, R. hung, R.

Hear heard heard

Hew hewed hewn, R.

Hide hid hidden, hid

Hit hit hit

Hold held held

Hurt hurt hurt

Keep kept kept

Knit knit, R. knit, R.

Know knew known

Lade laded laden

Lay laid laid

Lead led led

Leave left left

Lend lent lent

Let let let

Lie, \_to lie down\_ lay lain

Load loaded laden, R.

Lose lost lost

Make made made

Meet met met

Mow mowed mown, R.

Pay paid paid

Put put put

Read read read

Rend rent rent

Rid rid rid

Ride rode rode, ridden[8]

Ring rung, rang rung

Rise rose risen

Rive rived riven

Run ran run

Saw sawed sawn, R.

Say said said

See saw seen

Seek sought sought

Sell sold sold

Send sent sent

Set set set

Shake shook shaken

Shape shaped shaped, shapen

Shave shaved shaven, R.

Shear sheared shorn

Shed shed shed

Shine shone, R. shone, R.

Show showed shown

Shoe shod shod

Shoot shot shot

Shrink shrunk shrunk

Shred shred shred

Shut shut shut

Sing sung, sang[9] sung

Sink sunk, sank[9] sunk

Sit sat set

Slay slew slain

Sleep slept slept

Slide slid slidden

Sling slung slung

Slink slunk slunk

Slit slit, R. slit

Smite smote smitten

Sow sowed sown, R.

Speak spoke spoken

Speed sped sped

Spend spent spent

Spill spilt, R. spilt, R.

Spin spun spun

Spit spit, spat spit, spitten [10]

Split split split

Spread spread spread

Spring sprung, sprang sprung

Stand stood stood

Steal stole stolen

Stick stuck stuck

Sting stung stung

Stink stunk stunk

Stride strode, strid stridden

Strike struck struck \_or\_ stricken

String strung strung

Strive strove striven

Strow strowed strown,

\_or\_ \_or\_ strowed \_or\_

strew strewed strewed

Sweat swet, R. swet, R.

Swear swore sworn

Swell swelled swollen, R.

Swim swum, swam swum

Swing swung swung

Take took taken

Teach taught taught

Tear tore torn

Tell told told

Think thought thought

Thrive throve, R. thriven

Throw threw thrown

Thrust thrust thrust

Tread trod trodden

Wax waxed waxen, R.

Wear wore worn

Weave wove woven

Wet wet wet, R.

Weep wept wept

Win won won

Wind wound wound

Work wrought, wrought,

worked worked

Wring wrung wrung

Write wrote written

[6] The men were drunk; i.e. inebriated. The toasts were drank.

[7] Gotten is nearly obsolete. Its compound forgotten, is still in

good use.

[8] Ridden is nearly obsolete.

[9] Sang and sank should not be used in familiar style.

[10] Spitten is nearly obsolete.

In familiar writing and discourse, the following, and some other verbs,

are often improperly terminated by \_t\_ instead of \_ed\_; as, "learnt,

spelt, spilt, stopt, latcht." They should be, "learned, spelled, spilled,

stopped, latched."

You may now conjugate the following irregular verbs, in a manner similar

to the conjugation of regular verbs: \_arise, begin, bind, do, go, grow,

run, lend, teach, write\_. Thus, to \_arise\_--Indicative mood, pres.

tense, first person, sing. I arise; imperf. tense, I arose; perf. tense,

I have arisen, and so on, through all the moods, and all the tenses of

each mood; and then speak the participles: thus, pres. arising, perf.

arisen, comp. having arisen. In the next place, conjugate the same verb

in the second person sing. through all the moods and tenses; and then in

the third person sing. and in the first pers. plural. After that, you

may proceed in the same manner with the words \_begin, bind\_, &c.

Now read the eleventh and twelfth lectures \_four\_ or \_five\_ times over,

and learn the order of parsing a verb. You will then be prepared to

parse the following verbs in full; and I presume, all the other parts of

speech. Whenever you parse, you must refer to the Compendium for

definitions and rules, if you cannot repeat them without, I will now

parse a verb, and describe all its properties by applying the

definitions and rules according to the systematic order.

"We \_could\_ not \_accomplish\_ the business."

\_Could accomplish\_ is a verb, a word which signifies to do--active, it

expresses action--transitive, the action passes over from the nom. "we"

to the object "business"--regular, it will form its imperfect tense of

the indic. mood and perf. part, in \_ed\_--potential mood, it implies

possibility or power--imperfect tense, it denotes past time however

distant--first pers. plural, because the nom. "we" is with which it

agrees, agreeably to RULE 4. \_A verb must agree\_, &c. Conjugated--Indic.

mood, present tense, first pers. sing. I accomplish; imperfect tense, I

accomplished; perfect, I have accomplished; pluperfect, I had

accomplished; and so on.--Speak it in the person of each tense through

all the moods, and conjugate, in the same manner, every verb you parse.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

\_These exercises contain a complete variety of Moods and Tenses\_.

I learn my lesson well. Charles, thou learnest thy lesson badly. John,

do you write a good hand? Those ladies wrote a beautiful letter, but

they did not despatch it. Have you seen the gentleman to whom I gave the

book? He has gone. They had received the news before the messenger

arrived. When will those persons return? My friend shall receive his

reward. He will have visited me three times, if he come to-morrow.

If Eliza study diligently, she will improve. If Charles studies he does

not improve. Unless that man shall have accomplished his work, by

midsummer, he will receive no wages. Orlando, obey my precepts, unless

you wish to injure yourself. Remember what is told you. The physician

may administer the medicine, but Providence only can bless it. I told,

him that he might go, but he would not. He might have gone last week,

had he conducted himself properly; (that is, \_if he had conducted\_, &c.)

Boys, prepare to recite your lessons. Young ladies, let me hear you

repeat what you have learned. Study, diligently, whatever task may be

allotted to you. To correct the spirit of discontent, let us consider

how little we deserve. To die for one's country, is glorious. How can we

become wise? To seek God is wisdom. What is true greatness? Active

benevolence. A good man is a great man.

NOTE 1. \_Man\_, following \_great\_, and \_what\_, in the last two

examples, are nom. after \_is\_: RULE 21. \_To seek God\_, and \_to die

for one's country\_, are members of sentences, each put as the nom.

case to \_is\_ respectively: RULE 24. The verb \_to correct\_ is the

infinitive mood absolute: NOTE under RULE 23. \_May be allotted\_ is a

passive verb, agreeing with \_which\_, the relative part of \_whatever.

That\_, the first part of whatever, is an adj. pronoun, agreeing with

\_task\_; and \_task\_ is governed by \_study.\_ \_Hear\_, following \_let\_,

and \_repeat\_, following \_hear\_, are in the infinitive mood without

the sign \_to\_, according to RULE 25. \_To recite\_ is governed by

\_prepare\_: RULE 23. \_Is told\_, is a passive verb, agreeing with

\_which\_, the relative part of \_whatever\_; and \_you\_, following, is

governed by \_to\_ understood: NOTE 1, under RULE 32.

2. In parsing a pronoun, if the noun for which it stands is not

expressed, you must say it represents some person or thing

understood.

LECTURE XIII.

OF THE AUXILIARY, PASSIVE, AND DEFECTIVE VERBS.

I. AUXILIARY VERBS.

Before you attend to the following additional remarks on the Auxiliary

Verbs, you will do well to read again what is said respecting them in

Lecture XI. page 140. The short account there given, and their

application in conjugating verbs, have already made them quite familiar

to you; and you have undoubtedly observed, that, without their help, we

cannot conjugate any verb in any of the tenses, except the present and

imperfect of the indicative and subjunctive moods, and the present of

the imperative and infinitive. In the formation of all the other tenses,

they are brought into requisition.

Most of the auxiliary verbs are defective in conjugation; that is, they

are used only in some of the moods and tenses; and when unconnected with

principal verbs, they are conjugated in the following manner:

MAY.

Pres. Tense \_Sing\_. I may, thou mayst, he may.

\_Plur\_. We may, ye \_or\_ you may, they may.

Imperf. \_Sing\_. I might, thou mightst, he might.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We might, ye \_or\_ you might, they might.

CAN.

Pres. \_Sing\_. I can, thou canst, he can.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We can, ye \_or\_ you can, they can.

Imperf. \_Sing\_. I could, thou couldst, he could.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We could, ye \_or\_ you could, they could.

WILL.

Pres. \_Sing\_. I will, thou wilt, he will.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We will, ye \_or\_ you will, they will.

Imperf. \_Sing\_. I would, thou wouldst, he would.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We would, ye \_or\_ you would, they would.

SHALL.

Pres. \_Sing\_. I shall, thou shalt, he shall.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We shall, ye \_or\_ you shall, they shall.

Imperf. \_Sing\_. I should, thou shouldst, he should.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We should, ye \_or\_ you should, they should.

TO DO.

Pres. \_Sing\_. I do, thou dost \_or\_ doest, he doth \_or\_ does.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We do, ye \_or\_ you do, they do.

Imperf. \_Sing\_. I did, thou didst, he did.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We did, ye \_or\_ you did, they did.

\_Participles\_. Pres. doing. Perf. done.

TO BE.

Pres. \_Sing\_. I am, thou art, he is.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We are, ye \_or\_ you are, they are.

Imperf. \_Sing\_. I was, thou wast, he was.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We were, ye \_or\_ you were, they were.

\_Participles\_. Pres. being. Perf. been.

TO HAVE.

Pres. \_Sing\_. I have, thou hast, he hath \_or\_ has.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We have, ye \_or\_ you have, they have.

Imperf. \_Sing\_. I had, thou hadst, he had.

Tense. \_Plur\_. We had, ye \_or\_ you had, they had.

\_Participles\_. Pres. having. Perf. had.

\_Do, be, have\_, and \_will\_, are sometimes used as principal verbs; and

when employed as such, \_do, be\_, and \_have\_, may be conjugated, by the

help of other auxiliaries, through all the moods and tenses.

DO. The different tenses of \_do\_, in the several moods, are thus formed:

Indicative mood, pres. tense, first pers. sing. I do; imperfect tense, I

did; perf. I have done; pluperfect, I had done; first future, I shall or

will do; sec. fut. I shall have done. Subjunctive mood, pres. tense, If

I do; imperf. if I did; and so on. Imperative mood, do thou. Potential,

pres. I may, can, or must do, &c. Infinitive, present, to do; perf. to

have done. Participles, pres. doing; perf. done; compound, having done.

HAVE. \_Have\_ is in great demand. No verb can be conjugated through all

the moods and tenses without it. \_Have\_, when used as a principal verb,

is doubled in some of the past tenses, and becomes an auxiliary to

itself; thus, Indic. mood, pres. tense, first pers. sing. I have;

imperf. tense, I had; perf. I have had; pluperf. I had had; first fut. I

shall or will have; sec. fut. I shall have had. Subjunctive, present, if

I have; imperf. if I had; perf. if I have had; pluperf. if I had had;

first fut. if I shall or will have; sec. fut. if I shall have had.

Imper. mood, have thou. Potential, present, I may, can, or must have;

imperf. I might, could, would, or should have; perf. I may, can, or must

have had; pluperf. I might, could, would, or should have had.

Infinitive, present, to have; perf. to have had. Participles, pres.

having; perf. had; compound, having had.

BE. In the next place I will present to you the conjugation of the

irregular, neuter verb, \_Be\_, which is an auxiliary whenever it is

placed before the perfect participle of another verb, but in every other

situation, it is a \_principal\_ verb.

TO BE.--INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I am, thou art, he, she, \_or\_ it is.

\_Plur\_. We are, ye \_or\_ you are, they are.

Imperf. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I was, thou wast, he was.

\_Plur\_. We were, ye \_or\_ you were, they were.

Perf. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I have been, thou hast been, he hath \_or\_ has been.

\_Plur\_. We have been, ye \_or\_ you have been, they have been.

Plup. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I had been, thou hadst been, he had been.

\_Plur\_. We had been, ye \_or\_ you had been, they had been.

First Fut. T.

\_Sing\_, I shall \_or\_ will be, thou shalt \_or\_ wilt be,

he shall \_or\_ will be.

\_Plur\_. We shall \_or\_ will be, you shall \_or\_ will be,

they shall \_or\_ will be.

Second Fut. T.

\_Sing\_. I shall have been, thou wilt have been, he will have been.

\_Plur\_. We shall have been, you will have been, they will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Pres. Tense.

\_Sing\_. If I be, if thou be, if he be.

\_Plur\_. If we be, if ye \_or\_ you be, if they be.

Imperf. Tense.

\_Sing\_. If I were, if thou wert, if he were.

\_Plur\_. If we were, if ye \_or\_ you were, if they were.

The neuter verb to \_be\_, and all passive verbs, have two forms in the

imperfect tense of this mood, as well as in the present; therefore, the

following rule may serve to direct you in the proper use of each form.

When the sentence implies doubt, supposition, &c. and the neuter verb

\_be\_, or the passive verb, is used with a reference to present or future

time, and is either followed or preceded by another verb in the

imperfect of the potential mood, the \_conjunctive\_ form of the imperfect

tense must be employed; as, "\_If\_ he \_were\_ here, we \_should\_ rejoice

together;" "She \_might\_ go, \_were\_ she so disposed." But when there is

no reference to present or future time, and the verb is neither followed

nor preceded by another in the potential imperfect, the \_indicative\_

form of the imperfect tense must be used; as, "\_If\_ he \_was\_ ill, he did

not make it known;" "\_Whether\_ he \_was\_ absent or present, is a matter

of no consequence." The general rule for using the conjunctive form of

the verb, is presented on page 145. See, also, page 135.

The perfect, pluperfect, and first future tenses of the subjunctive

mood, are conjugated in a manner similar to the correspondent tenses of

the indicative. The second future is conjugated thus:

Second Fut. T.

\_Sing\_. If I shall have been, if thou shalt have been, if he shall. &c

\_Plur\_. If we shall have been, if you shall have been, if they, &c.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Tense.

\_Sing\_. Be, \_or\_ be thou, \_or\_ do thou be.

\_Plur\_. Be, \_or\_ be ye \_or\_ you, or do ye \_or\_ you be.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Pres. Tense

\_Sing\_. I may, can, \_or\_ must be, thou mayst, canst, \_or\_ must be,

he may, can, \_or\_ must be.

\_Plur\_. We may, can, \_or\_ must be, ye \_or\_ you may, can, \_or\_ must be,

they may, can, \_or\_ must be.

Imperf. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I might, could, would, \_or\_ should be, thou mightest, &c.

\_Plur\_. We might, could, would, \_or\_ should be, you might, &c.

Perf. Tense

\_Sing\_. I may, can, \_or\_ must have been, thou mayst, canst, &c.

\_Plur\_. We may, can, \_or\_ must have been, you may, can, \_or\_ must be, &c.

Pluper. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I might, could, would, \_or\_ should have been, thou, &c.

\_Plur\_. We might, could, would, \_or\_ should have been, you, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. Tense. To be. Perf. Tense. To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Being. Perf. Been. Compound, Having been.

This verb to be, though very irregular in its conjugation, is by far the

most important verb in our language, for it is more frequently used than

any other; many rules of syntax depend on constructions associated with

it, and, without its aid, no passive verb can be conjugated. You ought,

therefore, to make yourself perfectly familiar with all its changes,

before you proceed any farther.

\* \* \* \* \*

II. PASSIVE VERBS.

The \_cases of nouns\_ are a fruitful theme for investigation and

discussion. In the progress of these lectures, this subject has

frequently engaged our attention; and, now, in introducing to your

notice the passive verb, it will, perhaps, be found both interesting and

profitable to present one more view of the nominative case.

Every sentence, you recollect, must have one \_finite\_ verb, or more than

one, and one \_nominative\_, either expressed or implied, for, without

them, no sentence can exist.

The \_nominative\_ is the \_actor\_ or \_subject\_ concerning which the verb

makes an affirmation. There are three kinds of nominatives, \_active,

passive\_, and \_neuter\_.

The nominative to an \_active\_ verb, is \_active\_, because it \_produces\_

an action, and the nominative to a \_passive\_ verb, is \_passive\_, because

it \_receives\_ or \_endures\_ the action expressed by the verb; for,

A Passive Verb denotes action \_received\_ or \_endured\_ by the person or

thing which is the nominative; as, "The \_boy is beaten\_ by his father."

You perceive, that the nominative \_boy\_, in this example, is not

represented as the \_actor\_, but as the \_object\_ of the action expressed

by the verb \_is beaten\_; that is, the boy \_receives\_ or \_endures\_ the

action performed by his father; therefore \_boy\_ is a \_passive\_

nominative. And you observe, too, that the verb \_is beaten\_, denotes the

\_action\_ received or endured by the nominative; therefore \_is beaten\_ is

a \_passive\_ verb.

If I say, John \_kicked\_ the horse, John is an active nominative, because

he performed or produced the action; but if I say, John \_was kicked\_ by

the horse, John is a passive nominative, because he received or endured

the action.

The nominative to a \_neuter\_ verb, is \_neuter\_, because it does not

produce an action nor receive one; as, John \_sits\_ in the chair. John is

here connected with the neuter verb \_sits\_, which expresses simply the

state of being of its nominative, therefore \_John\_ is a neuter

nominative.

I will now illustrate the active, passive, and neuter nominatives by a

few examples.

I. Of ACTIVE NOMINATIVES; as, "The \_boy\_ beats the dog; The \_lady\_

sings; The \_ball\_ rolls; The \_man\_ walks."

II. Of PASSIVE NOMINATIVES; as, "The \_boy\_ is beaten; The \_lady\_ is

loved; The \_ball\_ is rolled; The \_man\_ was killed."

III. Of NEUTER NOMINATIVES; as, "The \_boy\_ remains idle; The \_lady\_ is

beautiful; The \_ball\_ lies on the ground; The \_man\_ lives in town."

You may now proceed to the conjugation of passive verbs.

Passive Verbs are called \_regular\_ when they end in \_ed\_; as, was

\_loved\_; was \_conquered\_.

All Passive Verbs \_are formed\_ by adding the \_perfect participle\_ of an

active-transitive verb, to the neuter verb \_to be\_.

If you place a perfect participle of an active-transitive verb after

this neuter verb \_be\_, in any mood or tense, you will have a \_passive\_

verb in the same mood and tense that the verb \_be\_ would be in if the

participle were not used; as, I am \_slighted\_; I was \_slighted\_; he will

be \_slighted\_; If I be \_slighted\_; I may, can, \_or\_ must be \_slighted\_,

&c. Hence you perceive, that when you shall have learned the conjugation

of the verb \_be\_, you will be able to conjugate any passive verb in the

English language.

The regular passive verb to \_be loved\_, which is formed by adding the

perfect participle \_loved\_ to the neuter verb to \_be\_, is conjugated in

the following manner:

TO BE LOVED.--INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Tense

\_Sing\_. I am loved, thou art loved, he is loved.

\_Plur\_. We are loved, ye \_or\_ you are loved, they are loved.

Imperf. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I was loved, thou wast loved, he was loved.

\_Plur\_. We were loved, ye \_or\_ you were loved, they were loved.

Perfect Tense.

\_Sing\_. I have been loved, thou hast been loved, he has been loved.

\_Plur\_. We have been loved, you have been loved, they have, &c.

Pluper. Tense

\_Sing\_. I had been loved, thou hadst been loved, he had been, &c.

\_Plur\_. We had been loved, you had been loved, they had been, &c.

First Future.

\_Sing\_. I shall \_or\_ will be loved, thou shall \_or\_ wilt be loved, he, &c.

\_Plur\_. We shall \_or\_ will be loved, you shall \_or\_ will be loved, they, &c.

First Future.

\_Sing\_. I shall have been loved, thou wilt have been loved, he, &c.

\_Plur\_. We shall have been loved, you will have been loved, &c.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Pres. Tense

\_Sing\_. If I be loved, if thou be loved, if he be loved.

\_Plur\_. If we be loved, if ye \_or\_ you be loved, if they be loved.

Imperf. Tense.

\_Sing\_. If I were loved, if thou wert loved, if he were loved.

\_Plur\_. If we were loved, if you were loved, if they were loved.

This mood has six tenses:--See conjugation of the verb to \_be\_.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Tense.

\_Sing\_. Be thou loved, \_or\_ do thou be loved.

\_Plur\_. Be ye \_or\_ you loved, \_or\_ do ye be loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Pres. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I may, can, \_or\_ must be loved, thou mayst, canst, \_or\_ must, &c.

\_Plur\_. We may, can, \_or\_ must be loved, you may, can, \_or\_ must, &c.

Imperf. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I might, could, would, \_or\_ should be loved, thou mightst, &c.

\_Plur\_. We might, could, would, or should be loved, ye \_or\_ you, &c.

Perfect Tense.

\_Sing\_. I may, can, \_or\_ must have been loved, thou mayst, canst, &c.

\_Plur\_. We may, can, \_or\_ must have been loved, you may, can, &c.

Plup. Tense.

\_Sing\_. I might, could, would, \_or\_ should have been loved, thou

mightst, couldst, wouldst, \_or\_ shouldst have

\_Plur\_. We might, could, would, \_or\_ should have been loved, you

might, could, would, \_or\_ should have been loved, they, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. Tense. To be loved. Perf. Tense. To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being loved. Perfect \_or\_ Passive, Loved.

Compound, Having been loved.

NOTE. This conjugation of the passive verb \_to be loved\_, is called

the \_passive, voice\_ of the regular active-transitive verb \_to

love\_.

Now conjugate the following passive verbs; that is, speak them in the

first pers. sing, and plur. of each tense, through all the moods, and

speak the participles; "to be loved, to be rejected, to be slighted, to

be conquered, to be seen, to be beaten, to be sought, to be taken."

NOTE 1. When the perfect participle of an \_intransitive\_ verb is

joined to the neuter verb \_to be\_, the combination is not a passive

verb, but a \_neuter\_ verb in a \_passive form\_; as, "He \_is gone\_;

The birds \_are flown\_; The boy \_is\_ grown\_; My friend \_is arrived\_."

The following mode of construction, is, in general, to be preferred;

"He \_has\_ gone; The birds \_have\_ flown; The boy \_has\_ grown; My

Friend \_has\_ arrived."

2. Active and neuter verbs may be conjugated by adding their present

participle to the auxiliary verb \_to be\_, through all its

variations; as, instead of, I teach, thou teachest, he teaches, &c.,

we may say, I am teaching, thou art teaching, he is teaching, &c.;

and, instead of, I taught, &c.; I was teaching, &c. This mode of

conjugation expresses the continuation of an action or state of

being; and has, on some occasions, a peculiar propriety, and

contributes to the harmony and precision of language. When the

present participle of an active verb is joined with the neuter verb

to be, the two words united, are, by some grammarians, denominated

an active verb, either transitive or intransitive, as the case may

be; as, "I am writing a letter; He is walking:" and when the present

participle of a neuter verb is thus employed, they term the

combination a neuter verb; as, "I am sitting; He is standing."

Others, in constructions like these, parse each word separately.

Either mode may be adopted.

\* \* \* \* \*

III. DEFECTIVE VERBS.

DEFECTIVE VERBS are those which are used only in some of the moods and

tenses.

The principal of them are these.

\_Pres. Tense. Imperf. Tense. Perfect or Passive Participle

is wanting\_.

May, might. ------------

Can, could. ------------

Will, would. ------------

Shall, should. ------------

Must, must. ------------

Ought, ought. ------------

----- quoth. ------------

NOTE. \_Must\_ and \_ought\_ are not varied. \_Ought\_ and \_quoth\_ are

never used as auxiliaries. \_Ought\_ is always followed by a verb in

the infinitive mood, which verb determines its tenses. \_Ought\_ is in

the \_present\_ tense when the infinitive following it is in the

present; as, "He \_ought\_ to do it;" and \_ought\_ is in the

\_imperfect\_ tense when followed by the perfect of the infinitive;

as, "He \_ought\_ to have done it."

Before you proceed to the analysis of the following examples, you may

read over the last \_three\_ lectures carefully and attentively; and as

soon as you become acquainted with all that has been presented, you will

understand nearly all the principles and regular constructions of our

language. In parsing a verb, or any other part of speech, be careful to

pursue the \_systematic order\_, and to conjugate every verb until you

become familiar with all the moods and tenses.

"He \_should have been punished\_ before he committed that atrocious

deed."

\_Should have been punished\_ is a verb, a word that signifies to

do--passive, it denotes action received or endured by the nom.--it is

formed by adding the perfect part, \_punished\_ to the neuter verb to

\_be\_--regular, the perf. part, ends in \_ed\_--potential mood, it implies

obligation, &c.--pluperfect tense, it denotes a past act which was prior

to the other past time specified by "committed"--third pers. sing.

num. because the nom. "he" is with which it agrees: RULE 4. \_The verb

must agree\_, &c.--Conjugated, Indic. mood, pres. tense, he is punished;

imperf. tense, he was punished; perf. tense, he has been punished; and

so on. Conjugate it through all the moods and tenses, and speak the

participles.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Columbus discovered America. America was discovered by Columbus. The

preceptor is writing a letter. The letter is written by the preceptor.

The work can be done. The house would have been built ere this, had he

fulfilled his promise. If I be beaten by that man, he will be punished.

Young man, if you wish to be respected, you must be more assiduous.

Being ridiculed and despised, he left the institution. He is reading

Homer. They are talking. He may be respected, if he become more

ingenuous. My worthy friend ought to be honored for his benevolent

deeds. This ought ye to have done.

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES IN PARSING.

All the most important principles of the science, together with many of

the rules, have now been presented and illustrated. But before you

proceed to analyze the following exercises, you may turn over a few

pages, and you will find all the rules presented in a body. Please to

examine them critically, and parse the \_examples\_ under each rule and

note. The examples, you will notice, are given to illustrate the

respective rules and notes under which they are placed; hence, by paying

particular attention to them, you will be enabled fully and clearly to

comprehend the meaning and application of all the rules and notes.

As soon as you become familiarly acquainted with all the \_definitions\_

so that you can apply them with facility, you may omit them in parsing;

but you must always apply the rules of Syntax. When you parse without

applying the definitions, you may proceed in the following manner:

"Mercy is the true badge of nobility."

\_Mercy\_ is a noun common, of the neuter gender, third person, singular

number, and in the nominative case to "is:" RULE 3. \_The nominative case

governs the verb\_.

\_Is\_ is an irregular neuter verb, indicative mood, present tense, third

person, singular number, agreeing with "mercy," according to RULE 4.

\_The verb must agree\_, &c.

\_The\_ is a definite article, belonging to "badge," in the singular

number: RULE 2. \_The definite article\_ the, &c.

\_True\_ is an adjective in the positive degree, and belongs to the noun

"badge:" RULE 18. \_Adjectives belong\_, &c.

\_Badge\_ is a noun com. neuter gender, third person, singular number, and

in the nominative case \_after\_ "is," and put by apposition with "mercy,"

according to RULE 21. \_The verb to be may have the same case after it as

before it\_.

\_Of\_ is a preposition, connecting "badge" and "nobility," and showing

the relation between them.

\_Nobility\_ is a noun of multitude, mas. and fem. gender, third person,

sing, and in the obj. case, and governed by "of:" RULE 31. \_Prepositions

govern the objective case\_.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Learn to unlearn what you have learned amiss.

What I forfeit for myself is a trifle; that my indiscretions should

reach my posterity, wounds me to the heart.

Lady Jane Gray fell a sacrifice to the wild ambition of the duke of

Northumberland.

King Missipsi charged his sons to consider the senate and people of Rome

as proprietors of the kingdom of Numidia.

Hazael smote the children of Israel in all their coasts; and from what

is left on record of his actions, he plainly appears to have proved,

what the prophet foresaw him to be, a man of violence, cruelty, and

blood.

Heaven hides from brutes what men, from men what spirits know.

He that formed the ear, can he not hear?

He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.

NOTE 1. \_Learn\_, in the first of the preceding examples, is a

transitive verb, because the action passes over from the nom. \_you\_

understood, to \_the rest of the sentence\_ for its object: RULE 24.

In the next example, \_that my indiscretions should reach my

posterity\_, is a part of a sentence put as the nominative to the

verb \_wounds\_, according to the same Rule.

2. The noun \_sacrifice\_, in the third example, is nom. after the

active-intransitive verb \_fell\_: RULE 22. The noun \_proprietors\_, in

the next sentence, is in the objective case, and put by apposition

with \_senate\_ and \_people\_: RULE 7, or governed by \_consider\_,

understood, according to RULE 35.

3. In the fifth example, \_what\_, following \_proved\_, is a compound

relative. \_Thing\_, the antecedent part, is in the nom. case after

\_to be\_, understood, and put by apposition with \_he\_, according to

RULE 21, and NOTE. \_Which\_, the relative part, is in the obj. case

after \_to be\_ expressed, and put by apposition with \_him\_, according

to the same RULE. \_Man\_ is in the obj. case, put by apposition with

\_which\_: RULE 7. The latter part of the sentence may be \_literally\_

rendered thus: He plainly appears to have proved \_to be that base

character which\_ the prophet foresaw him to be, viz. a \_man\_ of

violence, cruelty, and blood. The antecedent part of the first

\_what\_, in the next sentence, is governed by \_hides\_; and \_which\_,

the relative part, is governed by \_know\_ understood. The antecedent

part of the second \_what\_, is governed by \_hides\_ understood, and

the relative part is governed by \_know\_ expressed.

4. The first \_he\_, in the seventh example, is, in the opinion of

some, nom. to \_can hear\_ understood; but Mr. N.R. Smith, a

distinguished and acute grammarian, suggests the propriety of

rendering the sentence thus; "He that formed the ear, \_formed it to

hear\_; can he not hear?" The first \_he\_, in the last example, is

redundant; yet the construction is sometimes admissible, for the

expression is more forcible than it would be to say, "Let him hear

who hath ears to hear;" and if we adopt the ingenious method of Mr.

Smith, the sentence is grammatical, and may be rendered thus; "He

that hath ears, \_hath ears\_ to hear; let him hear."

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

\_Idioms, anomalies, and intricacies\_.

1. "The wall is three \_feet\_ high."

2. "His son is eight \_years\_ old."

3. "My knife is worth a \_shilling\_."

4. "She is worth \_him\_ and all his \_connexions\_."

5. "He has been there three \_times\_."

6. "The hat cost ten \_dollars\_."

7. "The load weighs a \_tun\_."

8. "The spar measures ninety \_feet\_."

REMARKS.--\_Anomaly\_ is derived from the Greek, \_a\_, without, and

\_omales\_, similar; that is, \_without similarity\_. Some give its

derivation thus; \_anomaly\_, from the Latin, \_ab\_, from, or out of, and

\_norma\_, a rule, or law, means an \_outlaw\_; a mode of expression that

departs from the rules, laws, or \_general\_ usages of the language; a

construction in language peculiar to itself. Thus, it is a general rule

of the language, that adjectives of one syllable are compared by adding

\_r\_, or \_er\_, and \_st\_, or \_est\_, to the positive degree; but good,

\_better, best\_; bad, \_worse, worst\_, are not compared according to the

general rule. They are, therefore, anomalies. The plural number of nouns

is generally formed by adding s to the singular: man, \_men\_; woman,

\_women\_; child, \_children\_; penny, \_pence\_, are anomalies. The use of

\_news, means, alms\_ and \_amends\_, in the singular, constitutes

anomalies. Anomalous constructions are correct according to custom; but,

as they are departures from general rules, by them they cannot be

analyzed.

An \_idiom\_, Latin \_idioma\_, a construction peculiar to a language, may

be an anomaly, or it may not. An idiomatical expression which is not an

anomaly, can be analyzed.

\_Feet\_ and \_years\_, in the 1st and 2d examples, are not in the

nominative after \_is\_, according to Rule 21, because they are not in

apposition with the respective nouns that precede the verb; but the

constructions are anomalous; and, therefore, no rule can be applied to

analyze them. The same ideas, however; can be conveyed by a legitimate

construction which can be analyzed; thus, "The \_height\_ of the wall is

three \_feet\_;" "The \_age\_ of my son is eight \_years\_."

An anomaly, when ascertained to be such, is easily disposed of; but

sometimes it is very difficult to decide whether a construction is

anomalous or not. The 3d, 4th, and 5th examples, are generally

considered anomalies; but if we supply, as we are, perhaps, warranted in

doing, the associated words which modern refinement has dropped, they

will cease to be anomalies; thus, "My knife is \_of the\_ worth \_of\_ a

shilling;" "--\_of the\_ worth \_of\_ him," &c. "He has been there \_for\_

three times;" as we say, "I was unwell \_for\_ three days, after I

arrived;" or, "I was unwell three days." Thus it appears, that by

tracing back, \_for\_ a few centuries, what the merely modern English

scholar supposes to be an anomaly, an ellipsis will frequently be

discovered, which, when supplied, destroys the anomaly.

On extreme points, and peculiar and varying constructions in a living

language, the most able philologists can never be agreed; because many

usages will always be unsettled and fluctuating, and will, consequently,

be disposed of according to the caprice of the grammarian. By some, a

sentence may be treated as an anomaly; by others who contend for, and

supply, an ellipsis, the same sentence may be analyzed according to the

ellipsis supplied; whilst others, who deny both the elliptical and

anomalous character of the sentence, construct a rule by which to

analyze it, which rule has for its foundation the principle contained in

that sentence only. This last mode of procedure, inasmuch as it requires

us to make a rule for every peculiar construction in the language,

appears to me to be the most exceptionable of the three. It appears to

be multiplying rules beyond the bounds of utility.

The verbs, \_cost, weighs\_, and \_measures\_, in the 6th, 7th, and 8th

examples, may be considered as transitive. See remarks on \_resemble,

have, own\_, &c., page 56.

EXAMPLES.

1. "And God said, 'Let there be light,' and there was light." "Let us

make man." "Let us bow before the Lord." "Let high-born seraphs tune the

lyre."

2. "\_Be it\_ enacted." "\_Be it\_ remembered." \_"Blessed be he\_ that

blesseth thee; and \_cursed be he\_ that curseth thee." "My soul, turn

from them:--\_turn we\_ to survey," &c.

3. "\_Methinks\_ I see the portals of eternity wide open to receive him."

"\_Methought\_ I was incarcerated beneath the mighty deep." "I was there

just thirty \_years ago\_."

4. "Their laws and their manners, generally \_speaking\_, were extremely

rude." "\_Considering\_ their means, they have effected much."

5.

"Ah \_me!\_ nor hope nor life remains."

"\_Me\_ miserable! which way shall I fly?"

6.

"O \_happiness!\_ our being's end and aim!

Good, pleasure, ease, content! whatever thy name,

That something still which prompts th' eternal sigh.

For which we bear to live, or dare to die."--

The verb \_let\_, in the idiomatic examples under number 1, has no

nominative specified, and is left applicable to a nominative of the

first, second, or third person, and of either number. Every action

necessarily depends on an agent or moving cause; and hence it follows,

that the verb, in such constructions, has a nominative understood; but

as that nominative is not particularly \_pointed out\_, the constructions

may be considered anomalous.

Instead of saying, "\_Let\_ it [\_to\_] be enacted;" or, "It \_is\_ or \_shall\_

be enacted;" "\_Let\_ him [\_to\_] be blessed;" or, "He \_shall\_ be blessed;"

"\_Let us\_ turn to survey," &c.; the verbs, \_be enacted, be blessed,

turn\_, &c. according to an idiom of our language, or the poet's license,

are used in the \_imperative\_, agreeing with a nominative of the first or

third person.

The phrases, \_methinks\_ and \_methought\_, are anomalies, in which the

objective pronoun \_me\_, in the \_first\_ person, is used in place of a

nominative, and takes a verb after it in the \_third\_ person. \_Him\_ was

anciently used in the same manner; as, "\_him thute\_, him thought." There

was a period when these constructions were not anomalies in our

language. Formerly, what we call the \_objective\_ cases of our pronouns,

were employed in the same manner as our present \_nominatives\_ are. \_Ago\_

is a contraction of \_agone\_, the past part. of to \_go\_. Before this

participle was contracted to an adverb, the noun \_years\_ preceding it,

was in the nominative case absolute; but now the construction amounts to

an anomaly. The expressions, "generally speaking," and "considering

their means," under number 4, are idiomatical and anomalous, the

subjects to the participles not being specified.

According to the genius of the English language, transitive verbs and

prepositions require the \_objective\_ case of a noun or pronoun after

them; and this requisition is all that is meant by government, when we

say, that these parts of speech govern the objective case. See pages 52,

57, and 94. The same principle applies to the interjection.

Interjections require the \_objective\_ case of a pronoun of the first

person after them; but the \_nominative\_ of a noun or pronoun of the

second or third person; as, "Ah \_me!\_ Oh \_thou!\_ O my \_country!\_" To

say, then, that interjections \_require\_ particular cases after them, is

synonymous with saying, that they \_govern\_ those cases; and this office

of the interjection is in perfect accordance with that which it performs

in the Latin and many other languages. In the examples under number 5,

the first \_me\_ is in the objective after "ah," and the second \_me\_,

after \_ah\_ understood; thus, "Ah miserable me!" according to NOTE 2,

under Rule 5.--\_Happiness\_, under number 6, is nom. independent; Rule 5,

or in the nom. after \_O\_, according to this Note. The principle

contained in the note, proves that every noun of the second person is in

the \_nominative\_ case; for, as the pronoun of the second person, in such

a situation, is always nominative, which is shown by its \_form\_, it

logically follows that the noun, under such circumstances, although it

has \_no form\_ to show its case, must necessarily be in the same case as

the pronoun. "Good, pleasure, ease, content, \_that\_," the antecedent

part of "whatever," and \_which\_, the relative part, are nom. after \_art\_

understood; Rule 21, and \_name\_ is nom. to \_be\_ understood.

The second line may be rendered thus; Whether thou art good, or whether

thou art pleasure, &c. or \_be\_ thy \_name\_ that [thing] which [ever

thing] it may be: putting \_be\_ in the imperative, agreeing with \_name\_

in the third person. \_Something\_ is nominative after \_art\_ understood.

EXAMPLES.

1. "All were well \_but\_ the \_stranger\_." "I saw nobody but the

\_stranger\_." "All had returned but he." "None but the \_brave\_ deserve

the fair." "The thing they can't \_but\_ purpose, they postpone." "This

life, at best, is \_but\_ a dream." "It affords \_but\_ a scanty measure of

enjoyment." "If he \_but\_ touch the hills, they will smoke." "Man is

\_but\_ a reed, floating on the current of time."

2. "Notwithstanding his poverty, he is content."

3. "Open your hand \_wide\_." "The apples boil \_soft\_." "The purest clay

is that which burns \_white\_." "Drink \_deep\_, or taste not the Pierian

spring."

4. "\_What though\_ the swelling surge thou see?" &c. "\_What if\_ the foot,

ordain'd the dust to tread?" &c.

REMARKS.--According to the principle of analysis assumed by many of our

most critical philologists, \_but\_ is \_always\_ a disjunctive conjunction;

and agreeably to the same authorities, to construe it, in any case, as a

preposition, would lead to error. See false Syntax under Rule 35. They

maintain, that its legitimate and undeviating office is, to join on a

member of a sentence which \_expresses opposition of meaning\_, and

thereby forms an exception to, or takes from the universality of, the

proposition contained in the preceding member of the sentence. That it

sustains its true character as a conjunction in all the examples under

number 1, will be shown by the following resolution of them.--"All were

well but the \_stranger [was not well\_."] "I saw nobody but [\_I saw\_] the

\_stranger\_." "None deserve the fair but the \_brave\_ [\_deserve the

fair\_."] "They postpone the thing which [\_they ought to do, and do not]

but\_ which [\_thing\_] they cannot avoid purposing to do." "This life, at

best, [\_is not a reality,] but\_ it is a dream. It [\_affords not

unbounded fruition] but\_ it affords a scanty measure of enjoyment." "If

he \_touch\_ the hills, \_but exert no greater power upon them\_, they will

smoke;"--"If \_he exert no greater power upon the hills, but [be-out this

fact\_] if he touch them, they will smoke." "Man \_is not a stable being,

but\_ he is a reed, floating on the current of time." This method of

analyzing sentences, however, if I mistake not, is too much on the plan

of our pretended philosophical writers, who, in their rage for ancient

constructions and combinations, often overlook the modern associated

meaning and application of this word. It appears to me to be more

consistent with the \_modern\_ use of the word, to consider it an \_adverb\_

in constructions like the following: "If he \_but (only, merely)\_ touch

the hills they will smoke."

\_Except\_ and \_near\_, in examples like the following, are generally

construed as prepositions: "All went \_except him\_;" "She stands \_near

them\_." But many contend, that when we employ \_but\_ instead of \_except\_,

in such constructions, a \_nominative\_ should follow: "All went \_but he

[did not go\_."] On this point and many others, \_custom\_ is \_variable\_;

but the period will doubtless arrive, when \_but, worth\_, and \_like\_,

will be considered prepositions, and, in constructions like the

foregoing, invariably be followed by an objective case. This will not be

the case, however, until the practice of supplying an ellipsis after

these words is entirely dropped.

\_Poverty\_, under number 2, is governed by the preposition

\_notwithstanding\_, Rule 31. The adjectives \_wide, soft, white\_, and

\_deep\_, under number 3, not only express the quality of nouns, but also

qualify verbs: Note 4, under Rule 18.--\_What\_, in the phrases "what

though" and "what if," is an interrogative in the objective case, and

governed by the verb \_matters\_ understood, or by some other verb; thus,

"What matters it--what dost thou fear, though thou see the swelling

surge?" "What would you think, if the foot, which is ordained to tread

the dust, aspired to be the head?"

In the following examples, the same word is used as several parts of

speech. But by exercising judgment sufficient to comprehend the meaning,

and by supplying what is understood, you will be able to analyze them

correctly.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

I like what you dislike.

Every creature loves its like.

Anger, envy, and like passions, are sinful.

Charity, like the sun, brightens every object around it.

Thought flies swifter than light.

He thought as a sage, though he felt as a man.

Hail often proves destructive to vegetation.

I was happy to hail him as my friend.

Hail! beauteous stranger of the wood.

The more I examine the work, the better I like it.

Johnson is a better writer than Sterne.

Calm was the day, and the scene delightful.

We may expect a calm after a storm.

To prevent passion is easier than to calm it.

Damp air is unwholesome.

Guilt often casts a damp over our sprightliest hours.

Soft bodies damp the sound much more than hard ones.

Much money has been expended.

Of him to whom much is given, much will be required.

It is much better to give than to receive.

Still water runs deep. He labored to still the tumult.

Those two young profligates remain still in the wrong.

They wrong themselves as well as their friends.

I will now present to you a few examples in poetry. Parsing in poetry,

as it brings into requisition a higher degree of mental exertion than

parsing in prose, will be found a more delightful and profitable

exercise. In this kind of analysis, in order to come at the meaning of

the author, you will find it necessary to \_transpose\_ his language, and

supply what is understood; and then you will have the literal meaning in

prose.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

APOSTROPHE TO HOPE.--CAMPBELL.

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 flames the realms of ether glow,

And Heaven's last thunder shakes the world below;

Thou, undismay'd, shalt o'er the ruins smile,

And light thy torch at Nature's funeral pile!

TRANSPOSED.

Eternal Hope! thy joyous youth began when yonder sublime spheres pealed

their first notes to sound the march of time:--but it began not to

fade.--Thou, undismayed, shalt smile over the ruins, when all the sister

planets shall have decayed; and thou shalt light thy torch at Nature's

funeral pile, when wrapt in flames, the realms of ether glow, and

Heaven's last thunder shakes the world below.

ADDRESS TO ADVERSITY.--GRAY.

Daughter of heaven, relentless power,

Thou tamer of the human breast,

Whose iron scourge, and tort'ring hour,

The bad affright, afflict the best!

The gen'rous spark extinct revive;

Teach me to love and to forgive;

Exact my own defects to scan:

What others are to feel; and know myself a man.

TRANSPOSED.

Daughter of heaven, relentless power, thou tamer of the human breast,

whose iron scourge and torturing hour affright the bad, and afflict the

best! Revive thou in me the generous, extinct spark; and teach thou me

to love others, and to forgive them; and teach thou me to scan my own

defects exactly, or critically: and teach thou me that which others are

to feel; and make thou me to know myself to be a man.

ADDRESS TO THE ALMIGHTY.--POPE.

What conscience dictates to be done,

Or warns me not to do,

This teach me more than hell to shun,

That more than heav'n pursue.

TRANSPOSED.

O God, teach thou me to pursue that (\_the thing\_) which conscience

dictates to be done, more ardently than I pursue heaven; and teach thou

me to shun this (\_the thing\_) which conscience warns me not to do, more

cautiously than I would shun hell.

TRIALS OF VIRTUE.--MERRICK.

For see, ah! see, while yet her ways

With doubtful step I tread,

A hostile world its terrors raise,

Its snares delusive spread.

O how shall I, with heart prepared,

Those terrors learn to meet?

How, from the thousand snares to guard

My unexperienced feet?

TRANSPOSED.

For see thou, ah! see thou a hostile world \_to\_ raise its terrors, and

see thou a hostile world \_to\_ spread its delusive snares, while I yet

tread her (\_virtue's\_) ways with doubtful steps.

O how shall I learn to meet those terrors with a prepared heart? How

shall I learn to guard my unexperienced feet from the thousand snares of

the world?

THE MORNING IN SUMMER.--THOMPSON.

Short is the doubtful empire of the night;

And soon, observant of approaching day,

The meek-eyed morn appears, mother of dews,

At first, faint gleaming in the dappled east,

Till far o'er ether spreads the wid'ning glow,

And from before the lustre of her face

White break the clouds away.

TRANSPOSED.

The doubtful empire of the night is short; and the meek-eyed morn,

(\_which is the\_) mother of dews, observant of approaching day, soon

appears, gleaming faintly, at first, in the dappled east, till the

widening glow spreads far over ether, and the white clouds break away

from before the lustre of her face.

NATURE BOUNTIFUL.--AKENSIDE.

--Nature's care, to all her children just,

With richest treasures, and an ample state,

Endows at large whatever happy man

Will deign to use them.

TRANSPOSED.

Nature's care, which is just to all her children, largely endows, with

richest treasures and an ample state, that happy man who will deign to

use them.

NOTE. \_What\_, in the second example, is a comp. rel. The antecedent

part is gov. by \_teach\_ understood; and the relative part by \_to

feel\_ expressed. \_To shun\_ and \_to pursue\_, in the third example,

are in the infinitive mood, gov. by \_than\_, according to a NOTE

under Rule 23. \_Faint\_ and \_from\_, in the 5th example, are adverbs.

An adverb, in poetry, is often written in the form of an adjective.

\_Whatever\_, in the last sentence, is a compound pronoun, and is

equivalent to \_that\_ and \_who. That\_ is an adj. pron. belonging to

"man;" \_who\_ is nom. to "will deign;" and \_ever\_ is excluded from

the sentence in sense. See page 113. Parse these examples as they

are transposed, and you will find the analysis very easy.

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES IN PARSING.

GOLD, NOT GENUINE WEALTH.

Where, thy true treasure? Gold says, "not in me;"

And, "not in me," the Diamond. Gold is poor.

TRANSPOSED.

Where is thy true treasure? Gold says, "It is not in me;" and the

Diamond says, "It is not in me." Gold is poor.

SOURCE OF FRIENDSHIP.--DR. YOUNG.

Lorenzo, pride repress; nor hope to find

A friend, but what has found a friend in thee.

TRANSPOSED.

Lorenzo, repress thou pride; nor hope thou to find a friend, only in him

who has already found a friend in thee.

TRUE GREATNESS.--POPE.

Who noble ends by noble means obtains,

Or, failing, smiles in exile or in chains,

Like good Aurelius let him reign, or bleed

Like Socrates, that man is great indeed.

TRANSPOSED.

That man is great indeed, let him \_to\_ reign like unto good Aurelius, or

let him \_to\_ bleed like unto Socrates, who obtains noble ends by noble

means; or that man is great indeed, who, failing to obtain noble ends by

noble means, smiles in exile or in chains.

INVOCATION.--POLLOK.

Eternal Spirit! God of truth! to whom

All things seem as they are, inspire my song;

My eye unscale: me what is substance teach;

And shadow what, while I of things to come,

As past rehearsing, sing. Me thought and phrase

Severely sifting out the whole idea, grant.

TRANSPOSED.

Eternal Spirit! God of truth! to whom all things seem to be as they

really are, inspire thou my song; and unscale thou my eyes: teach thou

\_to\_ me the thing which is substance; and teach thou \_to\_ me the thing

which is shadow, while I sing of things which are to come, as one sings

of things which are past rehearsing. Grant thou \_to\_ me thought and

phraseology which shall severely sift out the whole idea.

THE VOYAGE OF LIFE.

How few, favored by ev'ry element,

With swelling sails make good the promised port,

With all their wishes freighted! Yet ev'n these,

Freighted with all their wishes, soon complain.

Free from misfortune, not from nature free,

They still are men; and when is man secure?

As fatal time, as storm. The rush of years

Beats down their strength; their numberless escapes

In ruin end: and, now, their proud success

But plants new terrors on the victor's brow.

What pain, to quit the world just made their own!

Their nests so deeply downed and built so high!--

Too low they build, who build beneath the stars.

TRANSPOSED.

How few persons, favored by every element, safely make the promised port

with swelling sails, and with all their wishes freighted! Yet even these

few persons who do safely make the promised port with all their wishes

freighted, soon complain. Though they are free from misfortunes, yet

(\_though\_ and \_yet\_, corresponding conjunctions, form only \_one\_

connexion) they are not free from the course of nature, for they still

are men; and when is man secure? Time is as fatal to him, as a storm is

to the mariner.--The rush of years beats down their strength; (\_that is,

the strength of these few\_;) and their numberless escapes end in ruin:

and then their proud success only plants new terrors on the victor's

brow. What pain it is to them to quit the world, just as they have made

it to be their own world; when their nests are built so high, and when

they are downed so deeply!--They who build beneath the stars, build too

low for their own safety.

REFLECTIONS ON A SCULL.--LORD BYRON.

Remove yon scull from out the scattered heaps.

Is that a temple, where a God may dwell?

Why, ev'n the worm at last disdains her shattered cell!

Look on its broken arch, its ruined wall,

Its chambers desolate, and portals foul;

Yes, this was once ambition's airy hall,

The dome of thought, the palace of the soul.

Behold, through each lack-lustre, eyeless hole,

The gay recess of wisdom and of wit,

And passion's host, that never brooked control.

Can all, saint, sage, or sophist ever writ,

People this lonely tower, this tenement refit?

TRANSPOSED.

Remove thou yonder scull out from the scattered heaps. Is that a temple,

where a God may dwell? Why, even the worm at last disdains her shattered

cell! Look thou on its broken arch, and look thou on its ruined wall,

and on its desolate chambers, and on its foul portals:--yes, this scull

was once ambition's airy hall; (\_it was\_) the dome of thought, the

palace of the soul. Behold thou, through each lack-lustre, eyeless hole,

the gay recess of wisdom and of wit, and passion's host, which never

brooked control. Can all the works which saints, or sages, or sophists

have ever written, repeople this lonely tower, or can they refit this

tenement?

For your future exercises in parsing, you may select pieces from the

English Reader, or any other grammatical work. I have already hinted,

that parsing in poetry, as it brings more immediately into requisition

the reasoning faculties, than parsing in prose, will necessarily tend

more rapidly to facilitate your progress: therefore it is advisable that

your future exercises in this way, be chiefly confined to the analysis

of poetry. Previous to your attempting to parse a piece of poetry, you

ought always to transpose it, in a manner similar to the examples just

presented; and then it can be as easily analyzed as prose.

Before you proceed to correct the following exercises in false syntax,

you may turn back and read over the whole thirteen lectures, unless you

have the subject-matter already stored in your mind.

\* \* \* \* \*

LECTURE XIV.

OF DERIVATION.

At the commencement of Lecture II., I informed you that Etymology

treats, 3dly, of derivation. This branch of Etymology, important as it

is, cannot be very extensively treated in an elementary work on grammar.

In the course of the preceding lectures, it has been frequently

agitated; and now I shall offer a few more remarks, which will doubtless

be useful in illustrating some of the various methods in which one word

is derived from another. Before you proceed, however, please to turn

back and read again what is advanced on this subject on page 27, and in

the PHILOSOPHICAL NOTES.

1. Nouns are derived from verbs.

2. Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs.

3. Adjectives are derived from nouns.

4. Nouns are derived from adjectives.

5. Adverbs are derived from adjectives.

1. Nouns are derived from verbs; as, from "to love," comes "lover;" from

"to visit, visiter;" from "to survive, surviver," &c.

In the following instances, and in many others, it is difficult to

determine whether the verb was deduced from the noun, or the noun from

the verb, \_viz\_. "Love, to love; hate, to hate; fear, to fear; sleep, to

sleep; walk, to walk; ride, to ride; act, to act," &c.

2. Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs;

as, from the noun \_salt\_, comes "to salt;" from the adjective \_warm\_,

"to warm;" and from the adverb \_forward\_, "to forward." Sometimes they

are formed by lengthening the vowel, or softening the consonant; as,

from "grass, to graze;" sometimes by adding \_en\_; as, from "length, to

lengthen;" especially to adjectives; as, from "short, to shorten;

bright, to brighten."

3. Adjectives are derived from nouns in the following manner: adjectives

denoting plenty are derived from nouns by adding \_y\_; as, from "Health,

healthy; wealth, wealthy; might, mighty," &c.

Adjectives denoting the matter out of which any thing is made, are

derived from nouns by adding \_en\_; as, from "Oak, oaken; wood, wooden;

wool, woollen," &c.

Adjectives denoting abundance are derived from nouns by adding \_ful\_;

as, from "Joy, joyful; sin, sinful; fruit, fruitful," &c.

Adjectives denoting plenty, but with some kind of diminution, are

derived from nouns by adding \_some\_; as, from "Light, lightsome;

trouble, troublesome; toil, toilsome," &c.

Adjectives denoting want are derived from nouns by adding \_less\_; as,

from "Worth, worthless;" from "care, careless; joy, joyless," &c.

Adjectives denoting likeness are derived from nouns by adding \_ly\_; as,

from "Man, manly; earth, earthly; court, courtly," &c.

Some adjectives are derived from other adjectives, or from nouns by

adding \_ish\_ to them; which termination when added to adjectives,

imports diminution, or lessening the quality; as, "White, whitish;" i.e.

somewhat white. When added to nouns, it signifies similitude or tendency

to a character; as, "Child, childish; thief, thievish."

Some adjectives are formed from nouns or verbs by adding the termination

\_able\_; and those adjectives signify capacity; as, "Answer, answerable;

to change, changeable."

4. Nouns are derived from adjectives, sometimes by adding the

termination \_ness\_; as, "White, whiteness; swift, swiftness;" sometimes

by adding \_th\_ or \_t\_, and making a small change in some of the letters;

as, "Long, length; high, height."

5. Adverbs of quality are derived from adjectives, by adding \_ly\_, or

changing \_le\_ into \_ly\_; and denote the same quality as the adjectives

from which they are derived; as, from "base," comes "basely;" from

"slow, slowly;" from "able, ably."

There are so many other ways of deriving words from one another, that it

would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to enumerate them. The

primitive words of every language are very few; the derivatives form

much the greater number. A few more instances only can be given here.

Some nouns are derived from other nouns, by adding the terminations

\_hood\_ or \_head, ship, ery, wick, rick, dom, ian, ment\_, and \_age\_.

Nouns ending in \_hood\_ or \_head\_, are such as signify character or

qualities; as, "Manhood, knighthood, falsehood," &c.

Nouns ending in \_ship\_, are those that signify office, employment,

state, or condition; as, "Lordship, stewardship, partnership," &c. Some

nouns in \_ship\_ are derived from adjectives; as, "Hard, hardship," &c.

Nouns which end in \_ery\_, signify action or habit; as, "Slavery,

foolery, prudery," &c. Some nouns of this sort come from adjectives; as,

"Brave, bravery," &c.

Nouns ending in \_wick, rick\_, and \_dom\_, denote dominion, jurisdiction,

or condition; as, "Bailiwick, bishopric, kingdom, dukedom, freedom," &c.

Nouns which end in \_ian\_, are those that signify profession; as,

"Physician, musician," &c. Those that end in \_ment\_ and \_age\_, come

generally from the French, and commonly signify the act or habit; as,

"Commandment," "usage."

Some nouns ending in \_ard\_, are derived from verbs or adjectives, and

denote character or habit; as, "Drunk, drunkard; dote, dotard."

Some nouns have the form of diminutives; but these are not many. They

are formed by adding the terminations \_kin, ling, ing, ock, el\_, and the

like; as, "Lamb, lambkin; goose, gosling; duck, duckling; hill, hillock;

cock, cockerel," &c.

OF PREPOSITIONS USED AS PREFIXES.

I shall conclude this lecture by presenting and explaining a list of

Latin and Greek prepositions which are extensively used in English as

prefixes. By carefully studying their signification, you will be better

qualified to understand the meaning of those words into the composition

of which they enter, and of which they form a material part.

I. LATIN PREFIXES.

\_A, ab, abs\_--signify from or away; as, \_a-vert\_, to turn from;

\_ab-ject\_, to throw away; \_abs-tract\_, to draw away.

\_Ad\_--to or at; as, \_ad-here\_, to stick to; \_ad-mire\_, to wonder at.

\_Ante\_--means before; as, \_ante-cedent\_, going before.

\_Circum\_--signifies round, about; as, \_circum-navigate\_, to sail round.

\_Con, com, co, col\_--together; as, \_con-join\_, to join together;

\_com-press\_, to press together; \_co-operate\_, to work together;

\_col-lapse\_, to fall together.

\_Contra\_--against; as, \_contra-dict\_, to speak against.

\_De\_--from, down; as, \_de-duct\_, to take from; \_de-scend\_, to go down.

\_Di, dis\_--asunder, away; as, \_di-lacerate\_, to tear asunder;

\_dis-miss\_, to send away.

\_E, ef, ex\_--out; as, \_e-ject\_, to throw out; \_ef-flux\_, to flow out;

\_ex-clude\_, to shut out.

\_Extra\_--beyond; as, \_extra-ordinary\_, beyond what is ordinary.

\_In, im, il, ir\_--(\_in\_, Gothic, \_inna\_, a cave or cell;) as, \_in-fuse\_,

to pour in. These prefixes, when incorporated with adjectives or nouns,

commonly reverse their meaning; as, \_in-sufficient, im-polite,

il-legitimate, ir-reverence, ir-resolute\_.

\_Inter\_--between; as, \_inter-pose\_, to put between.

\_Intro\_--within, into; \_intro-vert\_, to turn within; \_intro-duce\_, to

lead into.

\_Ob, op\_--denote opposition; as, \_ob-ject\_, to bring against; \_op-pugn\_,

to oppose.

\_Per\_--through, by; as, \_per-ambulate\_, to walk through; \_per-haps\_, by

haps.

\_Post\_--after; as, \_post-script\_, written after; \_post-fix\_, placed

after.

\_Præ, pre\_--before; as, \_pre-fix\_, to fix before.

\_Pro\_--for, forth, forward; as, \_pro-noun\_, for a noun; \_pro-tend\_, to

stretch forth; \_pro-ject\_, to shoot forward.

\_Præter\_--past, beyond; as, \_preter-perfect\_, pastperfect;

\_preter-natural\_, beyond the course of nature.

\_Re\_--again or back; as, \_re-peruse\_, to peruse again; \_re-trade\_, to

trade back.

\_Retro--\_backwards; as, \_retro-spective\_, looking backwards.

\_Se\_--aside, apart; as, \_se-duce\_, to draw aside.

\_Sub\_--under; as, \_sub-scribe\_, to write under, or \_sub-sign\_.

\_Subter\_--under; as, \_subter-fluous\_, flowing under.

\_Super\_--above or over; as, \_super-scribe\_, to write above;

\_super-vise\_, to overlook.

\_Trans\_--over, beyond, from one place to another; as, \_trans-port\_, to

carry over; \_trans-gress\_, to pass beyond.

II. GREEK PREFIXES.

\_A\_--signifies privation; as, \_anonymous\_, without name.

\_Amphi\_--both or two; as, \_amphi-bious\_, partaking of both or two

natures,

\_Anti\_--against; as, \_anti-masonry\_, against masonry.

\_Dia\_--through; as, \_dia-meter\_, line passing through a circle.

\_Hyper\_--over; as, \_hyper-critical\_, over or too critical.

\_Hypo\_--under, implying concealment or disguise; as, \_hypo-crite\_, one

dissembling his real character.

\_Meta--\_denotes change or transmutation; as, \_meta-morphose\_, to change

the shape.

\_Para\_--contrary or against; as, \_para-dox\_, a thing contrary to

received opinion.

\_Peri\_--round about; as, \_peri-phrasis\_, circumlocution.

\_Syn, syl, sym\_--together; as, \_syn-tax\_, a placing together; \_syn-od\_,

a meeting or coming together; \_syl-lable\_, that portion of a word which

is taken together; \_sym-pathy\_, fellow-feeling, or feeling together.

RULES OF SYNTAX,

WITH ADDITIONAL EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

The third part of Grammar is SYNTAX, which treats of the agreement and

government of words and of their proper arrangement in a sentence.

SYNTAX consists of two parts, \_Concord\_ and \_Government\_.

CONCORD is the agreement which one word has with another, in gender,

person, number, or case.

For the illustration of agreement and government, see pages 52, and 53.

For the definition of a sentence, and the transposition of its words and

members, see pages 119, 124, 128, and 167.

The principal parts of a simple sentence are the \_nominative\_ or

subject, the \_verb\_ or attribute, or word that makes the affirmation,

and the \_object\_, or thing affected by the action of the verb; as, "A

wise \_man governs\_ his \_passions\_." In this sentence, \_man\_ is the

subject; \_governs\_, the attribute; and \_passions\_ the object.

A PHRASE is two or more words rightly put together, making sometimes a

part of a sentence, and sometimes a whole sentence.

ELLIPSIS is the omission of some word or words, in order to avoid

disagreeable and unnecessary repetitions, and to express our ideas

concisely, and with strength and elegance.

In this recapitulation of the rules, Syntax is presented in a condensed

form, many of the essential NOTES being omitted. This is a necessary

consequence of my general plan, in which Etymology and Syntax, you know

are blended. Hence, to acquire a complete knowledge of Syntax from this

work, you must look over the whole.

You may now proceed and parse the following additional exercises in

false Syntax; and, as you analyze, endeavor to correct all the errors

without looking at the Key. If, in correcting these examples, you should

be at a loss in assigning the reasons why the constructions are

erroneous, you can refer to the manner adopted in the foregoing pages.

RULE I.

The article \_a\_ or \_an\_ agrees with nouns in the \_singular\_ number only,

individually or collectively; as, "\_A\_ star, \_an\_ eagle, \_a\_ score, \_a\_

thousand."

RULE II.

The definite article \_the\_ belongs to nouns in the \_singular\_ or

\_plural\_ number; as, "\_The\_ star, \_the\_ stars; \_the\_ hat, \_the\_ hats."

NOTE 1. A nice distinction in the meaning is sometimes effected by

the use or omission of the article \_a\_. If I say, "He behaved with

\_a\_ little reverence," my meaning is positive. But if I say, "He

behaved with little reverence," my meaning is negative. By the

former, I rather praise a person; by the latter, I dispraise him.

When I say, "There were few men with him," I speak diminutively, and

mean to represent them as inconsiderable; whereas, when I say,

"There were a few men with him," I evidently intend to make the most

of them.

2. The indefinite article sometimes has the meaning of \_every\_ or

\_each\_; as, "They cost five shillings \_a\_ dozen;" that is, '\_every\_

dozen.'

"A man he was to all the country dear,

And passing rich with forty pounds \_a\_ year!"

that is, '\_every\_ year.'

3. When several adjectives are connected, and express the various

qualities of things individually different, though alike in name,

the article should be repeated; but when the qualities all belong to

the same thing or things, the article should not be repeated. "\_A\_

black and \_a\_ white calf," signifies, A black \_calf\_, and a white

\_calf\_; but "\_A\_ black and white calf," describes the two colors of

\_one\_ calf.

RULE III.

The nominative case governs the verb; as, "\_I\_ learn, \_thou\_ learnest,

\_he\_ learns, \_they\_ learn."

RULE IV.

The verb must agree with its nominative in number and person; as, "The

bird \_sings\_, the birds \_sing\_, thou \_singest\_."

NOTE 1. Every verb, when it is not in the infinitive mood, must have

a nominative, expressed or implied; as, "Awake, arise;" that is,

Awake \_ye\_; arise \_ye\_.

2. When a verb comes between two nouns, either of which may be

considered as the subject of the affirmation, it must agree with

that which is more naturally its subject; as, "The wages of sin \_is\_

death; His meat \_was\_ locusts and wild honey;" "His pavilion \_were\_

dark \_waters\_ and thick \_clouds\_."

EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

Frequent commission of sin harden men in it.

Great pains has been taken to reconcile the parties.

So much both of ability and merit, are seldom found.

The sincere is always esteemed.

Not one of them are happy.

What avails the best sentiments, if people do not live suitably to them?

Disappointments sinks the heart of man; but the renewal of hope give

consolation.

The variety of the productions of genius, like that of the operations of

nature; are without limit.

A variety of blessings have been conferred upon us.

Thou cannot heal him, it is true, but thou may do something to relieve

him.

In piety and virtue consist the happiness of man.

O thou, my voice inspire,

Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire.

\_Note\_ 1. Will martial flames for ever fire thy mind,

And never, never be to Heaven resigned?

He was a man whose inclinations led him to be corrupt, and had great

abilities to manage the business.

\_Note 2\_. The crown of virtue is peace and honor.

His chief occupation and enjoyment were controversy.

RULE V.

When an address is made, the noun or pronoun addressed, is put in the

nominative case \_independent\_; as, "\_Plato\_, thou reasonest well;" "Do,

\_Trim\_, said my uncle Toby."

NOTE 1. A noun is independent, when it has no verb to agree with it.

2. Interjections require the objective case of a pronoun of the

\_first\_ person after them, but the nominative of a noun or pronoun

of the \_second\_ or \_third\_ person; as, "Ah! \_me\_; Oh! \_thou\_; O!

\_virtue\_."

RULE VI.

A noun or pronoun placed before a participle, and being independent of

the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case \_absolute\_; as,

"\_Shame being lost\_; all virtue is lost;" "The \_sun being risen\_, we

travelled on."

NOTE. Every nominative case, except the case absolute and

independent, should belong to some verb expressed or understood; as,

"To whom thus \_Adam\_;" that is, \_spoke\_.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Him Destroyed,

Or won to what may work his utter loss,

All this will follow soon.

\_Note\_.--Two substantives, when they come together, and do not

signify the same thing, the former must be in the genitive case.

Virtue, however it may be neglected for a time, men are so constituted

as ultimately to acknowledge and respect genuine merit.

RULE VII.

Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns, signifying the same thing, are

put, by apposition, in the same case; as, "\_Paul\_, the \_apostle;\_"

"\_Joram\_, the \_king;\_" "\_Solomon\_, the \_son\_ of David, \_king\_ of Israel,

wrote many proverbs."

NOTE. A noun is sometimes put in apposition with a sentence; as,

"The sheriff has just seized and sold his valuable library--\_(which

was) a misfortune\_ that greatly depressed him."

FALSE SYNTAX.

We ought to love God, he who created and sustains all things.

The pronoun \_he\_ in this sentence, is improperly used in the nominative

case. It is the object of the action of the transitive verb "love," and

put by apposition with "God;" therefore it should be the objective

case, \_him\_, according to Rule 7. (Repeat the Rule, and correct the

following.)

I saw Juliet and her brother, they that you visited.

They slew Varus, he that was mentioned before.

It was John, him who preached repentance.

Adams and Jefferson, them who died on the fourth of July 1826, were

both signers and the firm supporters of the Declaration of

Independence.

Augustus the Roman emperor, him who succeeded Julius Cesar, is

variously described by historians.

RULE VIII.

Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns, in the \_singular\_ number,

connected by copulative conjunctions, must have verbs, nouns, and

pronouns, agreeing with them in the \_plural\_; as, "Socrates \_and\_ Plato

\_were\_ wise; \_they\_ were eminent \_philosophers\_."

NOTE 1. When \_each\_ or \_every\_ relates to two or more nominatives in

the singular, although connected by a copulative, the verb must

agree with each of them in the singular; as, "\_Every\_ leaf, \_and

every\_ twig, \_and every\_ drop of water, \_teems\_ with life."

2. When the singular nominative of a complex sentence, has another

noun joined to it with a preposition, it is customary to put the

verb and pronoun agreeing with it in the singular; as, "Prosperity

with humility, \_renders its\_ possessor truly amiable;" "The General,

also, in conjunction with the officers, \_has\_ applied for redress."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Coffee and sugar grows in the West Indies: it is exported in large

quantities.

Two singular nouns coupled together, form a plural idea. The verb \_grow\_

is improper, because it expresses the action of both its nominatives,

"coffee and sugar," which two nominatives are connected by the

copulative conjunction, \_and\_; therefore the verb should be plural,

\_grow\_; and then it would agree with coffee \_and\_ sugar, according to

Rule 8. (Repeat the Rule.) The pronoun \_it\_, as it represents both the

nouns, "coffee and sugar," ought also to be plural, \_they\_, agreeably to

Rule 8. The sentence should be written thus. "Coffee and sugar \_grow\_ in

the West Indies: \_they are\_ exported in large quantities."

Time and tide waits for no man.

Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains.

Life and health is both uncertain.

Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.

The planetary system, boundless space, and the immense ocean,

affects the mind with sensations of astonishment.

What signifies the counsel and care of preceptors, when you think

you have no need of assistance?

Their love, and their hatred, and their envy, is now perished.

Why is whiteness and coldness in snow?

Obey the commandment of thy father, and the law of thy mother; bind

it continually upon thy heart.

Pride and vanity always render its possessor despicable in the eyes

of the judicious.

There is error and discrepance in the schemes of the orthoepists,

which shows the impossibility of carrying them into effect.

EXAMPLES FOR THE NOTE.

Every man, woman, and child, were numbered.

Not proper; for, although \_and\_ couples things together so as to present

the whole at one view, yet \_every\_ has a contrary effect: it distributes

them, and brings each separately and singly under consideration. \_Were\_

numbered is therefore improper. It should be, "\_was\_ numbered," in the

singular, according to the Note. (Repeat it.)

When benignity and gentleness reign in our breasts, every person and

every occurrence are beheld in the most favorable light.

RULE IX.

Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns, in the \_singular\_ number,

connected by disjunctive conjunctions, must have verbs, nouns, and

pronouns, agreeing with them in the \_singular\_; as, "Neither John \_nor\_

James \_has\_ learned \_his\_ lesson."

NOTE 1. When singular pronouns, or a noun and pronoun, of different

persons, are disjunctively connected, the verb must agree, in

person, with that which is placed nearest to it; as, "Thou \_or\_ I

\_am\_ in fault; I \_or\_ thou \_art\_ to blame; I, \_or\_ thou, \_or\_ he,

\_is\_ the author of it." But it would be better to say "Either I am

to blame or thou art," &c.

2. When a disjunctive occurs between a singular noun or pronoun and

a plural one, the verb must agree with the plural noun or pronoun,

which should generally be placed next to the verb; as, "Neither

poverty \_nor riches\_ were injurious to him;" "I \_or\_ they were

offended by it."

Constructions like these ought generally to be avoided.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Ignorance or negligence have caused this mistake.

The verb, \_have\_ caused, in this sentence, is improperly used in the

plural, because it expresses the action, not of \_both\_, but of either

the one or the other of its nominatives; therefore it should be in the

singular, \_has\_ caused; and then it would agree with "ignorance \_or\_

negligence," agreeably to Rule 9 (Repeat the Rule.)

A circle or a square are the same in idea.

Neither whiteness nor redness are in the porphyry.

Neither of them are remarkable for precision.

Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which move merely

as they are moved.

When sickness, infirmity, or reverse of fortune, affect us, the

sincerity of friendship is proved.

Man's happiness or misery are, in a great measure, put into his own

hands.

Despise no infirmity of mind or body, nor any condition of life, for

they may be thy own lot.

The prince, as well as the people, were blameworthy.

RULE X.

A collective noun or noun of multitude, conveying \_unity\_ of idea,

generally has a verb or pronoun agreeing with it in the \_singular\_; as,

"The \_meeting was\_ large, and \_it\_ held three hours."

NOTE. Rules 10, and 11, are limited in their application. See page.

FALSE SYNTAX.

The nation are powerful.

The fleet were seen sailing up the channel.

The church have no power to inflict corporal punishment. The

flock, and not the fleece, are, or ought to be, the objects of the

shepherd's care.

That nation was once powerful; but now they are feeble.

RULE XI.

A noun of multitude, conveying \_plurality\_ of idea, must have a verb or

pronoun agreeing with it in the \_plural\_; as, "The \_council were\_

divided in \_their\_ sentiments."

FALSE SYNTAX.

My people doth not consider.

The multitude eagerly pursues pleasure as its chief good.

The committee was divided in its sentiments, and it has referred the

business to the general meeting.

The people rejoices in that which should give it sorrow.

RULE XII.

A noun or pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the noun it

possesses; as, "\_Man's\_ happiness;" "\_Its\_ value is great."

NOTE 1. When the possessor is described by a circumlocution, the

possessive sign should generally be applied to the last term only;

as, "The \_duke of Bridgewater's\_ canal; The \_bishop of Landaff's\_

excellent book; The \_captain of the guard's\_ house." This usage,

however, ought generally to be avoided. The words do not literally

convey the ideas intended. What nonsense to say, "This is \_the

governor of Ohio's\_ house!"

2. When nouns in the possessive case are in apposition, and follow

each other in quick succession, the possessive sign is generally

annexed to the last only; as, "For \_David\_ my \_servant's\_ sake;

\_John\_ the \_Baptist's\_ head; The canal was built in consequence of

\_De Witt Clinton\_ the \_governor's\_ advice."

But when a pause is proper, and the governing noun not expressed,

the sign should be applied to the first possessive only, and

understood to the rest; as, "I reside at Lord \_Stormont's\_, my old

\_patron\_ and \_benefactor\_."

3. \_Its\_, the possessive case of \_it\_, is often improperly used for

\_'tis\_, or, \_it is\_; as, "\_Its\_ my book: \_Its\_ his," &c.; instead

of, \_"It is\_ my book; or, \_'Tis\_ my book; \_It is\_ his; or, \_'Tis\_

his."

4. Participles frequently govern nouns and pronouns in the

possessive case, as, "In case of his \_majesty's dying\_ without

issue, &c.; Upon \_God's having ended\_ all his works, &c.; I remember

\_its being reckoned\_ a great exploit; At \_my coming\_ in he said,"

&c. But in such instances, the participle with its adjuncts may be

considered a substantive phrase, according to Note 2, Rule 28.

5. Phrases like these, "A work of \_Washington Irving's\_; A brother

of \_Joseph's\_; A friend of \_mine\_; A neighbor of \_yours\_," do not,

as some have supposed, each contain a double possessive, or two

possessive cases, but they may be thus construed; "A work of (\_out

of\_, or, \_among the number of) Washington Irving's works\_; that is,

One of the works of \_Washington Irving\_; One of the brothers \_of

Joseph\_; One friend \_of my friends\_; One neighbor of \_your

neighbors\_."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Homers works are much admired.

Nevertheless, Asa his heart was not perfect with the Lord.

James Hart, his book, bought August the 19, 1829.

\_Note\_ 1. It was the men's, women's, and children's lot to suffer

great calamities.

This is Peter's, John's, and Andrew's occupation.

\_Note\_ 2. This is Campbell's the poet's production.

The silk was purchased at Brown's, the mercer's and haberdasher's.

\_Note\_ 4. Much will depend on the pupil composing frequently.

Much depends on this rule being observed.

The measure failed in consequence of the president neglecting to lay

it before the council.

RULE XIII.

Personal pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in

\_gender\_ and \_number\_; as, "\_John\_ writes, and \_he\_ will soon write

well."

NOTE. You, though frequently employed to represent a singular noun,

is always \_plural in form\_; therefore the verb connected with it

should be plural; as, "My friend, you \_were\_ mistaken." See pages

and

FALSE SYNTAX

Every man will be rewarded according to their works.

Incorrect, because the pronoun \_their\_ does not agree in gender or

number with the noun "man," for which it stands; consequently Rule 13,

is violated. \_Their\_ should be \_his\_; and then the pronoun would be of

the masculine gender, singular number, agreeing with \_man\_, according to

Rule 13. (Repeat the Rule.)

An orator's tongue should be agreeable to the ear of their audience.

Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put them on Jacob.

Take handfuls of ashes, and let Moses sprinkle it towards heaven, in

the sight of Pharaoh, and it shall become small dust.

No one should incur censure for being tender of their reputation.

\_Note\_. Horace, you was blamed; and I think you was worthy of

censure.

Witness, where was you standing during the transaction? How far was

you from the defendant?

RULE XIV.

Relative pronouns agree with their antecedents, in \_gender\_, \_person\_,

and \_number\_; as, "Thou \_who lovest\_ wisdom;" "I \_who speak\_ from

experience."

NOTE. When a relative pronoun is preceded by two antecedents of

different persons, the relative and the verb may agree in person

with either, but not without regard to the sense; as, "I am the man

\_who command\_ you;" or, "I am the man \_who commands\_ you." The

meaning of the first of these examples will more obviously appear,

if we render it thus: "I who command you, am the \_man\_."

When the agreement of the relative has been fixed with either of the

preceding antecedents, it must be preserved throughout the sentence;

as, "I am the \_Lord, that maketh\_ all things; \_that stretcheth\_

forth the heavens alone; \_that spreadeth\_ abroad the earth by

myself," &c.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Thou who has been a witness of the fact, canst state it.

The wheel killed another man, which make the sixth which have lost

their lives by this means.

Thou great First Cause, least understood!

Who all my sense confined.

\_Note, 2d part\_. Thou art the Lord, who didst choose Abraham, and

brought him forth out of Ur of the Chaldees.

RULE XV.

The relative is the nominative case to the verb, when no nominative

comes between it and the verb; as, "The master \_who\_ taught us, was

eminent."

FALSE SYNTAX.

If he will not hear his best friend, whom shall be sent to admonish

him.

This is the man whom, he informed me, was my benefactor.

RULE XVI.

When a nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative

is governed by the following verb, or by some other word in its own

member of the sentence; as, "He \_whom\_ I \_serve\_, is eternal."

NOTE 1. \_Who, which, what\_, the relative \_that\_, and their

compounds, \_whomever, whomsoever\_, &c., though in the objective

case, are always placed before the verb; as, "He \_whom\_ ye \_seek\_,

has gone hence."

2. Every relative must have an antecedent to which it relates,

either expressed or implied; as, "\_Who\_ steals my purse, steals

trash;" that is, \_he\_ who.

3. The pronouns \_whichsoever, whatsoever\_, and the like, are

sometimes elegantly divided by the interposition of the

corresponding nouns; as, "On \_which\_ side \_soever\_ the \_king\_ cast

his eyes," &c.

4. The pronoun \_what\_ is sometimes improperly used instead of the

conjunction \_that;\_ as, "He would not believe but \_what\_ I was in

fault." It should be "but \_that\_," &c.

FALSE SYNTAX.

That is the friend who I sincerely esteem.

Not proper, because \_who\_, which is the object of the action expressed

by the transitive verb "esteem," is in the nominative case. It ought to

be \_whom\_, in the objective; and then it would be governed by esteem,

according to Rule 16. (Repeat the Rule:)--and, also, according to Rule

20. "That is the friend \_whom\_ I sincerely esteem."

They who much is given to, will have much to answer for.

From the character of those who you associate with, your own will be

estimated.

He is a man who I greatly respect.

Our benefactors and tutors are the persons who we ought to love, and

who we ought to be grateful to.

They who conscience and virtue support, may smile at the caprices of

fortune.

Who did you walk with?

Who did you see there?

Who did you give the book to?

RULE XVII.

When a relative pronoun is of the interrogative kind, it refers to the

word or phrase containing the answer to the question for its

\_subsequent\_, which subsequent must agree in \_case\_ with the

interrogative; as, "\_Whose\_ book is that? \_Joseph's;" "Who\_ gave you

this? \_John\_."

NOTE. Whether the interrogative \_really refers\_ to a subsequent or

not, is doubtful; but it is certain that the subsequent should agree

in case with the interrogative.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Who gave John those books? Us. Of whom did you buy them? Of a

bookseller, he who lives in Pearl street.

Who walked with you? My brother and him.

Who will accompany me to the country? Her and me.

RULE XVIII.

Adjectives belong to, and qualify nouns, expressed or understood; as,

"He is a \_good\_, as well as a \_wise\_ man."

NOTE 1. Adjectives frequently belong to pronouns; as, "I am

\_miserable; He\_ is \_industrious\_."

2. Numeral adjectives belong to nouns, which nouns must agree in

number with their adjectives, when of the \_cardinal\_ kind; as, "Ten

\_feet\_; Eighty \_fathoms\_." But some anomalous and figurative

expressions form an exception to this rule; as, "A fleet of \_forty

sail;" "Two hundred head of cattle\_."

3. Adjectives sometimes belong to verbs in the infinitive mood, or

to a part of a sentence; as, "\_To see\_ is \_pleasant\_; To be blind is

\_unfortunate\_; To die for our country is \_glorious\_."

4. Adjectives are often used to modify the sense of other

adjectives, or the action of verbs, and to express the quality of

things in connexion with the action by which that quality is

produced; as, "\_Red hot\_ iron; \_Pale blue\_ lining; \_Deep sea-green\_

sash; The apples boil \_soft\_; Open your hand \_wide\_; The clay burns

\_white\_; The fire burns \_blue\_; The eggs boil \_hard\_."

5. When an adjective is preceded by a preposition, and the noun is

understood, the two words may be considered an adverbial phrase; as,

"In general, in particular;" that is, generally, particularly.

6. Adjectives should be placed next to the nouns which they qualify;

as, "A tract of \_good\_ land."

7. We should generally avoid comparing such adjectives as do not

literally admit of comparison; such as, \_more impossible, most

impossible; more unconquerable, more perfect\_, &c. See REMARKS on

adjectives, page 76.

8. When an adjective or an adverb is used in comparing two objects,

it should be in the comparative degree; but when more than two are

compared, the superlative ought to be employed; as, "Julia is the

\_taller\_ of the two; Her specimen is the \_best\_ of the three."

FALSE SYNTAX.

\_Note\_ 2. The boat carries thirty tun.

The chasm was twenty foot broad, and one hundred fathom in depth.

\_Note\_ 6. He bought a new pair of shoes, and an elegant piece of

furniture.

My cousin gave his fine pair of horses for a poor tract of land.

\_Note\_ 7. The contradictions of impiety are still more

incomprehensible.

It is the most uncertain way that can be devised.

This is a more perfect model than I ever saw before.

\_Note\_ 8. Which of those two cords is the strongest?

I was at a loss to determine which was the wiser of the three.

RULE XIX.

Adjective pronouns belong to nouns, expressed or understood; as, "\_Any\_

man, \_all\_ men."

NOTE 1. The demonstrative adjective pronouns must agree in number

with their nouns; as, "\_This\_ book, \_these\_ books; \_that\_ sort,

\_those\_ sorts."

2. The pronominal adjectives, \_each, every, either, neither,

another\_, and \_one\_, agree with nouns in the singular number only;

as, "\_Each\_ man, \_every\_ person, \_another\_ lesson;" unless the

plural nouns convey a collective idea: as, "\_Every\_ six months."

3. \_Either\_ is often improperly employed instead of \_each;\_ as, "The

king of Israel, and Jehoshaphat the king of Judah, sat \_either\_ of

them on his throne." \_Each\_ signifies \_both\_ taken separately;

\_either\_ implies only \_the one\_ or \_the other\_ taken

disjunctively:--"sat \_each\_ on \_his\_ throne."

FALSE SYNTAX.

\_Note\_ 1. Those sort of favors do real injury.

They have been playing this two hours.

These kind of indulgences soften and injure the mind. He saw one

or more persons enter the garden.

\_Note\_ 2. Let each esteem others better than themselves.

There are bodies, each of which are so small as to be invisible.

Every person, whatever their station may be, are bound by the laws

of morality and religion.

\_Note\_ 3. On either side of the river was the tree of life.

Nadab and Abihu took either of them his censer.

RULE XX.

Active-transitive verbs govern the objective case; as, "Cesar conquered

\_Pompey\_;" "Columbus discovered \_America\_;" "Truth ennobles \_her\_."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Ye who were dead, hath he quickened.

\_Ye\_, in the nominative case, is erroneous, because it is the object of

the action expressed by the transitive verb "hath quickened;" and

therefore it should be \_you\_, in the objective case. \_You\_ would then be

governed by "hath quickened," agreeably, to Rule 20. \_Active-transitive

verbs govern the objective case\_.

Who did they entertain so freely?

They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted,

cannot relish the simple pleasures of nature.

He and they we know, but who are ye?

She that is negligent, reprove sharply.

He invited my brother and I to pay him a visit.

Who did they send on that mission?

They who he has most injured, he had the greatest reason to love.

RULE XXI.

The verb \_to be\_ may have the same case after it as before it; as, "\_I\_

am the \_man\_;" "I believe \_it\_ to have been \_them;\_" "\_He\_ is the

\_thief\_."

NOTE 1. When nouns or pronouns next preceding and following the verb

\_to be\_, signify the \_same thing\_, they are \_in apposition\_, and,

therefore, in the \_same case\_. Rule 21 is predicated on the

principle contained in Rule 7.

2. The verb \_to be\_ is often understood; as, "The Lord made \_me

man\_; He made \_him what\_ he was;" that is, "The Lord made me \_to be\_

man; He made him \_to be that which\_ he was." "They desired me to

call \_them brethren\_;" i.e. \_by the name of\_ brethren. "They named

\_him John\_;" i.e. \_by the name of\_ John; or, by the \_name\_ John;

putting these two nouns in \_apposition\_.

FALSE SYNTAX.

I know it to be they.

Improper, because \_it\_ is in the objective case before the verb "to be,"

and \_they\_ is in the nominative after; consequently, Rule 21 is

violated. \_They\_ is in apposition with \_it\_, therefore \_they\_ should be

\_them\_, in the objective after to be, according to Rule 21. (Repeat the

Rule.)

Be composed, it is me.

I would not act thus, if I were him.

Well may you be afraid; it is him, indeed.

Who do you fancy him to to be?

Whom do men say that I am? Whom say ye that I am?

If it was not him, who do you imagine it to have been?

He supposed it was me; but you knew that it was him.

RULE XXII.

Active-intransitive and passive verbs, the verb \_to become\_, and other

neuter verbs, have the same case after them as before them, when both

words refer to, and signify, the same thing; as, "\_Tom\_ struts a

\_soldier\_;" "\_Will\_ sneaks a \_scrivener\_;" "\_He\_ was called \_Cesar\_;"

"The \_general\_ was saluted \_emperor\_;" "\_They\_ have become \_fools\_."

NOTE 1. Active-intransitive verbs sometimes assume a transitive

form, and govern the objective case; as, "\_To dream\_ a \_dream; To

run\_ a \_race; To walk\_ the \_horse; To dance\_ the \_child; To fly\_ the

\_kite\_."

2. According to a usage too common in colloquial style, an agent not

literally the correct one, is employed as the nominative to a

passive verb, which causes the verb to be followed by an \_objective\_

case without the possibility of supplying before it a preposition:

thus, "\_Pitticus\_ was offered a large \_sum\_ by the king;" "\_She\_ was

promised \_them\_ (the \_jewels\_) by her mother;" "\_I\_ was asked a

\_question\_." It would be better sense, and more agreeable to the

idiom of our language, to say, "A large \_sum\_ was offered \_to

Pitticus\_;" "\_They\_ were promised \_(to) her\_;" "A \_question\_ was put

\_to me\_."

3. Some passive verbs are formed by using the participles of

compound active verbs. To \_smile\_, to \_wonder\_, to \_dream\_, are

intransitive verbs, for which reason they have no passive voice;

but, to \_smile on\_, to \_wonder at\_, to \_dream of\_, are compound

active-transitive verbs, and, therefore, admit of a passive voice;

as, "He \_was smiled on\_ by fortune; The accident is not \_to be

wondered at\_;"

"There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio,

"Than \_are dreamed of\_ in your philosophy."

RULE XXIII.

A verb in the infinitive mood may be governed by a verb, noun,

adjective, participle, or pronoun; as, "\_Cease\_ to do evil;" "We all

have our \_talent\_ to be improved;" "She is \_eager\_ to learn;" "They are

\_preparing\_ to go;" "Let \_him\_ do it."

ILLUSTRATION. The supposed principle of \_government\_ referred to in this

rule, may be thus illustrated. In the sentence, "Cease to do evil," the

peculiar manner in which \_cease\_ is introduced, \_requires\_ or \_compels\_

us to put the verb \_do\_ in the infinitive mood; and, according to the

genius of our language, we cannot express this act of doing, when thus

connected with \_cease\_, in any other mood, unless we change the

construction of the sentence. Hence we say, that \_cease\_ governs the

mood of the verb \_do\_. Similar remarks may be applied to the words

\_talent\_, \_eager\_, \_preparing\_, and \_him\_, in the respective examples

under the rule.

Many respectable grammarians refer the government of this mood

invariably to the preposition \_to\_ prefixed, which word they do not, of

course, consider a part of the verb. Others contend, and with some

plausibility, that this mood is not governed by any particular word. If

we reject the idea of government, as applied to the verb in this mood,

the following rule, if substituted for the foregoing, might, perhaps,

answer all practical purposes.

RULE.

A verb in the infinitive mood, refers to some noun or pronoun, as its

subject or actor.

ILLUSTRATION of the examples under Rule XXIII. "To do" refers to \_thou\_

understood for its agent; "to be improved" refers to \_talent\_; "to

learn," to \_she\_; "to go," to \_they\_; and "to do," refers to \_him\_.

NOTE 1. The infinitive mood absolute stands independent of the rest

of the sentence; as, "\_To confess\_ the truth, I was in fault."

2. The infinitive mood is sometimes governed by conjunctions or

adverbs; as, "An object so high \_as to be\_ invisible;" "He is wise

\_enough to deceive\_;" "The army is \_about to march\_."

RULE XXIV.

The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, is frequently put as the

nominative case to a verb, or the object of an active-transitive verb;

as, "\_To play\_ is pleasant;" "Boys love \_to play\_;" "\_That warm climates

shorten life\_, is reasonable to suppose;" "He does not consider \_how

near he approaches to his end\_."

NOTE. \_To\_, the sign of the infinitive mood, is sometimes properly

omitted; as, "I heard him \_say\_ it;" instead of, "to \_say\_ it."

RULE XXV.

The verbs which follow \_bid\_, \_dare\_, \_need\_, \_make\_, \_see\_, \_hear\_,

\_feel\_, \_help\_, \_let\_, and their participles, are in the infinitive mood

without the sign \_to\_ prefixed; as, "He bids me \_come\_;" "I dare

\_engage\_;" "Let me \_go\_;" "Help me \_do it\_;" i.e. \_to come\_, \_to go\_,

\_to do\_ it, &c. "He is \_hearing\_ me \_recite\_."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Bid him to come.

He durst not to do it without permission.

Hear him to read his lesson.

It is the difference in their conduct, which makes us to approve the

one, and to reject the other.

It is better live on a little, than outlive a great deal.

I wish him not wrestle with his happiness.

RULE XXVI.

Participles have the same government as the verbs have from which they

are derived; as, "I saw the tutor \_instructing\_ his \_pupils\_."

NOTE. The present participle with the definite article \_the\_ before

it, becomes a noun, and must have the preposition \_of\_ after it.

\_The\_ and \_of\_ must both be used, or both be omitted; as, "By \_the\_

observing \_of\_ truth, you will command respect;" or, "By observing

truth," &c.

FALSE SYNTAX.

\_Note\_. We cannot be wise and good without the taking pains for it.

The changing times and seasons, the removing and setting up kings,

belong to Providence alone.

These are the rules of grammar, by observing of which you may avoid

mistakes.

RULE XXVII.

The present participle refers to some noun or pronoun denoting the

subject or actor; as, "I see a \_boy running\_."

RULE XXVIII.

The perfect participle belongs, like an adjective, to some noun or

pronoun, expressed or understood; as, "I saw the boy \_abused\_."

NOTE 1. Participles of neuter verbs have the same case after them as

before them; as, "\_Pontius Pilate\_ being \_Governor\_ of Judea, and

\_Herod\_ being \_Tetrarch\_," &c.

2. A participle with its adjuncts, may sometimes be considered as a

substantive or participial phrase, which phrase may be the subject

of a verb, or the object of a verb or preposition; as, "\_Taking from

another without his knowledge or assent\_, is called stealing; He

studied to avoid \_expressing himself too severely\_; I cannot fail of

\_having money\_, &c.; By \_promising much and performing but little\_,

we become despicable."

3. As the perfect participle and the imperfect tense of irregular

verbs, are sometimes different in their form, care must be taken

that they be not indiscriminately used. It is frequently said, 'He

begun,' for 'he began;' 'He run,' for 'he ran;' 'He come,' for 'he

came;' the participles being here used instead of the imperfect

tense; and much more frequently is the imperfect tense employed

instead of the participle; as, 'I had wrote,' for 'I had written;'

'I was chose,' for 'I was chosen;' 'I have eat,' for 'I have eaten.'

'He would have spoke;'--\_spoken\_. 'He overrun his

guide;'--\_overran\_. 'The sun had rose;'--\_risen\_.

FALSE SYNTAX.

I seen him. I have saw many a one.

\_Seen\_ is improper, the perfect participle being used instead of the

imperfect tense of the verb. It ought to be, "I \_saw\_ him," according to

Note 3, \_Have saw\_ is also erroneous, the imperfect tense being employed

instead of the perfect participle. The perfect tense of a verb is formed

by combining the auxiliary \_have\_ with its perfect participle: therefore

the sentence should be written thus, "I have \_seen\_ many a one:" Note 3.

\_Note\_ 3. He done me no harm, for I had wrote my letter before he

come home.

Had not that misfortune befel my cousin, he would have went to

Europe long ago.

The sun had already arose, when I began my journey.

Since the work is began, it must be prosecuted.

The French language is spoke in every state in Europe.

He writes as the best authors would have wrote, had they writ on the

same subject.

RULE XXIX.

Adverbs qualify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs; as,

"A \_very good\_ pen \_writes extremely well\_;" "By \_living temperately\_,"

&c.

NOTE 1. Adverbs are generally set before adjectives or adverbs,

after verbs, or between the auxiliary and the verb; as, "He made a

\_very sensible\_ discourse, and was \_attentively\_ heard."

2. When the qualifying word which follows a verb, expresses

\_quality\_, it must be an adjective, but when it expresses \_manner\_,

an adverb should be used; as, "She looks \_cold;\_ She looks \_coldly\_

on him; He feels \_warm;\_ He feels \_warmly\_ the insult offered to

him." If the verb \_to be\_ can be substituted for the one employed,

an adjective should follow, and not an adverb; as, "She looks \_[is]

cold\_; The hay smells \_[is] sweet\_; The fields look \_[are] green\_;

The apples taste \_[are] sour\_; The wind blows \_[is] fresh\_."

3. It is not strictly proper to apply the adverbs \_here, there\_, and

\_where\_, to verbs signifying motion, instead of the adverbs \_hither,

thither, whither\_; thus, "He came \_here [hither]\_ hastily;" "They

rode \_there [thither]\_ in two hours;" "\_Where [whither]\_ will he

go?" But in familiar style, these constructions are so far

sanctioned as sometimes to be admissible.

4. The use of \_where\_, instead of \_in which\_, in constructions like

the following, is hardly admissible: "The immortal sages of '76,

formed a charter, \_where [in which]\_ their rights are boldly

asserted."

5. As the adverbs \_hence, thence\_, and \_whence\_, literally supply

the place of a noun and preposition, there appears to be a solecism

in employing a preposition in conjunction with them: "\_From whence\_

it follows;" "He came \_from thence\_ since morning." Better,

"\_whence\_ it follows;" "He came \_thence\_." The following phrases are

also exceptionable: "The \_then\_ ministry;" "The \_above\_ argument;"

"Ask me \_never\_ so much dowry;" "Charm he \_never\_ so wisely."

Better, "The ministry \_of that time\_ or \_period\_;" "The \_preceding\_

argument;" "\_Ever\_ so much dowry;" "\_Ever\_ so wisely."

FALSE SYNTAX.

\_Note\_ 1. It cannot be impertinent or ridiculous therefore to

remonstrate.

He was pleasing not often, because he was vain.

These things should be never separated.

We may happily live, though our possessions are small.

RULE XXX.

Two negatives destroy one another, and are generally equivalent to an

affirmative; as, "Such things are \_not un\_common;" i.e. they are common.

NOTE. When one of the two negatives employed is joined to another

word, it forms a pleasing and delicate variety of expression; as,

"His language, though inelegant, is \_not un\_grammatical;" that is,

it is grammatical.

But, as two negatives, by destroying each other, are equivalent to

an affirmative, they should not be used when we wish to convey a

\_negative\_ meaning. The following sentence is therefore inaccurate:

"I can\_not\_ by \_no\_ means allow him what his argument must prove."

It should be, "I cannot by \_any\_ means," &c., or, "I \_can\_ by \_no\_

means."

FALSE SYNTAX.

\_Note, 2d part\_. I don't know nothing about it.

I did not see nobody there. Nothing never affects her.

Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise.

There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity.

Precept nor discipline is not so forcible as example.

RULE XXXI.

Prepositions govern the objective case; as, "He went \_from\_ Utica \_to\_

Rome, and then passed \_through\_ Redfield."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Each is accountable for hisself.

They settled it among theirselves.

It is not I who he is displeased with.

Who did you go with?

Who did you receive instruction from?

RULE XXXII.

\_Home\_, and nouns signifying \_distance\_, time \_when\_, \_how long\_, &c.

are generally governed by a preposition \_understood\_; as, "The horse ran

a mile;" "He came \_home\_ last June;" "My friend lived four \_years\_ at

college;" that is, ran \_through the space of\_ a mile; or, ran \_over a

space called\_ a mile; \_to\_ his home \_in\_ last June; \_during\_ four years,

&c.

NOTE 1. The prepositions \_to\_ and \_for\_ are often understood,

chiefly before the pronouns; as, "Give [to] \_me\_ a book; Get [for]

\_him\_ some paper."

2. \_To\_ or \_unto\_, is, by some, supposed to be understood after

\_like\_ and \_unlike\_; as, "He is \_like\_ [unto] his brother; She is

\_unlike\_ [to] him." Others consider this mode of expression an idiom

of the language, and maintain that \_like\_ governs the objective

following it.

3. Nouns signifying extension, duration, quantity, quality, or

value, are used without a governing word; as, "The Ohio is one

thousand \_miles\_ long; She is ten \_years\_ old; My hat is worth ten

\_dollars\_." These are sometimes considered anomalies. See page 163.

RULE XXXIII.

Conjunctions connect nouns and pronouns in the same case; as, "The

master taught \_her\_ and \_me\_ to write;" "\_He\_ and \_she\_ are associates."

FALSE SYNTAX.

My brother and him are grammarians.

You and me enjoy great privileges.

Him and I went to the city in company; but John and him returned

without me.

Between you and I there is a great disparity of years.

RULE XXXIV.

Conjunctions generally connect verbs of like moods and tenses; as, "If

thou sincerely \_desire, and\_ earnestly \_pursue\_ virtue, she \_will\_

assuredly \_be found\_ by thee, \_and prove\_ a rich reward."

NOTE 1. When different moods and tenses are connected by

conjunctions, the nominative must be repeated; as, "He \_may return\_,

but \_he will\_ not \_tarry\_."

2. Conjunctions implying contingency or doubt, require the

subjunctive mood after them; as, "\_If\_ he \_study\_, he will improve."

See pages 135, 145, and 155.

3. The conjunctions \_if\_, \_though\_, \_unless\_, \_except\_, \_whether\_,

and \_lest\_, generally require the subjunctive mood after them.

4. Conjunctions of a positive and absolute nature, implying no

doubt, require the indicative mood; as, "\_As\_ virtue \_advances, so\_

vice \_recedes\_."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Did he not tell me his fault, and entreated me to forgive him?

Professing regard, and to act differently, discovers a base mind.

\_Note\_ 1. He has gone home, but may return.

The attorney executed the deed, but will write no more.

\_Note\_ 2. I shall walk to-day, unless it rains.

If he acquires riches, they will corrupt his mind.

RULE XXXV.

A noun or pronoun following the conjunction \_than\_, \_as\_, or \_but\_, is

nominative to a verb, or governed by a verb or preposition, expressed or

understood; as, "Thou art wiser \_than\_ I [\_am\_."] "I saw nobody \_but\_

[\_I saw\_] him."

NOTE 1. The conjunction \_as\_, when it is connected with \_such\_,

\_many\_, or \_same\_, is sometimes, though erroneously, called a

\_relative pronoun\_; as, "Let \_such\_ as presume to advise others,"

&c.; that is, Let \_them who\_, &c. See page 116.

2. An ellipsis, or omission of some words, is frequently admitted,

which must be supplied in the mind in order to parse grammatically;

as "Wo is me;" that is, \_to\_ me; "To sleep all night;" i.e.

\_through\_ all \_the\_ night; "He has gone a journey;" i.e. \_on\_ a

journey; "They walked a league;" i.e. \_over a space called\_ a

league.

3. When the omission of words would obscure the sense, or weaken its

force, they must be expressed.

4. In the use of prepositions, and words that relate to each other,

we should pay particular regard to the meaning of the words or

sentences which they connect: all the parts of a sentence should

correspond to each other, and a regular and clear construction

throughout should be carefully preserved.

FALSE SYNTAX.

They are much greater gainers than me.

They know how to write as well as him; but he is a better grammarian

than them.

They were all well but him.

None were rewarded but him and me.

Jesus sought none but they who had gone astray.

REMARKS ON THE TENSES.

1. In the use of verbs, and other words and phrases which, \_in point of

time\_, relate to each other, a due regard to that relation should be

observed.

Instead of saying, "The Lord \_hath given\_, and the Lord \_hath taken\_

away;" we should say, "The Lord \_gave\_, and the Lord \_hath taken\_ away."

Instead of, "I \_remember\_ the family more than twenty years;" it should

be, "I \_have remembered\_ the family more than twenty years."

2. The best rule that can be given for the management of the tenses, and

of words and phrases which, in point of time, relate to each other, is

this very general one; \_Observe what the sense necessarily requires\_.

To say, "I \_have\_ visited Washington last summer; I \_have seen\_ the work

more than a month ago," is not good \_sense\_. The constructions should

be, "I \_visited\_ Washington, &c.; I \_saw\_ the work, &c." "This mode of

expression \_has been\_ formerly much admired:"--"\_was\_ formerly much

admired." "If I \_had have\_ been there;" "If I \_had have\_ seen him;"

"\_Had\_ you \_have\_ known him," are solecisms too gross to need

correction. We can say, I \_have\_ been, I \_had\_ been; but what sort of a

tense is, \_had have been\_? To place \_had\_ before the \_defective\_ verb

ought, is an error equally gross and illiterate:--"\_had\_ ought, \_hadn't\_

ought." This is as low a vulgarism as the use of \_theirn\_, \_hern\_, and

\_hizzen\_, \_tother\_, \_furder\_, \_baynt\_, \_this ere\_, I \_seed\_ it, I

\_tell'd\_ him.

3. When we refer to a past action or event, and no part of that time in

which it took place; remains, the \_imperfect\_ tense should be used; but

if there is still remaining some portion of the time in which we declare

that the thing has been done, the \_perfect\_ tense should be employed.

Thus, we say, "Philosophers \_made\_ great discoveries in the last

century;" "He \_was\_ much afflicted last year;" but when we refer to the

present century, year, week, day, &c. we ought to use the \_perfect\_

tense; as, "Philosophers \_have made\_ great discoveries in the present

century;" "He \_has been\_ much afflicted this year;" "I \_have read\_ the

president's message this week;" "We \_have heard\_ important news this

morning;" because these events occurred in this century, this year, this

week, and to-day, and still there remains a part of this century, year,

week, and day, of which I speak.

In general, the perfect tense may be applied wherever the action is

connected with the present time, by the actual existence either of the

author of the work, though it may have been performed many centuries

ago; but if neither the author nor the work now remains, the perfect

tense ought not to be employed. Speaking of priests in general, we may

say, "They \_have\_, in all ages, \_claimed\_ great powers;" because the

general order of the priesthood still exists; but we cannot properly

say, "The Druid priests \_have claimed\_ great powers;" because that order

is now extinct. We ought, therefore, to say, "The Druid priests

\_claimed\_ great powers."

The following examples may serve still farther to illustrate the proper

use and application of the tenses. "My brother has recently been to

Philadelphia." It should be, "\_was\_ recently at Philadelphia;" because

the adverb \_recently\_ refers to a time completely past, without any

allusion to the present time. "Charles is grown considerably since I

have seen him the last time." Corrected, "Charles \_has\_ grown, since I

\_saw\_ him," &c. "Payment was at length made, but no reason assigned for

its being so long postponed." Corrected, "for its \_having been\_ so long

postponed." "They were arrived an hour before we reached the

city:"--"They \_had\_ arrived."

"The workmen will complete the building at the time I take possession of

it." It should be, "will \_have completed\_ the building," &c. "This

curious piece of workmanship was preserved, and shown to strangers for

more than fifty years past:"--"\_has been\_ preserved, and \_been\_ shown to

strangers," &c. "I had rather write than beg:"--"I \_would\_ rather write

than beg."

"On the morrow, because he would have known the certainty whereof Paul

was accused of the Jews, he loosed him from his bands." It ought to be,

"because he \_would know\_; or, \_being willing to know,\_" &c. "The blind

man said, 'Lord, that I might receive my sight;'" "If by any means I

might attain unto the resurrection of the dead." In both these examples,

\_may\_ would be preferable to \_might\_. "I feared that I should have lost

the parcel, before I arrived:"--"that I should \_lose\_." "It would have

afforded me no satisfaction, if I could perform it." It ought to be, "if

I could \_have performed\_ it;" or, "It \_would afford\_ me no satisfaction,

if I \_could perform\_ it." "This dedication may serve for almost any book

that has, is, or shall be published:"--"that \_has been\_, or \_will be

published\_."

4. In order to employ the two tenses of the infinitive mood with

propriety, particular attention should be paid to the meaning of what we

express.

Verbs expressive of \_hope\_, \_desire\_, \_intention\_, or \_command\_, ought

to be followed by the PRESENT tense of the \_Infinitive mood\_.

"Last week I intended to \_have written\_," is improper. The intention of

writing was then \_present\_ with me; and, therefore, the construction

should be, "I intended \_to write\_." The following examples are also

inaccurate; "I found him better than I expected \_to have found\_ him;"

"My purpose was, after spending ten months more in commerce, \_to have

withdrawn\_ my wealth to another country." They should be, "expected \_to

find\_ him;" "\_to withdraw\_ my wealth."

"This is a book which proves itself to be written by the person whose

name it bears." It ought to be "which proves itself \_to have been

written\_," &c. "To see him would have afforded me pleasure all my life."

Corrected, "\_To have seen\_ him;" or, "\_To see\_ him \_would afford\_ me

pleasure," &c. "The arguments were sufficient to have satisfied all who

heard them:"--"were sufficient \_to satisfy\_." "History painters would

have found it difficult to have invented such a species of

beings:"--"\_to invent\_ such a species."

5. General and immutable truths ought to be expressed in the \_present\_

tense.

Instead of saying, "He did not know that eight and twenty \_were\_ equal

to twenty and eight;" "The preacher said very audibly, that whatever

\_was\_ useful, \_was\_ good;" "My opponent would not believe, that virtue

\_was\_ always advantageous.;" The constructions should be, "\_are\_ equal

to twenty;" "whatever \_is\_ useful, \_is\_ good;" "virtue \_is\_ always

advantageous."

EXAMPLES IN FALSE SYNTAX PROMISCUOUSLY ARRANGED.

We adore the Divine Being, he who is from eternity to eternity.

On these causes depend all the happiness or misery which exist among

men.

The enemies who we have most to fear, are those of our own hearts.

Is it me or him who you requested to go?

Though great has been his disobedience and his folly, yet if he

sincerely acknowledges his misconduct, he shall be forgiven.

There were, in the metropolis, much to amuse them.

By exercising of our memories, they are improved.

The property of my friend, I mean his books and furniture, were

wholly consumed.

Affluence might give us respect in the eyes of the vulgar, but will

not recommend us to the wise and good.

The cares of this world, they often choke the growth of virtue.

They that honor me, I will honor; and them that despise me, shall be

lightly esteemed.

I intended to have called last week, but could not.

The fields look freshly and gayly since the rain.

The book is printed very neat, and on fine wove paper.

I have recently been in Washington, where I have seen Gen. Andrew

Jackson, he who is now president.

Take the two first, and, if you please, the three last.

The Chinese wall is thirty foot high.

It is an union supported by an hypothesis, merely.

I have saw him who you wrote to; and he would have came back with

me, if he could.

Not one in fifty of those who call themselves deists, understand the

nature of the religion which they reject.

If thou studiest diligently, thou will become learned.

Education is not attended to properly in Spain.

He know'd it was his duty; and he ought, therefore, to do it.

He has little more of the great man besides the title.

Richard acted very independent on the occasion.

We have done no more than it was our duty to have done.

The time of my friend entering on business, soon arrived.

His speech is the most perfect specimen I ever saw.

Calumny and detraction are sparks which, if you do not blow, they

will go out of themselves.

Those two authors have each of them their merit.

Reasons whole pleasure, all the joys of sense,

Lies in three words, health, peace, and competence.

A great mass of rocks thrown together by the hand of nature with

wildness and confusion, strike the mind with more grandeur, than if

they were adjusted to one another with the accuratest symmetry.

A lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder.

The side A, with the sides B and C, compose the triangle.

If some persons opportunities were never so favorable, they would be

too indolent to improve.

It is reported that the governor will come here to-morrow.

Beauty and innocence should be never separated.

Extravagance and folly may reduce you to a situation where you will

have much to fear and little to hope.

Not one in fifty of our modern infidels are thoroughly versed in

their knowledge of the Scriptures.

Virtue and mutual confidence is the soul of friendship. Where these

are wanting, disgust or hatred often follow little differences.

An army present a painful sight to a feeling mind.

To do good to them that hate us, and, on no occasion, to seek

revenge, is the duty of a Christian.

The polite, accomplished libertine, is but miserable amidst all his

pleasures: the rude inhabitant of Lapland is happier than him.

There are principles in man, which ever have, and ever will, incline

him to offend.

This is one of the duties which requires great circumspection.

They that honor me, them will I honor.

Every church and sect have opinions peculiar to themselves.

Pericles gained such an ascendant over the minds of the Athenians,

that he might be said to attain a monarchical power in Athens.

Thou, Lord, who hath permitted affliction to come upon us, shall

deliver us from it in due time.

That writer has given us an account of the manner in which

Christianity has formerly been propagated among the heathens.

Though the measure be mysterious, it is not unworthy of your

attention.

In his conduct was treachery, and in his words, faithless

professions. After I visited Europe, I returned to America.

I have not, nor shall not, consent to a proposal so unjust.

I had intended yesterday to have walked out, but I have been again

disappointed.

Five and eight makes thirteen; five from eight leaves three.

If he goes to Saratoga next week, it will make eight times that he

has visited that renowned watering place.

I could not convince him, that a forgiving disposition was nobler

than a revengeful one. I consider the first, one of the brightest

virtues that ever was or can be possessed by man.

The college consists of one great, and several smaller edifices.

He would not believe, that honesty was the best policy.

The edifice was erected sooner than I expected it to have been.

Surely, goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life;

and I will dwell in the house of the Lord for ever.

If a man have a hundred sheep, and one of them be gone astray, doth

he not leave the ninety and nine, &c.?

He might have completed his task sooner, but he could not do it

better.

The most ignorant and the most savage tribes of men, when they have

looked round on the earth, and on the heavens, could not avoid

ascribing their origin to some invisible, designing cause, and felt

a propensity to adore their Creator.

\* \* \* \* \*

CRITICAL NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

OBSERVATION 1. The following absurd phrases so common in the sacred desk

and elsewhere, should be carefully avoided by all who regard common

sense:--"Sing the \_two first\_ and \_three last\_ verses." Just as if there

could be more than \_one\_ first and \_one\_ last. There may be a \_first

two\_, a \_second two\_, &c.; a \_first three\_, a \_second three\_, a \_last

three\_. "Within the \_two last\_ centuries;" "The second syllable of the

\_three first\_ words;" "The \_three first\_ of these orthoepists have no

rule by which their pronunciation is regulated:"--"the \_last two\_

centuries;" "the \_first three\_ words;" "the \_first three\_ of these

orthoepists."

2. Adjectives should not be used to express the manner of action. "The

higher the river, the \_swifter\_ it flows;" "James learns \_easier\_ than

Juliet; he sees \_deeper\_ into the millstone than she:"--"the \_more

swiftly\_ it flows;" "learns \_more easily\_; \_farther\_ into the

millstone." "He conducted the \_boldest\_ of any:"--"the \_most boldly\_."

3. \_More\_ requires \_than\_ after it. The following sentences are

therefore improper: "He was more beloved, but not so much admired, \_as\_

Cinthio;" "Richard is more active, but not so studious, \_as\_ his

companion." The legitimate mode of supplying the ellipses in these

constructions, will show their gross impropriety: thus, "He was more

beloved \_as\_ Cinthio;" "Richard is more active \_as\_ his companion," &c.

4. Adverbs, as illustrated on page 85, are generally \_substitutes\_ for

two or more words belonging to other parts of speech. "Will you

accompany me to Europe next summer?" \_"Yes."\_ "Do you believe that the

voyage will restore your health?" \_"No."\_ In these examples, the adverbs

\_yes\_ and \_no\_, are substitutes for whole sentences, and, therefore, do

not qualify any words understood. \_Yes\_, in this instance, literally

means, \_"I will accompany you to Europe next summer;"\_ and \_no\_, \_"I do

not believe that the voyage will restore my health."\_ Many other adverbs

are often employed in a similar manner.

\_"Firstly,"\_ is often improperly used instead of the adverb \_first;\_ "a

\_good deal\_," instead of, \_much\_, or, a \_great deal\_.

5. A nice distinction should be observed in the use of \_such\_ and \_so\_.

The former may be employed in expressing \_quality\_; the latter, in

expressing a \_degree\_ of the quality; as, "\_Such\_ a temper is seldom

found;" "\_So\_ bad a temper is seldom found." In the following examples,

\_so\_ should be used instead of \_such:\_ "He is \_such\_ an extravagant

young man, that I cannot associate with him;" "I never before saw \_such\_

large trees."

The affected use of cardinal, instead of ordinal numbers, ought not to

be imitated. "On page \_forty-five;"\_ "Look at page

\_nineteen\_;"--\_forty-fifth, nineteenth\_.

6. In the choice and application of prepositions, particular regard

should be paid to their meaning as established by the idiom of our

language and the best usage. "In my proceedings, I have been actuated

from the conviction, that I was supporting a righteous cause;" "He

should have profited from those golden precepts;" "It is connected to

John with the conjunction \_and\_;" "Aware that there is, in the minds of

many, a strong predilection in favor of established usages;" "He was

made much on at Argos;" "They are resolved of going;" "The rain has been

falling of a long time;" "It is a work deserving of encouragement."

These examples may be corrected thus, "actuated \_by\_ the conviction;"

"\_by\_ those golden precepts;" "\_by\_ the conjunction and;" "predilection

\_for\_;" "much \_of\_ at Argos;" "\_on\_ going;" "falling a long time;"

"deserving encouragement."

7. The preposition \_to\_ is used before nouns of place, where they follow

verbs or participles of motion; as, "I went \_to\_ Washington." But \_at\_

is employed after the verb \_to be\_; as, "I have been \_at\_ Washington;"

"He has been \_to\_ New York, \_to\_ home," &c. are improper. The

preposition \_in\_ is set before countries, cities, and large towns; "He

lives \_in\_ France, \_in\_ London, \_in\_ Philadelphia, \_in\_ Rochester." But

before single houses, and cities and villages which are in distant

countries, \_at\_ is commonly used; as, "He lives \_at\_ Park-place;" "She

resides \_at\_ Vincennes." People in the northern states may say, "They

live \_in\_ New Orleans, or, \_at\_ New Orleans."

8. Passive agents to verbs in the infinitive mood, should not be

employed as active agents. The following are solecisms: "This house to

let;" "Horses and carriages to let;" "Congress has much business to

perform this session;" because the agents, \_house\_, \_horses\_ and

\_carriages\_, and \_business\_, which are really \_passive\_, are, according

to these constructions, rendered as active. The expressions should be,

"This house to \_be\_ let;" "Horses and carriages to \_be\_ let;" "much

business to \_be performed\_."

9. AMBIGUITY.--"Nothing is more to be desired than wisdom." Not

\_literally\_ correct, for \_wisdom\_ is certainly more to be desired than

\_nothing\_; but, as a figurative expression, it is well established and

unexceptionable.

"A crow is a large black bird:"--a large, \_black--bird\_.

"I saw a horse--fly through the window:"--I saw a \_horsefly\_.

"I saw a ship gliding under full sail through a spy glass." I saw,

through a spy glass, a ship gliding under full sail.

"One may see how the world goes with half an eye." One may see with half

an eye, how the world goes.

"A great stone, that I happened to find, after a long search, by the sea

shore, served me for an anchor." This arrangement of the members and

circumstances of this sentence, confines the speaker's \_search to the

sea shore;\_ whereas, he meant, "A \_large stone, which,\_ after a long

search, I happened \_to find by the sea shore,\_ served me for an anchor."

"I shall only notice those called personal pronouns." I shall notice

\_only\_ those called personal pronouns.

10. TAUTOLOGY.--Avoid words which add no thing to the sense; such as,

"\_Now\_ extant, \_free\_ gratis, \_slow\_ mope, \_cold\_ snow, a \_hot\_ sun, a

\_flowing\_ stream, a \_dull\_ blockhead, \_wise\_ sages." "I am just going to

go there;" I am \_about\_ to go.

11. ABSURDITIES AND IMPROPRIETIES.--"I can learn him many things."

It ought to be, "I can \_teach\_ him." To \_learn\_, is to \_acquire\_ or

\_receive\_ information; to \_teach\_, means to \_communicate\_ it.

"I don't think it is so." You \_do think\_, that it is \_not\_ so.

\_Ever, always.\_ "I have ever been of this mind." I have \_always\_ been.

\_Ever\_ and \_always\_ are not synonymous. \_Ever\_ refers to \_one\_

indefinite period of time; as, "If he \_ever\_ become rich:" \_always\_

means \_at all times\_.

\_Excuse, pardon.\_ The former signifies to release from an obligation

which refers to the future; the latter, to forgive a neglect or crime

that is past. "Excuse me for neglecting to call yesterday:" \_pardon\_ me.

\_Remember, recollect.\_ We \_remember\_ a thing which we retain in our

mind; we \_recollect\_ it, when, though having gone from the mind, we have

power to call it back.

\_Defect, deficiency.\_ A thing which is incomplete in any of its parts,

is \_defective;\_ a total absence of the thing, is a \_deficiency\_.

This subject will be resumed in the appendix to this work.

\* \* \* \* \*

CORRECTIONS IN ORTHOGRAPHY.

From among those words which are often erroneously spelled, the

following are selected and corrected according to Johnson, and to Cobb's

Dictionary.

INCORRECT. CORRECT.

Abridgement Abridgment

abscision abcission

achievment achievement

adze addice

agriculturalist agriculturist

ancle ankle

attornies attorneys

baise baize

bason basin

bass base

bombazin bombasin

boose bouse

boult bolt

buccaneer bucanier

burthen burden

bye by

calimanco calamanco

camblet camlet

camphire camphor

canvas canvass

carcase carcass

centinel sentinel

chace chase

chalibeate chalybeate

chamelion chameleon

chimist chemist

chimistry chemistry

cholic colic

chuse choose

cimetar cimeter

clench clinch

cloke cloak

cobler cobbler

chimnies chimneys

chesnut chestnut

clue clew

connection connexion

corset corslet

cypher cipher

cyphering ciphering

dactyl dactyle

develope develop

dipthong diphthong

dispatch despatch

doat dote

drouth drought

embitter imbitter

embody imbody

enquire inquire

enquirer inquirer

enquiry inquiry

ensnare insnare

enterprize enterprise

enthral inthrall

entrench intrench

entrenchment intrenchment

entrust intrust

enwrap inwrap

epaulette epaulet

etherial ethereal

faggot fagot

fasset faucet

fellon felon

fie fy

germ germe

goslin gosling

gimblet gimlet

grey gray

halloe halloo

highth height

hindrance hinderance

honied honeyed

impale empale

inclose enclose

inclosure enclosure

indict endict

indictment endictment

indorse endorse

indorsement endorsement

instructor instructer

insure ensure

insurance ensurance

judgement judgment

laquey lackey

laste last

licence license

loth loath

lothsome loathsome

malcontent malecontent

maneuver manoeuvre

merchandize merchandise

misprison misprision

monies moneys

monied moneyed

negociate negotiate

negociation negotiation

noviciate novitiate

ouse ooze

opake opaque

paroxism paroxysm

partizan partisan

patronize patronise

phrenzy phrensy

pinchers pincers

plow plough

poney pony

potatoe potato

quere query

recognize recognise

reindeer raindeer

reinforce re-enforce

restive restiff

ribbon riband

rince rinse

sadler saddler

sallad salad

sceptic skeptic

sceptical skeptical

scepticism skepticism

segar cigar

seignor seignior

serjeant sergeant

shoar shore

soothe sooth

staunch stanch

streight straight

suitor suiter

sythe scythe

tatler tattler

thresh thrash

thwak thwack

tipler tippler

tranquility tranquillity

tripthong triphthong

trissyllable trisyllable

valice valise

vallies valleys

vise vice

vollies volleys

waggon wagon

warrantee warranty

whoopingcough hoopingcough

woe wo

yeast yest

CORRECTIONS IN ORTHOEPY.

The following words being often erroneously pronounced by polite people,

as well as by the vulgar, their correction, in this place, agreeably to

\_Cobb's Dictionary\_, it is presumed, will be useful to many. Some of the

mispronunciations given are \_provincial\_.

1 2 3 4 1 4 1 4 1 3 5 6 1 4

Fate, far, fall, fat--me, met--pine, pin--no, nor, not, move--tube, tub,

7 34 37

bull--oil--found---\_th\_in--THIS.

ORTHOGRAPHY. IMPROPER. PRONOUNCED.

4 1 4 4

Again a-gane' a-gen'

4 1 4 4

Against a-ganste' a-genst

4 1 4 1

Ally al'le al'li'

1 2

Are are ar

4 4 1 1

Azure azh'ur a'zhure

1 1

Bade bade bad

1 11

Beard bard beerd

4 11 4

Been ben or been bin

22 11

Bleat blaat bleet

1 34

Boil bile boil

4 4 5 4

Bonnet bun'net bon'nit

2 66

Brooch brotsh brootsh

4 3 4 4

Canal ka-nawl' ka-nal'

4 4

Catch ketsh katsh

4 1 3 1

Causeway kros'wa kawz'wa

4 4 1 4

Chalice kal'is tshal'is

4 1

Chasten tshas'tn tshase'sn

4 1 4 1

Chimney tshim'ble tshim'ne

3 1

Chine tshime tshine

34 1

Choir koir kwire

4 4 1 1

Clevy klev'is klev've

4 4

Clinch klensh klinsh

5 4 5 4

Column kol'yum kol'lum

5 4 4 4

Combat kom'bat kum'bat

5 1 5 4

Comma kom'me kom'ma

1 4 3 4

Coquet ko-kwet' ko-ket'

3 1

Corps korps kore

4 4 4 4

Cover kiv'ur kuv'ur

11 4

Deaf deef def

1 4 4 1 1 4

Decisive de-sis'iv de-si'siv

1 5 1 1

Depot de'pot de-po'

4 1 1 1 1

Depute dep'u-tize de-pute'

4 1 1 1 1 4

Deputed dep'u-tizd de-pu'ted

1 1 1 1

Design de-zine' de-sine'

4 4

Dint dent dint

1 5 4

Docile do'slle dos'sil

4 4 4 4

Disgust dis-gust' diz-gust'

4 1 4 1

Dismay dis-ma' diz-ma'

4 1 4 1

Disown dis-one' diz-one'

1 4

Dost dost dust

1 4

Doth do\_th\_ du\_th\_

66 4

Does dooz duz

11 1

Drain dreen drane

37 37

Drought drou\_th\_ drout

37 4 37

Drowned dround'ed dround

4 1 4 4

Ductile duk'tile duk'til

1 4

Edge aje edje

1 1 4

Either i'THur e'THur

4 4 4 4

English eng'lish ing'glish

1 1 1 1

Era e're e'ra

1 1

Ere ere are

1 4

Fasten fas'tn fas'sn

4 7 11 7

Fearful fer'ful feer'ful

4 4 4 1

Figure fig'gur fig'ure

4 11

Fiend fend feend

4 4

First fust furst

34 1 1 1 1

Foliage foil'aje fo'le-aje

3 4 3 1

Fortune for'tshun for'tshune

3 4 3 1

Fortnight fort'nit fort'nite

37 37 4

Fountain foun'tn foun'tin

4 4 4 1

Fracture frak'tshur frak'tshure

1 4 1 4

Fragrance frag'ranse fra'granse

1 1 1 4

Futile fu'tile fu'til

4 4 4 4

Gather geTH'ur gaTH'ur

4 4

Get git get

4 4

Girth gurt ger\_th\_

66 1

Goal gool gole

1 1 4 1 4

Going gone \_or\_ go'in go'ing

66 1

Gold goold gold

66 4

Gum goom gum

1 4 4

Grudge be-gretsh' grudje

4 4 4 4

Gypsum gip'sum jip'sum

4 4

Has hez haz

1 4

Have have hav

11 4

Heard heerd herd

4 4 2

Hearth hur\_th\_ or ha\_th\_ har\_th\_

4 4

Hiss siss hiss

1 34

Hoist histe hoist

4 1 1 1

Homely hum'ble home'le

4 66

Hoof huf hoof

3 4 5 4

Hostler haws'lur os'lur

4 4

Humble hum'bl um'bl

11 4 4 4

Jesting jeest'in jest'ing

4 4

Kettle kit'tl ket'tl

4 4 4 1

Lecture lek'tshur lek'tshure

4 4 1 1

Leisure lezh'ur le'zhure

4 4 1 4

Lever lev'er le'vur

4 4

Lid led lid

1 5 1 4

Lilach la'lok li'lak

66 1

Loam loom lome

1 66

Loo lu loo

1 1 4 1

Maintain mane-tane' men-tane'

1 4 1 4

Matron mat'run ma'trun

1 1 4 1

Mermaid mare'made mer'made

37 37

Mountain moun'tn moun'tin

1 4 1 1

Nature na'tshur na'tshure

1 4 1 4

Neither ni'THur ne'THur

1 11 1 1

Oblige o-bleeje' o-blije'

1 11 5 1

Oblique o-bleek' ob-like'

5 5

Of of ov

1 34

Oil ile oil

5 4 1 1 1

Only on'le \_or\_ un'le one'le

1 4 4 4

Panther pane'tur pan'\_th\_ur

4 4 1 4

Parent par'ent pa'rent

2 4 2 4

Partner pard'nur part'nur

2 4 4 1

Pasture pas'tshur pas'tshure

4 4 1 4

Patron pat'run pa'trun

4 4 4 4

Pincers pinsh'urz pin'surz

4 4

Pith pe\_th\_ pi\_th\_

11 1

Plait pleet plate

1 1 4

Poem pome po'em

1 34

Point pinte point

5 4 4

Pother poTH'ur puTH'ur

4 4 1 4

Precept pres'sept pre'sept

1 1 4 4

Preface pre'fase pref'fas

1 1 4 1

Prelude pre'lude prel'ude

1 4 5 4

Process pro'ses pros'ses

1 4 5 4

Product pro'dukt prod'ukt

1 4 5 4

Progress pro'gres prog'res

1 1 1 11

Profile pro'file pro-feel'

4 4 4 4

Pumpion pungk'in pump'yun

4 7

Put put (verb) put

1 34

Quoit kwate kwoit

1 1 4 1

Rapine ra'pine rap'in

1 11

Rear rare reer

4 1 4 4

Reptile rep'tile rep'til

4 4

Rid red rid

1 1

Rind rine rind

4 4

Rinse rense rinse

5 4 5 4

Rosin roz'um roz'in

87 1 66 11

Routine rou tene roo-teen'

4 66

Roof ruff roof

4 4 1 4

Sacred sak'red sa'kred

1 4

Said sade sed

4 4

Sat set sat

1 4

Says saze sez

2 1

Scarce skarse skarse

4 1 4 1

Schedule sked'ule sed'jule

4 4

Shut shet shut

4 4

Since sense sinse

4 11

Sleek slik sleek

4 4 1 4

Sliver sliv'vur sli'vur

3 7 1 7

Slothful slaw\_th\_'ful slo\_th\_'ful

4 66

Soot sut soot

4 4 1 2

Spikenard spig'nut spike'nard

1 34

Spoil spile spoil

4 4 11 2

Steelyard stil'yurdz steel'yard

5 4

Stamp stomp stamp

4 4

Stint stent stint

1 1

Sword sword sord

1 5 4 4

Synod si'nod sin'ud

1 1 4 1

Therefore THare'fore THer'fore

4 4

Thill fil \_th\_il

1 66

To to too

37 66

Tour tour toor

4 4

Treble trib'bl treb'bl

1 3 1 4

Towards to-wardz' to'urdz

5 1 1 1

Trophy trof'fe tro'fe

1 1 1 1

Tuesday tshuz'de tuze'de

4 4 4 1

Verdure vur'jur ver'jure

1 4 4 11

Vizier vi'zhur viz'yeer

5 4 5 1

Volume vol'lum vol'yume

1 4

Were ware wer

1 1

Yea ya ye

4 4

Yes yes yis

11 33 4

Yest yeest \_or\_ eest yest

4 4

Yet yit yet

1 66

You yu yoo

1 66

Your yure yoor

1 66

Youth yu\_th\_ yoo\_th\_

1 4 1 4 1 1 1 4

Ague and fever fe'vurn-a'gur a'gu-and fe'vur

3 4 1 4 4 1

Alternate awl-ter'nate al-ter'nate

4 4 1 4 4 1 1

Annunciate an-nun'shate an-nun'she-ate

4 1 4 4 1 4

Andiron hand'i-urn and'i-urn

4 1 1 4 4 1 11

Antipodes an'te-podz an-tip'o-deez

4 4 4 4 1 4

Apparent ap-par'ent ap-pa'rent

2 1 4 4 2 3 4 1

Architecture artsh'e-tek-tshur ar'-ke-tek-tshure

4 4 4 4 4 4

Assumption as-sump'shun as-sum'shun

3 4 4 1 3 4 4 1

Auxiliary awks-il'a-re awg-zil'ya-re

4 4 4 4 4 1 1 1 1

Certiorari sash-ur-ar'ur ser-she-o-ra'ri

4 4 1 1 4 1 4 1 1

Christianity kris-tshan'e-te kris-tshe-an'e-te

4 4 1 4 4 4

Clandestine klan-des'tine klan-des'tin

1 4 1 4 1 4 1 4

Coadjutor ko-ad'ju-tur ko-ad-ju'tur

5 4 1 4 5 4 1 4

Compendium kom-pen'de-um kom-pen'je-um

5 4 1 1 4 1

Connoisseur kon-nis-sure' ko-nes-sare'

1 1 4 4 1 4

Courteous kore'te-us kur'tshe-us

4 4 4 4 4 4

Coverlet kuv'ur-lid kuv'ur-let

37 4 1 37 4 4

Cowardice kou'urd-ise kou'urd-is

1 4 4 1 4 4

Decrepit de-krip'id de-krep'it

4 5 1 1 5 1

Demonstrate dem'on-strate de-mon'strate

1 4 4 4 4 1 4 1 1 4

Desideratum de-sid-er-at'um de-sid-e-ra'tum

1 4 1 1 4

Diamond di'mund di'a-mund

4 4 4 1 4 1 4

Discrepance dis-krep'an-se dis'kre-panse

4 4 1 4 4 4

Disfranchise dis-fran'tschize dis-fran'tschiz

4 5 4 4 5 4

Dishonest dis-on'est diz-on'est

4 3 4 4 3 4

Disorder dis-or'dur diz-or'dur

1 4 4 1 1 4 1 1

Electrify e-lek'tur-ize e-lek'tre-fi

1 1 1 1 1 1 1

Emaciate e-ma'shate e-ma'she-ate

4 1 1 4 1 1 1

Expatiate eks-pa'shate eks-pa'she-ate

4 1 1 1 1 4 1 1 4 1

Expiatory eks-pi'a-to-re eks'pe-a-tur-re

4 4 1 4 4 1 1

Extempore eks-tem'pore eks-tem'po-re

4 1 1 4 1 4

Feminine fem'e-nine fem'e-nin

4 4 1 1 4 1

Frequently frek'went-le fre'kwent-le

4 1 1 4 1 4

Genuine jen'u-ine jen'u-in

2 11 2 1 4

Guardian gar-deen' gyar'de-an

4 4 4 4 4 4

Gymnastic gim-nas'tik jim-nas'tik

4 1 1 4 4 1 66 4

Hallelujah hal-le-lu'ja hal-le-loo'ya

5 4 4 5 3 4

Hospital hos'pit-al os'pe-tal

1 4 4 1 4 4

Humorous hu'mur-us yu'mur-us

1 1 1 1 4

Idea i-de' i-de'a

4 1 4 4 4 1 3 4

Ignoramus ig-no-ram'us ig-no-ra'mus

4 4 1 4 4 1 1 4

Indecorous in-dek'o-rus in-de-ko'rus

4 4 1 1 4 1 1 1

Irradiate ir-rad'e-ate ir-ra'de-ate

4 4 4 1 4 4 1 1

Literati lit-er-at'i lit-er-a'ti

1 1 4 4 1 4

Maintenance mane-tane'anse men-'te-nanse

4 1 1 4 1 4

Masculine mas'ku-line mas'ku-lin

4 4 1

mur'kan-tile }

4 4 11 } 4 4 4

Mercantile mur-kan-teel'} mer'kan-til

4 4 4 }

mur-kan'til }

1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

Meliorate me-li'o-rate me'le-o-rate

1 4 1 4 5 4 1 4

Molestation mo-les-ta'shun mol-es-ta'shun

1 1 4 1 1 4

Museum mu'ze-um mu-ze'um

1 4 4 4 4 4

National na'shun-al nash'un-al

1 4 4 1 5 4 1 1

Nomenclature no-men'kla-ture nom-en-kla'tshure

5 1 4 5 1 4 4

Nominative nom'e-tiv nom'e-na-tiv

5 5 1 4 5 4 4 4

Obstreperous ob-strop'pu-lus ob-strep'er-us

5 2 1 5 1 1

Octavo ok-ta'vo ok-ta'vo

5 1 1 1 5 4 4 1

Oratory or'a-to-re or'a-tur-re

1 4 1 4 4 1

Parentage pa'rent-aje par'ent-aje

2 4 1 1 2 1 4 1 1

Partiality par-shal'le-te par-she-al'le-te

1 4 1 4 4 4

Patronage pa'trun-aje pat'run-ije

4 1 2 1 1 2

Patriarch pat're-ark pa'tre-ark

4 1 4 1 1 4

Patriot pat're-ut pa'tre-ut

4 1 4 4 1 1 4 4

Patriotism pat're-ut-izm pa'tre-ut-izm

1 5 1 4 1 5 1 4

Philologist fi-lol'lo-jist fe-lol'lo-jist

1 5 1 1 1 5 1 1

Philosophy fi-los'o-fe fe-los'o-fe

1 1 5 1 4 4 1 5 1 4

Philosophical fi-lo-sof'ik-al fil-o-zof'e-kal

1 4 4 1 4 4

Plagiarism pla'ga-rizm pla'ja-rizm

5 4 5 4

Possess pos-ses' poz-zes'

5 4 1 5 4 1

Possessive pos-ses'siv poz-zes'siv

5 4 4 5 4 4

Possession pos-sesh'un poz-zesh'un

1 4 4 4 1 4 4

Preventive pre-vent'a-tiv pre-vent'iv

1 4 1 1 4 1 4 1 1 4

Pronunciation pro-nun-se-a'shun pro-nun-she-a'shun

1 4 1 1 4 1 4 1 1 4

Propitiation pro-pis-e-a'shun pro-pish-e-a'shun

5 1 1 5 1 1

Prophecy prov'e-si (noun) prof'e-se (noun)

5 1 1 5 1 5

Prophesy prov'e-si (verb) prof'e-si (verb)

1 1 1 1 1

Ratio ra'sho ra'she-o

1 4 4 4 4 4

Rational ra'shun-al rash'un-al

1 4 4 1 4 4

Sacrament sa'kra-ment sak'ra-ment

1 1 1 4 1 1

Sacrifice sa'kre-fize, sak're-fize

4

\_or\_ (fis)

4 1 1 1 1 1 1

Stereotype ster'o-tipe ste're-o-tipe

1 4 1 4 1 4 4

Stupendous stu-pen'du-us, stu-pen'dus

1 4

stu-pen'jus

1 5 1 1 4 1 4

Synonyme se-non'e-me sin'o-nim

4 4 4 4 1 4

Transparent trans-par'ent trans-pa'rent

4 4 4 1 4 1 4 1

Transparency trans-par'en-se trans-pa'ren-se

1 4 1 4 1 4 4

Tremendous tre-men'du-us, tre-men'dus

1 4 1

tre-men'jus

4 4 4 4 1 4

Verbatim ver-bat'im ver-ba'tim

5 2 1 5 1 1

Volcano vol-ka'no vol-ka'no

4 1 4 11

Whiffletree hwip'pl-tre hwif'fl-tree

NOTE 1.--When the words \_learned\_, \_blessed\_, \_loved,\_ &c. are

used as participial adjectives, the termination \_ed\_ should

generally be pronounced as a separate syllable; as, "A \_learn-ed\_

man; The \_bless-ed\_ Redeemer;" but when they are employed as verbs,

the \_ed\_ is contracted in pronunciation; as, "He \_learn'd\_ his

lesson; They are \_lov'd;\_ I have \_walk'd\_."

2. The accent of the following words falls on those syllables

expressed in the \_italic\_ characters: Eu ro \_pe\_ an, hy me \_ne\_ al,

Ce sa \_re\_ a, co ad \_ju\_ tor, ep i cu \_re\_ an, \_in\_ ter est ed, \_in\_

ter est ing, \_rep\_ a ra ble, \_rec\_ og nise, \_leg\_ is la ture, \_ob\_

li ga to ry, in \_com\_ pa ra ble, ir \_rep\_ a ra ble, in \_ex\_ o ra

ble. In a large class of words, the vowels \_a\_, \_e\_, and \_ai\_,

should be pronounced like long \_a\_ in \_late\_; such as, \_fare\_,

\_rare\_, \_there\_, \_their\_, \_where\_, \_air\_, \_chair\_, \_compare\_,

\_declare\_, &c. In the words \_person\_, \_perfect\_, \_mercy\_,

\_interpret\_, \_determine\_, and the like, the vowel \_e\_ before \_r\_, is

often \_erroneously\_ sounded like short \_u\_. Its proper sound is that

of \_e\_ in \_met\_, \_pet\_, \_imperative\_.

3. With respect to the pronunciation of the words \_sky\_, \_kind\_,

\_guide\_, &c. it appears that a mistake extensively prevails. It is

believed that their common pronunciation by the vulgar, is the

\_correct\_ one, and agreeable to the pronunciation intended by Mr.

John Walker. The proper diphthongal sounds

11 1 1

in skei, kyind, gyide, are adopted by the common mass, and

\_perverted\_ by those who, in their unnatural and affected

pronunciation of these words, say,

1 1 1 1 1 1

ske-i; ke-inde, ge-ide. This latter mode of pronouncing them in two

syllables, is as incorrect and ridiculous as to pronounce the words

\_boil\_, \_toil\_, in two

3 4 3 4

syllables; thus, bo-il, to-il.

4. \_My\_, \_wind\_. When \_my\_ is contrasted with \_thy\_, \_his\_, \_her\_, \_your\_,

1 1

&c, it is pronounced, mi: in all other situations, it is pronounced, me;

as, "\_My [me]\_ son, give ear to \_my [me]\_ counsel." When \_wind\_ ends a

line in poetry, and is made to rhyme with \_mind\_, \_bind\_, kind\_, &c. it is

1 4

pronounced, wind; but, in other situations, it is pronounced, wind.

"Lo, the poor Indian! whose untutored mind

Sees God in clouds, or hears him in the \_wind\_."

PROVINCIALISMS.

CONTRACTIONS, VULGARISMS, AND OTHER IMPROPRIETIES.

As each of the following provincialisms and vulgarisms, has its locality

in some one section or other of our country, it is hoped that these

corrections will be found useful in the districts to which the various

phrases respectively belong.

IMPROPER. CORRECT.

Aint Are not

haint have not

taint 'tis not

haint are not

maint may not

wont will not

wer'nt were not

waunt was not

woodent would not

mussent must not

izzent is not

wazzent was not

hezzent has not

doozzent does not

tizzent 'tis not

whool who will

don't

can't

i'll

'tis

COMMON IN NEW ENGLAND OR NEW YORK.

4

Akst askt

4 4

ben bin

4 2

hul hole

4 1

hum home

4 1

stun stone

66 4

dooz duz

2 4

glass glass

2 4

mass mass

2 4

brass brass

2 4

pass pass

3 2

flawnt flant

4 4

hiz'zn hiz

37 37 4

hou'zn houz'iz

1 4 1 4

an'shent ane'tshent

1 4 1 1

an'jel ane'jel

4 4 1 4

dan'jur dane'jur

4 4 1 4

stran'jur strane'jur

2 4 1 4

tscham'bur tshame'bur

1 4 1 1

na'tur na'tshure

4 4 4 4 1 4

nat'ur-el natsh'u-ral

3 4 3 1

for'tin for'tshune

3 1 1 3 1 1

for'tew-nate for'tshu-nate

4 1 4 1

vur'tew ver'tshu

4 1 4 4 1 4

vur'tew-us ver'tshu-us

1 1 4 4 1 4

ak'tew-el ak'tschu-al

4 1 1 4 1 1

ed'ew-kate ed'ju-kate

4 4 2 4

faTH'ur fa'THur

heft weight

stoop porch

stent task

helve handle

muss disorder

dump unload

scup swing

shay gig or chaise

cutter one-horse sleigh

staddle sapling

foxy reddish

suple spry or supple

IN PENNSYLVANIA.

Strenth strength

lenth length

brenth breadth

ort ought

nan what

wisht wish

wunst once

ouch oh

cheer chair

spook ghost

furnentz opposite

wanity vanity

in wain in vain

ornary ordinary

for by to spare

we bit small piece

disremember do not remember

IRISH.

66 1

Door dore

66 1

floor flore

5 4

ond and

5 55

loss looz

66 1

koorse korse

66 1

soorse sorse

4 66

till too

4 7

put put

4 7

fut fut

4 66 4 54

a-koont' ak-kount'

4 4 7 4

pul'pit pul'pit

1 4 3

pare'sun par'sn

IMPROPER. CORRECT.

MD. VA. KY. MISS. &c.

2 1

THar THare

2 1

whar hware

2 1

bar [bear] bare

2 4

war wer

37 1

mout mite [might]

1 1 4

gwine go'ing

4 4 4

shet or shut rid

1 5 1 1 4 4

tote or fotch kar're, fetsh, or bring

1 4

hop'd helpt

4 66 2 4 4

ca-hoot' part'nur-ship

3 66 5

mar'bl moov off

NOTE, \_Clever\_, \_pretty\_, \_ugly\_, \_curious\_, \_expect\_, \_guess\_, and

\_reckon\_, though correct English words, have, among the common

people of New England and New York, a provincial application and

meaning. With them, a \_clever\_ man, is one of a gentle and obliging

disposition; instead of, a man of distinguished talents and profound

acquirements. \_Pretty\_ and \_ugly\_, they apply to the \_disposition\_

of a person, instead of, to his \_external appearance\_. In these

states, one will often hear, "I \_guess\_ it rains," when the speaker

\_knows\_ this to be a fact, and, therefore, \_guessing\_ is uncalled

for. "I \_expect\_ I can go;" or, "I \_reckon\_ I can;" instead of, "I

\_suppose\_ or \_presume\_." In New England, a clergyman is often called

a \_minister\_, in New York, a \_priest\_, and south of N.Y. a \_parson\_.

The last is preferable.

NEW ENGLAND OR NEW YORK. CORRECTED.

I be goin. He lives to hum. I \_am\_ going. He lives \_at\_ home.

Hese ben to hum this two weeks. \_He has been at home these\_

2 weeks.

You haddent ought to do it. Yes You ought \_not\_ to do it.

had ought. \_Certainly\_ I ought.

Taint no better than hizzen. \_'Tis\_ no better than \_his\_.

Izzent that are line writ well? \_Is not\_ that line well \_written\_?

Tizzent no better than this ere. \_It is\_ no better, or it is

\_not any\_ better than his.

The keows be gone to hum, neow, The \_cows are\_ gone \_home\_, and

and I'mer goin arter um. \_I am going after them\_.

He'll be here, derights, and, bring He \_will\_ here, directly, and bring

yourn and thairn. yours and theirs.

He touched the stun which I shew He touched the \_stone\_ which I

him, an di guess it made him sithe, \_showed\_ him and it made him

for twas cissing hot. \_sigh\_, for \_it was hissing\_ hot.

Run, Thanel, and cut a staddle, for Go, Nathaniel, and cut a \_sapling\_,

to make a lever on. Ize jest agoneter to make a \_lever of\_. I \_was about\_

go, daddy. to go, or \_intending\_ to go

\_immediately\_, father.

Where shell I dump my cart, square? Where \_shall\_ I \_unload\_ my cart?

Dump it yender. Whats the heft of \_Yonder\_. \_What is\_ the \_weight\_

your load? of your load?

When ju git hum from Hafford? When \_did you return from

A fortnit ago. You diddent, did ye? Hartford\_? A \_fortnight\_ ago. \_It

Ju see my Danel, whose sot up a is possible! Did\_you see my \_son

tarvern there? No. Hede gone afore Daniel, who has opened a public

I got there. O, the pesky criter! house\_ there? No. \_He had left

Hele soon be up a stump. before\_ I \_arrived\_ there. O, the

\_paltry fellow! He will\_ soon \_come

to naught.\_

My frinds supurb mansion is \_My friend's\_ superb mansion is

delightfully sitewated on a nate-eral delightfully \_situated\_ on a

mound of considerable hithe. It hez \_natural\_ mound of considerable

a long stoop in front; but it is furder \_height\_. It \_has\_ a long \_porch\_

from the city than I'de like my hum. in front; but it is \_farther\_ from

the city than \_I would\_ like to

\_reside\_.

I know'd the gal was drownded, and I \_knew\_ the \_girl had been

I tell'd the inquisitdoners, that ize drowned\_, and I \_told\_ the \_jury

nither geestin nor jokin about it; but of inquest\_, that \_I was\_

if they'd permit me to give em my \_not jesting\_ about it; but, \_by

ideze, they'd obleege me. So I permitting\_ me to \_give them\_ my

parsevered, and carried my pinte. You \_view of the subject\_, they \_would

don't say so. Be you from Barkshire? oblige\_ me. So, I \_persevered\_,

I be. Neow I swan! if I aint clean and \_gained\_ my \_point. Indeed!

beat. Are\_ you from \_Berkshire\_? I \_am.

Really\_!I \_am surprised\_.

You baint from the Jarseys, be ye? \_Are\_ you from \_New Jersey\_? Yes,

Yes. Gosh! then I guess you kneow Then I \_presume\_ you \_know how\_

heow to tend tarvern. to tend \_a tavern\_.

IN PENNSYLVANIA. CORRECTED

I seen him. Have you saw him I \_saw\_ him. Have you \_seen\_ him?

Yes, I have saw him wunst; and that Yes, \_once\_; and that was before

was before you seed him. you \_saw\_ him.

I done my task. Have you did I \_have\_ done my task. Have you

yours? No, but I be to do it. \_done\_ yours? No, but I \_must\_.

I be to be there. He know'd me. I \_shall\_ be there; or, I \_must\_

be there. He \_knew\_ me.

Leave me be, for Ime afear'd. \_Let\_ me be, for I \_am afraid\_.

I never took notice to it. I never took notice \_of\_ it: or,

better thus, I never \_noticed\_ it.

I wish I haddent did it; howsumever, I wish I \_had not done\_ it:

I don't keer: they cant skeer me. \_however, I disregard them\_. They

\_cannot scare\_ me.

Give me them there books. Give me \_those\_ books.

He ort to go; so he ort. He \_ought\_ to go, \_really\_.

No he orten. He \_ought\_ not.

Dont scrouge me. Don't \_crowd\_ me.

I diddent go to do it. I \_did not intend\_ to do it.

Aint that a good hand write? \_Is not\_ that \_beautiful writing\_?

Nan? I know'd what he meant, but \_What\_? I \_knew\_ what he meant, but

I never let on. I \_kept that to myself\_.

It is a long mile to town. Ah! I It is a \_little over\_ a mile to

thought 'twas unle a short mile. town. Ah! I \_supposed it to be less

than\_ a mile.

IRISH. CORRECTED.

Not here the day; he went till \_He is\_ not here to-day. He went

Pittsburg. \_to\_ Pittsburg.

Let us be after pairsing a wee bit. Let us \_parse\_ a \_little\_.

Where did you loss it? Where did you \_lose\_ it?

MD. VA. KY. OR MISS. CORRECTED.

Carry the horse to water. \_Lead\_ the horse to water; or,

water the horse.

Tote the wood to the river. \_Carry\_ the wood to the river.

Have you focht the water? Have you \_fetched\_, or \_brought\_,

the water?

I've made 200 bushels of corn this I \_have raised\_ 200 bushels of corn

year. this year.

He has run against a snag. He has \_got into difficulty\_.

Is that your plunder, stranger? Is that your \_baggage, sir\_?

He will soon come of that habit. He will soon \_overcome\_, or \_get

rid of\_, that habit.

I war thar, and I seen his boat was I \_was there\_, and I \_saw that\_ his

loadend too heavy. boat was too \_heavily laden\_, or

\_loaded\_.

Whar you gwine. \_Where are\_ you \_going\_?

Hese in cohoot with me. \_He is\_ in \_partnership\_ with me.

Did you get shet of your tobacca? Did you \_get rid\_, or \_dispose\_

of, your \_tobacco\_?

Who hoped you to sell it? Who \_helped\_ you to sell it?

PROSODY.

PROSODY treats of the modulations of the voice according to the usages

of the language we speak, and the sentiments we wish to express: hence,

in its most extensive sense, it comprises all the laws of elocution.

Prosody is commonly divided into two parts: the first teaches the true

pronunciation of words, comprising \_accent\_, \_quantity\_, \_emphasis\_,

\_pause\_, and \_tone\_; and the second, the laws of \_versification\_.

\_Accent\_. Accent is the laying of a peculiar stress of the voice on a

particular letter or syllable in a word, that it may be better heard

than the rest, or distinguished from them; as, in the word \_presúme\_,

the stress of the voice must be on the letter \_u\_ and the second

syllable, \_sume\_, which syllable takes the accent.

Every word of more syllables than one, has one accented syllable. For

the sake of euphony or distinctness in a long word, we frequently give a

secondary accent to another syllable besides the one which takes the

principal accent; as, \_'tes ti mo' ni'al\_, \_a ban'don 'ing.\_

\_Quantity\_. The quantity of a syllable is that time which is occupied

in pronouncing it. It is considered as long or short.

A vowel or syllable is long, when the accent is on the vowel; which

causes it to be slowly joined in pronunciation with the following

letters; as, "Fāll, bāle, mōōd, hōūse, fēature."

A syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant; which causes

the vowel to be quickly joined to the succeeding letter; "as, ănt,

bŏnnĕt, hŭngĕr."

A long syllable generally requires double the time of a short one in

pronouncing it; thus, "māte" and "nōte" should be pronounced as

slowly again as "măt" and "nŏt."

\_Emphasis\_. By emphasis is meant a stronger and fuller sound of the

voice, by which we distinguish some word or words on which we design to

lay particular stress, and to show how they affect the rest of the

sentence. Sometimes the emphatic words must be distinguished by a

particular tone of voice, as well as by a greater stress.

Emphasis will be more fully explained under the head of Elocution.

\_Pauses\_. Pauses or rests, in speaking and reading, are a total

cessation of the voice during a perceptible, and, in many cases, a

measurable space of time.

\_Tones\_. Tones are different both from emphasis and pauses; consisting

in the modulation of the voice, or the notes or variations of sound

which we employ in the expression of our sentiments.

Emphasis affects particular words and phrases; but tones affect

sentences, paragraphs, and sometimes a whole discourse.

PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing written composition into sentences or

parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to mark the different

pauses which the sense and an accurate pronunciation require.

The \_Comma\_ represents the shortest pause; the \_Semicolon\_, a pause

double that of the comma; the \_Colon\_, double that of the semicolon; and

the \_Period\_, double that of the colon.

Punctuation is a modern art. The ancients were entirely unacquainted

with the use of points; and wrote, not only without any distinction of

members and periods, but also without any distinction of words. This

custom continued till the year 360 before Christ. How the ancients read

their works, written in this manner, it is not easy to conceive. After

the practice of joining words together had ceased, notes of distinction

were placed at the end of every word. This practice continued a

considerable time.

As it appears that the present usage of points did not take place while

manuscripts and monumental inscriptions were the only known methods of

conveying knowledge, we must conclude, that it was introduced with the

art of printing. The introduction was, however, gradual: all the points

did not appear at once. The colon, semicolon, and note of admiration,

were produced some time after the others. The whole set, as they are now

used, became established, when learning and refinement had made

considerable progress.

As the rules of punctuation are founded altogether on the grammatical

construction of sentences, their application pre-supposes, on the part

of the student, a knowledge of Syntax. Although they admit of

exceptions, and require a continual exercise of judgment and literary

taste in applying them properly, they are of great utility, and justly

merit our particular attention.

The great importance of acquiring a thorough knowledge of punctuation,

and of attending strictly to the application of its rules, is

established by the single fact, that \_the meaning of a sentence is often

totally perverted by the omission or misapplication of points\_. To

illustrate the correctness of this remark, numerous example might be

selected. The following border on the ridiculous: "Mr. Jared Hurton

having gone to sea his wife, desires the prayers of this church:"

"Tryon, who escaped from the jail on Friday last, is 22 years of age,

has sandy hair, light eyes, thin visage, with a short nose turned up

about six feet high, &c." Corrected; "Mr. Jared Hurton having gone to

sea, his wife desires the prayers of this church;" "thin visage, with a

short nose turned up, about six feet high, &c."

Before one enters upon the study of punctuation, it is necessary for him

to understand what is meant by an \_adjunct\_, \_a simple sentence\_, and a

\_compound sentence\_.

An \_adjunct\_ or \_imperfect phrase\_ contains no assertion, or does not

amount to a proposition or sentence; as, "Therefore;" "studious of

praise;" "in the pursuit of commerce."--For the definition of a

sentence, and a compound sentence, turn to page 119.

When two or more adjuncts are connected with the verb in the same

manner, and by the same preposition or conjunction, the sentence is

compound, and may be resolved into as many simple ones as there are

adjuncts; as, "They have sacrificed their \_health\_ and \_fortune\_, at the

\_shrine\_ of vanity, \_pride\_, and \_extravagance\_." But when the adjuncts

are connected with the verb in a different manner, the sentence is

simple; as, "Grass of an excellent \_quality\_, is produced in great

\_abundance\_ in the northern regions of our country."

COMMA.

RULE 1. The members of a simple sentence should not, in general, be

separated by a comma; as, "Every part of matter swarms with living

creatures."

\_Exercises in Punctuation\_.--Idleness is the great fomenter of all

corruptions in the human heart. The friend of order has made half his

way to virtue. All finery is a sign of littleness.

RULE 2. When a simple sentence is long, and the nominative is

accompanied with an inseparable adjunct of importance, it may admit a

comma immediately before the verb; as, "The good taste \_of the present

age\_, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English

language;" "Too many \_of the pretended friendships of youth\_, are mere

combinations in pleasure."

\_Exercises\_.--The indulgence of a harsh disposition is the introduction

to future misery. To be totally indifferent to praise or censure is a

real defect in character. The intermixture of evil in human society

serves to exercise the suffering graces and virtues of the good.

RULE 3. When the connexion of the different parts of a simple sentence,

is interrupted by an adjunct of importance, the adjunct must be

distinguished by a comma before and after it; as, "His work is, \_in many

respects,\_ very imperfect. It is, \_therefore,\_ not much approved." But

when these interruptions are slight and unimportant, it is better to

omit the comma; as, "Flattery is \_certainly\_ pernicious;" "There is

\_surely\_ a pleasure in beneficence."

\_Exercises\_.--Charity like the sun brightens all its objects. Gentleness

is in truth the great avenue to mutual enjoyment. You too have your

failings. Humility and knowledge with poor apparel excel pride and

ignorance under costly attire. The best men often experience

disappointments. Advice should be seasonably administered. No assumed

behavior can always hide the real character.

RULE 4. The nominative case independent, and nouns in apposition when

accompanied with adjuncts, must be distinguished by commas; as, "My

\_son\_, give me thy heart;" "Dear \_Sir\_, I write to express my gratitude

for your many kindnesses;" "I am obliged to you, my \_friends\_, for your

many favors;" "\_Paul\_, the \_apostle\_, of the Gentiles, was eminent for

his zeal and knowledge;" "The \_butterfly\_, \_child\_ of the summer,

flutters in the sun."

But if \_two\_ nouns in apposition are unattended with adjuncts, or if

they form only a proper name, they should not be separated; as, \_"Paul\_

the \_apostle\_, suffered martyrdom;" "The \_statesman Jefferson\_, wrote

the declaration of Independence."

\_Exercises\_.--Lord thou hast been our dwelling place in all

generations. Continue my dear child to make virtue thy chief study.

Canst thou expect thou betrayer of innocence to escape the hand of

vengeance? Death the king of terrors chose a prime minister. Hope the

balm of life sooths us under every misfortune. Confucius the great

Chinese philosopher was eminently good as well as wise. The patriarch

Joseph is an illustrious example of true piety.

RULE 5. The nominative case absolute and the infinitive mood absolute

with their adjuncts, a participle with words depending on it, and,

generally, any imperfect phrase which may be resolved into a simple

sentence, must be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as,

"\_His father dying\_, he succeeded to the estate;" "\_To confess the

truth\_, I was in fault;" "The king, \_approving the plan\_, put it in

execution;" "He, \_having finished his academical course\_, has returned

home, \_to prosecute his professional studies\_."

\_Exercises\_.--Peace of mind being secured we may smile at misfortune. To

enjoy present pleasure he sacrificed his future ease and reputation. His

talents formed for great enterprises could not fail of rendering him

conspicuous. The path of piety and virtue pursued with a firm and

constant spirit will assuredly lead to happiness. All mankind compose

one family assembled under the eye of one common Father.

RULE 6. A compound sentence must be resolved into simple ones by placing

commas between its members; as, "The decay, the waste, and the

dissolution of a plant, may affect our spirits, and suggest a train of

serious reflections."

Three or more nouns, verbs, adjectives, participles, or adverbs,

connected by conjunctions, expressed or understood, must be separated by

commas; as, "The husband, wife,[11] and children,[12] suffered extremely;"

"In a letter, we may advise, exhort, comfort, request, and discuss;"

"David was a brave, wise, and pious man;" "A man, fearing, serving, and

loving his Creator, lives for a noble purpose;" "Success generally

depends on acting prudently, steadily, and vigorously, in what we

undertake."

[11] The correctness and importance of this rule appear to be so

obvious, as to render it not a little surprising, that any \_writer\_,

possessing the least degree of rhetorical taste, should reject it. I

am bold to affirm, that it is observed by every correct reader and

speaker; and yet, strange as it may seem, it is generally violated

by those printers who punctuate by the ear, and all others who are

influenced by their pernicious example; thus, "The head, the heart

and the hands, should be constantly and actively employed in doing

good." Why do they not omit the comma where the conjunction is

understood? It would be doing no greater violence to the principles

of elocution; thus, "The head the heart and the hands, should be,

&c." or thus, "The head the heart, and the hands, should be

employed," &c. Who does not perceive that the latter pause, where

the conjunction is expressed, is as necessary as the former, where

the conjunction is understood? And, since this is the case, what

fair objection can be made to the following method of punctuation?

"The head, the heart, and the hands, should be constantly and

actively employed in doing good;" "She is a woman, gentle, sensible,

well-educated, and religious."

[12] As a considerable pause in pronunciation is necessary between

the last noun and the verb, a comma should be inserted to denote it;

but as no pause is allowable between the last adjective and the

noun, or between the last adverb and the verb, the comma, in such

instances, is properly omitted; thus, "David was a brave, wise, and

\_pious\_ man."

Two or more nouns, verbs, adjectives, participles, or adverbs, occurring

in the same construction, with their conjunctions understood, must be

separated by commas; as, "Reason, virtue, answer one great aim;" "Virtue

supports in adversity, moderates in prosperity;" "Plain, honest truth,

needs no artificial covering;" "We are fearfully, wonderfully framed."

\_Exercises.\_--We have no reason to complain of the lot of man nor of the

mutability of the world. Sensuality contaminates the body depresses the

understanding deadens the moral feelings of the heart and degrades man

from his rank in creation.

Self-conceit presumption and obstinacy blast the prospects of many a

youth. He is alternately supported by his father his uncle and his elder

brother. The man of virtue and honor will be trusted relied upon and

esteemed. Conscious guilt renders one mean-spirited timorous and base.

An upright mind will never be at a loss to discern what is just and true

lovely honest and of good report. Habits of reading writing and thinking

are the indispensable qualifications of a good student. The great

business of life is to be employed in doing justly loving mercy and

talking humbly with our Creator. To live soberly righteously and piously

comprehends the whole of our duty.

In our health life possessions connexions pleasures there are causes of

decay imperceptibly working. Deliberate slowly execute promptly. An idle

trifling society is near akin to such as is corrupting. This unhappy

person had been seriously affectionately admonished but in vain.

RULE 7. Comparative sentences whose members are short, and sentences

connected with relative pronouns the meaning of whose antecedents is

restricted or limited to a particular sense, should not be separated by

a comma; as, "Wisdom is better than riches;" "No preacher is so

successful as thee;" "He accepted \_what\_ I had rejected;" "Self-denial

is the \_sacrifice which\_ virtue must make;" "Subtract from many modern

poets \_all that\_ may be found in Shakspeare, and trash will remain;"

"Give it to the \_man whom\_ you most esteem." In this last example, the

assertion is not of "man in general," but of "the man whom you most

esteem."

But when the antecedent is used in a general sense, a comma is properly

inserted before the relative; as, "\_Man\_, \_who\_ is born of a woman, is of

few days and full of trouble;" "There is no \_charm\_ in the female sex,

\_which\_ can supply the place of virtue."

This rule is equally applicable to constructions in which the relative

is understood; as, "Value duly the privileges you enjoy;" that is,

"privileges \_which\_ you enjoy."

\_Exercises.\_--How much better it is to get wisdom than gold! The

friendships of the world can exist no longer than interest cements them.

Eat what is set before you. They who excite envy will easily incur

censure. A man who is of a detracting spirit will misconstrue the most

innocent words that can be put together. Many of the evils which

occasion our complaints of the world are wholly imaginary.

The gentle mind is like the smooth stream which reflects every object in

its just proportion and in its fairest colors. In that unaffected

civility which springs from a gentle mind there is an incomparable

charm. The Lord whom I serve is eternal. This is the man we saw

yesterday.

RULE 8. When two words of the same sort, are connected by a conjunction

expressed, they must not be separated; as, "Libertines call religion,

bigotry \_or\_ superstition;" "True worth is modest \_and\_ retired;" "The

study of natural history, expands \_and\_ elevates the mind;" "Some men

sin deliberately and presumptuously." When words are connected in pairs,

the pairs only should be separated; as, "There is a natural difference

between merit \_and\_ demerit, virtue \_and\_ vice, wisdom \_and\_ folly;"

"Whether we eat \_or\_ drink, labor \_or\_ sleep, we should be temperate."

But if the parts connected by a conjunction are not short, they may be

separated by a comma; as, "Romances may be said to be miserable

rhapsodies, \_or\_ dangerous incentives to evil."

\_Exercises\_.--Idleness brings forward and nourishes many bad passions.

True friendship will at all times avoid a rough or careless behavior.

Health and peace a moderate fortune and a few friends sum up all the

undoubted articles of temporal felicity. Truth is fair and artless

simple and sincere uniform and consistent. Intemperance destroys the

strength of our bodies and the vigor of our minds.

RULE 9. Where the verb of a simple member is understood, a comma may, in

some instances, be inserted; as, "From law arises security; from

security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge." But in others, it is

better to omit the comma; "No station is so high, no power so great, no

character so unblemished, as to exempt men from the attacks of

rashness, malice, and envy."

\_Exercises\_.--As a companion he was severe and satirical; as a friend

captious and dangerous. If the spring put forth no blossoms in summer

there will be no beauty and in autumn no fruit. So if youth be trifled

away without improvement manhood will be contemptible and old age

miserable.

RULE 10. When a simple member stands as the object of a preceding verb,

and its verb may be changed into the infinitive mood, the comma is

generally omitted; as, "I suppose \_he is at rest\_;" changed, "I suppose

\_him to be at rest\_."

But when the verb \_to be\_ is followed by a verb in the infinitive mood,

which, by transposition, may be made the nominative case to it, the verb

\_to be\_ is generally separated from the infinitive by a comma; as, "The

most obvious remedy is, \_to withdraw from all associations with bad

men\_;" "The first and most obvious remedy against the infection, is, to

withdraw from all associations with bad men."

\_Exercises.\_--They believed he was dead. He did not know that I was the

man. I knew she was still alive. The greatest misery is to be condemned

by our own hearts. The greatest misery that we can endure is to be

condemned by our own hearts.

NOTES.

1. When a conjunction is separated by a phrase or member from the

member to which it belongs, such intervening phrase appears to

require a comma at each extremity; as, "They set out early, \_and\_,

before the close of the day, arrived at the destined place." This

rule, however, is not generally followed by our best writers; as,

"If thou seek the Lord, he will be found of thee; \_but\_ if thou

forsake him, he will cast thee off for ever;" "\_But\_ if the parts

connected are not short, a comma may be inserted."

2. Several verbs succeeding each other in the infinitive mood, and

having a common dependance, may be divided by commas; as, "To

relieve the indigent, to comfort the afflicted, to protect the

innocent, to reward the deserving, are humane and noble

employments."

3. A remarkable expression, or a short observation, somewhat in the

form of a quotation, may be properly marked with a comma; as, "It

hurts a man's pride to say, \_I do not know\_;" "Plutarch calls lying,

\_the vice of slaves\_."

4. When words are placed in opposition to each other, or with some

marked variety, they must be distinguished by a comma; as,

"Tho' \_deep\_, yet \_clear\_; tho' \_gentle\_, yet not \_dull\_;

\_Strong\_, without \_rage\_; without \_o'erflowing\_, \_full\_."

"Good men, in this frail, imperfect state, are often found, not only

in union \_with\_, but in opposition \_to\_, the views and conduct of

each other."

Sometimes when the word with which the last preposition agrees, is

single, the comma may be omitted; as, "Many states were in alliance

\_with\_, and under the protection \_of\_ Rome."

The same rule and restrictions apply, when two or more nouns refer

to the same preposition; as, "He was composed both under the

\_threatening\_, and at the \_approach\_, \_of\_ a cruel and lingering

death;" "He was not only the \_king\_, but \_the father of\_ his

people."

5. The words, "as, thus, nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly,

formerly, now, lastly, once more, above all, on the contrary, in the

next place, in short," and all other words and phrases of a similar

kind, must generally be separated from the context by a comma; \_as\_,

"Remember thy best friend; \_formerly\_, the supporter of thy infancy;

\_now\_, the guardian of thy youth;" "He feared want; \_hence\_, he

overvalued riches;" "\_So\_, if youth be trifled away," &c. "\_Again\_,

we must, have food and clothing;" "\_Finally\_, let us conclude."

The foregoing rules and examples are sufficient, it is presumed, to

suggest to the learner, in all ordinary instances, the proper place for

inserting the comma; but in applying these rules, great regard must be

paid to the length and meaning of the clauses, and the proportion which

they bear to one another.

SEMICOLON.

The semicolon is used for dividing a compound sentence into two or more

parts, not so closely connected as those which are separated by a comma,

nor yet so little dependant on each other, as those which are

distinguished by a colon.

RULE 1. When the preceding member of the sentence does not of itself

give complete sense, but depends on the following clause, and sometimes

when the sense of that member would be complete without the concluding

one, the semicolon is used; as in the following examples: "As the desire

of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable

part of our species; so, nothing is more destructive to them, when it is

governed by vanity and folly;" "The wise man is happy, when he gains his

own approbation; the fool, when he gains the applause of those around

him;" "Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom."

\_Exercises\_.--The path of truth is a plain and safe path that of

falsehood a perplexing maze. Heaven is the region of gentleness and

friendship hell of fierceness and animosity. As there is a worldly

happiness which God perceives to be no other than disguised misery as

there are worldly honors which in his estimation are reproach so there

is a worldly wisdom which in his sight is foolishness.

But all subsists by elemental strife

And passions are the elements of life.

RULE 2. When an example is introduced to illustrate a rule or

proposition, the semicolon may be used before the conjunction \_as;\_ as

in the following instance: Prepositions govern the objective case; as,

"She gave the book \_to\_ him."

NOTE. In instances like the foregoing, many respectable punctuists

employ the colon, instead of the semicolon.

COLON.

The Colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts

less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon;

but not so independent as separate, distinct sentences.

RULE 1. When a member of a sentence is complete in itself, but followed

by some supplemental remark, or farther illustration of the subject, the

colon may be properly employed; as, "Nature felt her inability to

extricate herself from the consequences of guilt: the gospel revealed

the plan of divine interposition and aid." "Great works are performed,

not by strength, but by perseverance: yonder palace was raised by single

stones; yet you see its height and spaciousness."

\_Exercises.\_--The three great enemies to tranquillity are vice

superstition and idleness vice which poisons and disturbs the mind with

bad passions superstition which fills it with imaginary terrors idleness

which loads it with tediousness and disgust.

When we look forward into the year which is beginning what do we behold

there? All my brethren is a blank to our view a dark unknown presents

itself.

RULE 2. When a semicolon has preceded, or more than one, and a still

greater pause is necessary, in order to mark the connecting or

concluding sentiment, the colon should be applied; as, "A divine

legislator, uttering his voice from heaven; an almighty governor,

stretching forth his arm to punish or reward; informing us of perpetual

rest prepared for the righteous hereafter, and of indignation and wrath

awaiting the wicked: these are the considerations which overawe the

world, which support integrity, and check guilt."

PERIOD.

When a sentence is complete, and so independent as not to be connected

with the one which follows it, a period should be inserted at its close;

as, "Fear God." "Honor the patriot." "Respect virtue."

In the use of many of the pauses, there is a diversity of practice among

our best writers and grammarians. Compound sentences connected by

conjunctions, are sometimes divided by the period; as, "Recreations,

though they may be of an innocent kind, require steady government to

keep them within a due and limited province. \_But\_ such as are of an

irregular and vicious nature, are not to be governed, but to be banished

from every well-regulated mind."

The period should follow every abbreviated word; as, "A.D. N.B. U.S. Va.

Md. Viz. Col. Mr."

DASH.

The Dash, though often used improperly by hasty and incoherent writers,

may be introduced with propriety, where the sentence breaks off

abruptly; where a significant pause is required; or where there is an

unexpected turn in the sentiment; as, "If thou art he, so much respected

once--but, oh! how fallen! how degraded!" "If acting conformably to the

will of our Creator;--if promoting the welfare of mankind around us;--if

securing our own happiness;--are objects of the highest moment: then we

are loudly called upon to cultivate and extend the great interests of

religion and virtue."

A dash following a stop, denotes that the pause is to be greater than if

the stop were alone; and when used by itself, requires a pause of such

length as the sense only can determine.

"Here lies the great--False marble, where?

"Nothing but sordid dust lies here."

INTERROGATORY POINT.

The note of interrogation is used at the end of an interrogative

sentence; as, "Who adorned the heavens with such exquisite beauty?"

NOTE. The interrogative point should not be employed in cases where

it is only said, that a question has been asked; as, "The Cyprians

asked me, why I wept."

EXCLAMATORY POINT.

The note of exclamation is applied to expressions of sudden emotion,

surprise, joy, grief, &c. and sometimes to invocations and addresses;

as, "How much vanity in the pursuits of men!" "What is more amiable than

virtue!" "My friend! this conduct amazes me!" "Hear me, O Lord! for thy

loving kindness is great!"

PARENTHESIS.

A parenthesis is a clause containing some useful remark, which may be

omitted without injuring the grammatical construction; as, "To gain a

posthumous reputation, is to save a few letters (for what is a name

besides?) from oblivion."

"Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)

"Virtue alone is happiness below."

NOTE. The parenthesis generally denotes a moderate depression of the

voice; and, as the parenthetical marks do not supply the place of a

point, the clause should be accompanied with every stop which the

sense would require, if the parenthetical characters were not used.

It ought to terminate with the same kind of point which the member

has that precedes it; as "He loves nobly, (I speak of friendship,)

who is not jealous when, he has partners of love."

"Or why so long (in life if long can be)

"Lent Heav'n a parent to the poor and me?"

Parentheses, however, containing interrogations or exclamations, form an

exception to this rule; as, "If I grant his request, (and who could

refuse it?) I shall secure his esteem and attachment."

APOSTROPHE AND QUOTATION.

The Apostrophe is used to abbreviate a word, and also to mark the

possessive case of a noun; as, "\_'tis\_, for \_it is\_; \_tho,'\_ for

\_though\_; \_o'er\_, for \_over\_;" "A \_man's\_ poverty."

A Quotation marks a sentence taken in the author's own language; as,

"The proper study of mankind is man."

When an author represents a person as speaking, the language of that

person should be designated by a quotation; as, At my coming in, he

said, "You and the physician are come too late." A quotation contained

within another, should be distinguished by two \_single\_ commas; as,

"Always remember this ancient maxim 'Know thyself.'"

DIRECTIONS FOR USING CAPITAL LETTERS.

It is proper to begin with a capital,

1. The first word of every sentence.

2. Proper names, the appellations of the Deity, &c.; as, "James,

Cincinnati, the Andes, Huron;" "God, Jehovah, the Almighty the Supreme

Being, Providence, the Holy Spirit."

3. Adjectives derived from proper names, the titles of books, nouns

which are used as the subject of discourse, the pronoun \_I\_ and the

interjection \_O\_, and every line in poetry; as, "American, Grecian,

English, French; Irving's Sketch Book, Percival's Poems; I write; Hear,

O earth!"

APPENDIX.

VERSIFICATION.

POETRY is the language of passion, or of enlivened imagination.

VERSIFICATION, in English, is the harmonious arrangement of a particular

number and variety of accented and unaccented syllables, according to

particular laws.

RHYME is the correspondence of the sound of the last syllable in one

line, to the sound of the last syllable in another; as,

"O'er the glad waters of the dark-blue \_sea\_,

"Our thoughts as boundless and our souls as \_free\_."

BLANK VERSE consists in poetical thoughts expressed in regular numbers,

but without the correspondence of sound at the end of the lines which

constitutes rhyme.

POETICAL FEET consist in a particular arrangement and connexion of a

number of accented and unaccented syllables.

They are called \_feet\_, because it is by their aid that the voice, as it

were, \_steps\_ along through the verse in a measured pace.

All poetical feet consist either of two, or of three syllables; and are

reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three, as

follows:

DISSYLLABLE. TRISYLLABLE.

A Trochee - u A Dactyle - u u

An Iambus u - An Amphibrach u - u

A Spondee - - An Anapaest u u -

A Pyrrhic u u A Tribrach u u u

A Trochee has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented; as,

Hātefŭl, péttish:

Rēstlĕss mōrtăls tōil fŏr nāught.

An Iambus has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented; as,

Bĕtrāy, consíst:

Thĕ sēas shăll wāste, thĕ skīes ĭn smōke dĕcāy.

A Dactyle has the first syllable accented, and the two latter

unaccented; as, Lābŏrĕr, póssible:

Frōm thĕ lŏw plēasŭres ŏf thīs făllĕn nātŭre.

An Anapaest has the first two syllables unaccented, and the last

accented; as, Cŏntrăvēne, acquiésce:

ăt thĕ clōse ŏf thĕ dāy whĕn thĕ hāmlĕt ĭs stīll.

A Spondee; as, The pāle mōōn: a Pyrrhic; as, ŏn thĕ tall

tree: an Amphibrach; as, Dēlightfūl: a Tribrach; as,

Numērăblĕ.

RHETORIC.

GRAMMAR instructs us how to express our thoughts correctly.

RHETORIC teaches us to express them with force and elegance.

The former is generally confined to the correct application of words in

constructing single sentences. The latter treats of the proper choice of

words, of the happiest method of constructing sentences, of their most

advantageous arrangement in forming a discourse, and of the various

kinds and qualities of composition. The principles of rhetoric are

principally based on those unfolded and illustrated in the science of

grammar. Hence, an acquaintance with the latter, and, indeed, with the

liberal arts, is a prerequisite to the study of rhetoric and

belles-lettres.

COMPOSITION.

It may be laid down as a maxim of eternal truth, that \_good sense\_ is

the foundation of all good writing. One who understands a subject well,

will scarcely write ill upon it.

Rhetoric, or the art of persuasion, requires in a writer, the union of

good sense, and a lively and chaste imagination. It is, then, her

province to teach him to embellish his thoughts with elegant and

appropriate language, vivid imagery, and an agreeable variety of

expression. It ought to be his aim,

"To mark the point where sense and dulness meet."

STYLE.--PERSPICUITY AND PRECISION.

STYLE is the peculiar manner in which we express our conceptions by

means of language. It is a picture of the ideas which rise in our minds,

and of the order in which they are produced.

The qualities of a good style, may be ranked under two heads.

\_perspicuity\_ and \_ornament\_.

PERSPICUITY, which is considered the fundamental quality of a good

style, claims attention, first, to single words and phrases; and,

secondly, to the construction of sentences. When considered with respect

to words and phrases, it requires these three qualities, \_purity\_,

\_propriety,\_ and \_precision.\_

\_Purity\_ of language consists in the use of such words and such

constructions as belong to the language which we speak, in opposition to

words and phrases belonging to other languages, or which are obsolete or

new-coined, or employed without proper authority.

\_Propriety\_ is the choice of those words which the best usage has

appropriated to the ideas which we intend to express by them. It implies

their correct and judicious application, in opposition to low

expressions, and to words and phrases which would be less significant of

the ideas which we wish to convey. It is the union of purity and

propriety, which renders style graceful and perspicuous.

\_Precision\_, from \_præcidere\_, to cut off, signifies retrenching all

superfluities, and pruning the expression in such a manner as to exhibit

neither more nor less than an exact copy of the ideas intended to be

conveyed.

STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

A proper construction of sentences is of so great importance in every

species of composition, that we cannot be too strict or minute in our

attention to it.

Elegance of style requires us generally to \_avoid\_, many short or long

sentences in succession; a monotonous correspondence of one member to

another; and the commencing of a piece, section, or paragraph, with a

long sentence.

The qualities most essential to a perfect sentence, are \_Unity\_,

\_Clearness\_, \_Strength\_, and \_Harmony\_.

UNITY is an indispensable property of a correct sentence. A sentence

implies an arrangement of words in which only \_one\_ proposition is

expressed. It may, indeed, consist of parts; but these parts ought to be

so closely bound together, as to make on the mind the impression, not of

many objects, but of only one. In order to preserve this unity, the

following rules may be useful.

1. \_In the course of the sentence, the scene should be changed as little

as possible.\_ In every sentence there is some leading or governing word,

which, if possible, ought to be continued so from the beginning to the

end of it. The following sentence is not constructed according to this

rule: "After we came to anchor, they put me on shore, where I was

saluted by all my friends, who received me with the greatest kindness."

In this sentence, though the objects are sufficiently connected, yet, by

shifting so frequently the place and the person, the \_vessel\_, the

\_shore\_, \_we\_, \_they\_, \_I\_ and \_who\_, they appear in so disunited a

view, that the mind is led to wander for the sense. The sentence is

restored to its proper unity by constructing it thus: "Having come to

anchor, I was put on shore, where I was saluted by all my friends, who

received me with the greatest kindness."

2. \_Never crowd into one sentence things which have so little connexion,

that they would bear to be divided into two or more sentences.\_ The

violation of this rule produces so unfavorable an effect, that it is

safer to err rather by too many short sentences, than by one that is

overloaded and confused.

3. \_Avoid all unnecessary parentheses\_.

CLEARNESS. \_Ambiguity\_, which is opposed to clearness, may arise from a

bad choice, or a bad arrangement of words.

A leading rule in the arrangement of sentences, is, that \_those words or

members most nearly related, should be placed in the sentence as near to

each other as possible, so as thereby to make their mutual relation

clearly appear.\_ This rule ought to be observed,

1. \_In the position of adverbs.\_ "By greatness," says Mr. Addison, "I do

not only mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of a

whole view." The improper situation of the adverb \_only\_, in this

sentence, renders it a limitation of the verb \_mean\_, whereas the author

intended to have it qualify the phrase, \_a single object;\_ thus, "By

greatness, I do not mean the bulk of any single object \_only\_, but the

largeness of a whole view."

2. \_In the position of phrases and members.\_ "Are these designs which

any man who is born a Briton, in any circumstances, in any situation,

ought to be ashamed or afraid to avow?" Corrected: "Are these designs

which any man who is born a Briton, ought to be ashamed or afraid, \_in

any circumstances\_, \_in any situation\_, to avow?"

3. \_In the position of pronouns.\_ The reference of a pronoun to its

noun, should always be \_so clear that we cannot possibly mistake it:\_

otherwise the noun ought to be repeated. "It is folly to pretend to arm

ourselves against the accidents of life, by heaping up treasures, which

nothing can protect us against but the good providence of our Heavenly

Father." \_Which\_, in this sentence, grammatically refers to \_treasures;\_

and this would convert the whole period into nonsense. The sentence

should have been thus constructed, "It is folly to pretend, by heaping

up treasures, to arm ourselves against the \_accidents\_ of life, against

\_which\_ nothing can protect us but the good providence of our Heavenly

Father."

STRENGTH. By the \_strength\_ of a sentence is meant such an arrangement

of its several words and members, as exhibits the sense to the best

advantage, and gives every word and member its due weight and force.

1. The first rule for promoting the strength of a sentence, is, to \_take

from it all redundant words and members.\_ Whatever can be easily

supplied in the mind, should generally be omitted; thus, "Content with

deserving a triumph, he refused the honor of it," is better than to say,

"\_Being\_ content with deserving a triumph." &c. "They returned back

again to the same city from whence they came forth." If we expunge from

this snort sentence \_five\_ which are were expletives, it will be much

more neat and forcible thus, "They returned to the city whence they

came." But we should be cautious of pruning so closely as to give a

hardness and dryness to the style. Some leaves must be left to shelter

and adorn the fruit.

2. \_Particular attention to the use of copulatives, relatives, and all

the particles employed for transition and connexion, is required\_. In

compositions of an elevated character, the \_relative\_ should generally

be inserted. An injudicious repetition of \_and\_ enfeebles style; but

when enumerating objects which we wish to have appear as distinct from

each other as possible, it may be repeated with peculiar advantage;

thus, "Such a man may fall a victim to power; but truth, \_and\_ reason,

\_and\_ liberty, would fall with him."

3. \_Dispose of the capital word or words in that part of the sentence in

which they will make the most striking impression\_.

4. \_Cause the members of a sentence to go on rising in their importance

one above another\_. In a sentence of two members, the longer should

generally be the concluding one.

5. \_Avoid concluding a sentence with an adverb, a preposition, or any

inconsiderable word, unless it be emphatical\_.

6. \_Where two things are compared or contrasted with each other, a

resemblance in the language and construction should be observed\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

Figures of Speech may be described as that language which is prompted

either by the imagination, or by the passions. They generally imply some

departure from simplicity of expression; and exhibit ideas in a manner

more vivid and impressive, than could be done by plain language. Figures

have been commonly divided into two great classes; Figures of \_Words\_,

and Figures of \_Thought\_.

Figures of Words are called \_Tropes\_, and consist in a word's being

employed to signify something that is different from its original

meaning; so that by altering the word, we destroy the figure.

When we say of a person, that he has a fine \_taste\_ in wines, the word

taste is used in its common, literal sense; but when we say, he has a

fine \_taste\_ for painting, poetry, or music, we use the word

figuratively. "A good man enjoys comfort in the midst of adversity," is

simple language; but when it is said, "To the upright there ariseth

\_light\_ in \_darkness\_," the same sentiment is expressed in a figurative

style, \_light\_ is put in the place of \_comfort\_, and \_darkness\_ is used

to suggest the idea of \_adversity\_.

The following are the most important figures:

1. A METAPHOR is founded on the resemblance which one object bears to

another; or, it is a comparison in an abridged form.

When I say of some great minister, "That he upholds the state like a

\_pillar\_ which supports the weight of a whole edifice," I fairly make a

comparison; but when I say of such a minister, "That he is the \_pillar\_

of the state," the word pillar becomes a metaphor. In the latter

construction, the comparison between the minister and a pillar, is made

in the mind; but it is expressed without any of the words that denote

comparison.

Metaphors abound in all writings. In the scriptures they may be found in

vast variety. Thus, our blessed Lord is called a vine, a lamb, a lion,

&c.; and men, according to their different dispositions, are styled

wolves, sheep, dogs, serpents, vipers, &c.

Washington Irving, in speaking of the degraded state of the American

Aborigines who linger on the borders of the "white settlements," employs

the following beautiful metaphor: "The proud \_pillar\_ of their

independence has been shaken down, and the whole moral \_fabric\_ lies in

ruins."

2. AN ALLEGORY may be regarded as a metaphor continued; or it is several

metaphors so connected together in sense, as frequently to form a kind

of parable or fable. It differs from a single metaphor, in the same

manner that a cluster on the vine differs from a single grape.

The following is a fine example of an allegory, taken from the 60th

psalm; wherein the people of Israel are represented under the image of a

vine. "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt: thou hast cast out the

heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it; and didst cause

it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered

with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like the goodly

cedars. She sent out her boughs into the sea, and her branches into the

river."

3. A SIMILE or COMPARISON is when the resemblance between two objects,

whether real or imaginary, is expressed in form.

Thus, we use a simile, when we say, "The actions of princes are like

those great rivers, the course of which every one beholds, but their

springs have been seen by few." "As the mountains are round about

Jerusalem, so the Lord is round about his people." "The music of Caryl

was like the memory of joys that are past, pleasant and mournful to the

soul." "Our Indians are like those wild plants which thrive best in the

shade, but which wither when exposed to the influence of the sun."

"The Assyrian came down, like the wolf on the fold,

And his cohorts were gleaming with purple and gold;

And the sheen of their spears was like stars on the sea,

When the blue wave rolls nightly on deep Galilee."

4. A METONYMY is where the cause is put for the effect, or the effect

for the cause; the container for the thing contained; or the sign for

the thing signified.

When we say, "They read \_Milton\_," the cause is put for the effect,

meaning "Milton's \_works\_." "Gray hairs should be respected;" here the

effect is put for the cause; meaning by "gray hairs," \_old age\_, which

produces gray hairs. In the phrase, "The kettle boils," the container is

substituted for the thing contained. "He addressed the \_chair\_;" that

is, the person in the chair.

5. A SYNECDOCHE OR COMPREHENSION. When the whole is put for a part, or a

part for the whole; a genus for a species, or a species for a genus; in

general, when any thing less, or any thing more, is put for the precise

object meant, the figure is called a Synecdoche.

Thus, "A fleet of twenty \_sail\_, instead of, \_ships\_." "The \_horse\_ is a

noble animal;" "The \_dog\_ is a faithful creature:" here an individual is

put for the species. We sometimes use the "head" for the \_person\_, and

the "waves" for the \_sea\_. In like manner, an attribute may be pat for a

subject; as "Youth" for the \_young\_, the "deep" for the \_sea\_.

6. PERSONIFICATION or PROSOPOPOEIA is that figure by which we attribute

life and action to inanimate objects. When we say, "The ground \_thirsts\_

for rain," or, "the earth \_smiles\_ with plenty;" when we speak of

"ambition's being \_restless\_," or, "a disease's being \_deceitful\_;" such

expressions show the facility, with which the mind can accommodate the

properties of living creatures to things that are inanimate.

The following are fine examples of this figure:

"Cheer'd with the grateful smell, old \_Ocean smiles\_;"

"The wilderness and the solitary place shall be glad for them; and

the desert shall rejoice and blossom as the rose."

7. AN APOSTROPHE is an address to some person, either absent or dead, as

if he were present and listening to us. The address is frequently made

to a personified object; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory. O

\_death!\_ where is thy sting? O \_grave!\_ where is thy victory?"

"Weep on the rock of roaring winds, O \_maid\_ of Inistore; bend thy

fair head over the waves, thou fairer than the ghost of the hills,

when it moves in a sun-beam at noon over the silence of Morveu."

8. ANTITHESIS. Comparison is founded on the resemblance, antithesis, on

the contrast or opposition, of two objects.

\_Example.\_ "If you wish to enrich a person, study not to \_increase\_ his

\_stores\_, but to \_diminish\_ his \_desires."\_

9. HYPERBOLE or EXAGGERATION consists in magnifying an object beyond its

natural bounds. "As swift as the wind; as white as the snow; as slow as

a snail;" and the like, are extravagant hyperboles.

"I saw their chief, tall as a rock of ice; his spear, the blasted

fir; his shield, the rising moon; he sat on the shore, like a cloud

of mist on the bills."

10. VISION is produced, when, in relating something that is past, we use

the present tense, and describe it as actually, passing before our eyes.

11. INTERROGATION. The literal use of an interrogation, is to ask a

question; but when men are strongly moved, whatever they would affirm or

deny with great earnestness, they naturally put in the form of a

question.

Thus Balaam expressed himself to Balak: "The Lord is not man, that he

should lie, nor the son of man, that he should repeat. Hath he said it?

and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it? and shall he not make it

good?" "Hast thou an arm like God? or canst thou thunder with a voice

like him?"

12. EXCLAMATIONS are the effect of strong emotions, such a surprise,

admiration, joy, grief, and the like.

"O that I had in the wilderness a lodging place of way-faring men!"

"O that I had wings like a dove! for then would I fly away, and be

at rest!"

13. IRONY is expressing ourselves in a manner contrary to our thoughts;

not with a view to deceive, but to add force to our remarks. We can

reprove one for his negligence, by saying, "You have taken great care,

indeed."

The prophet Elijah adopted this figure, when he challenged the priests

of Baal to prove the truth of their deity. "He mocked them, and said.

Cry aloud for he is a god: either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or

he is on a journey, or, peradventure, he sleepeth, and must be waked."

14. AMPLIFICATION or CLIMAX consists in heightening all the

circumstances of an object or action, which we desire to place in a

strong light.

Cicero gives a lively instance of this figure, when he says, "It is a

crime to put a Roman citizen in bonds: it is the height of guilt to

scourge him; little less than parricide to put him to death: what name,

then, shall I give to the act of crucifying him?"

KEY.

\_Corrections of the False Syntax arranged under the Rules and Notes\_.

RULE 4. Frequent commission of sin \_hardens\_ men in it. Great pains

\_have\_ been taken, &c.--\_is\_ seldom found. The sincere \_are\_, &c.--\_is\_

happy. What \_avail\_, &c.--Disappointments \_sink\_--the renewal of hope

\_gives\_, &c.--\_is\_ without limit, \_has\_ been conferred upon us.--Thou

\_canst\_ not heal--but thou \_mayst\_ do, &c.--\_consists\_ the happiness,

&c.--Who \_touchedst\_, or \_didst touch\_ Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire.

\_Note 1.\_ And \_wilt thou\_ never be to Heaven resigned?--And \_who\_ had

great abilities, &c.

\_Note 2.\_ Are peace and honor.--\_was\_ controversy.

RULE 7. \_Them\_ that you visited.--\_him\_ that was mentioned.--\_he\_ who

preached repentance, &c.--\_they\_ who died.--\_he\_ who succeeded.

RULE 8. Time and tide \_wait,\_ &c.--\_remove\_ mountains.--\_are\_ both

uncertain.--\_dwell\_ with, &c.--\_affect\_ the mind, &c.--What \_signify\_

the counsel and care, &c.--\_are\_ now perished.--Why \_are\_ whiteness and

coldness, &c.--bind \_them\_ continually, &c.--render \_their\_ possessor,

&c.--There \_are\_ error and discrepance--which \_show\_, &c.

RULE 9. \_Is\_ the same in idea.--\_is\_ in the porphyry.--\_is\_ remarkable,

&c.--which \_moves\_ merely as \_it is\_ moved.--\_affects\_ us, &c.--Man's

happiness or misery \_is\_, in a great measure, &c.--for \_it\_ may be,

&c.--\_was\_ blameworthy.

RULE 10. The nation \_is\_ powerful.--The fleet \_was\_ seen, &c.--The

church \_has\_, &c.--\_is\_, or ought to be, the \_object\_, &c.--\_it\_ is

feeble.

RULE 11. My people \_do\_, &c.--The multitude eagerly \_pursue\_ pleasure as

\_their\_, &c.--\_were\_ divided in \_their\_ sentiments, and \_they have\_

referred, &c.--The people \_rejoice\_--give \_them\_ sorrow.

RULE 12. \_Homer's\_ works are, &c.--\_Asa's\_ heart. \_James Hart's\_ book.

\_Note 1.\_ It was the \_men\_, \_women\_, and children's lot, &c. or, \_It was

the lot of\_ the men, women, and children.--\_Peter\_, \_John\_, and

Andrew's, &c.

\_Note 2.\_ This is \_Campbell\_ the poet's production; or, \_The production

of Campbell, &c.\_--The silk was purchased at Brown's the \_mercer\_ and

\_haberdasher.\_

\_Note\_ 4. The \_pupil's\_ composing, &c.--\_rule's\_ being observed.--of the

\_president's\_ neglecting to lay it before the council.

RULE 13. Of \_his\_ audience.--put \_it\_ on Jacob.--sprinkle \_them\_--and

they shall, &c.--of \_his\_ reputation.

\_Note\_. You were blamed; you \_were\_ worthy.--where \_were\_ you?--how fat

\_were\_ you?

RULE 14. Who \_hast\_ been, &c.--\_who is\_ the sixth \_that has\_ lost \_his

life\_ by this means.

Who all my sense \_confinedst;\_ or, \_didst confine\_.

\_Note\_. And \_who broughtest\_ him forth out of Ur.

RULE 15, \_Who\_ shall be sent, &c.--This is the man \_who\_, &c.

RULE 16. They \_to whom\_ much is given, &c.--\_with whom\_ you associate

&c.--\_whom\_ I greatly respect, &c.--\_whom\_ we ought to love, and \_to

whom\_, &c--They \_whom\_ conscience, &c.--With \_whom\_ did you

walk?--\_Whom\_ did you see?--To \_whom\_ did you give the book?

RULE 17. Who gave John those books? \_We\_.--\_him\_ who lives in Pearl

street--My brother and \_he\_.--\_She\_ and \_I\_.

RULE 18: \_Note\_ 2. Thirty \_tuns\_.--twenty \_feet\_--one hundred \_fathoms\_.

\_Note\_ 6. He bought a pair of \_new\_ shoes--piece of \_elegant\_

furniture.--pair of \_fine\_ horses--tract of \_poor\_ land.

\_Note\_ 7. Are still more \_difficult to be comprehended\_.--most

\_doubtful\_, or \_precarious\_ way, &c.--\_This model comes nearer

perfection than any I\_, &c.

RULE 19: \_Note. That\_ sort.--\_these\_ two hours.--\_This\_ kind, &c.--He

saw one \_person\_, or more \_than one\_, enter the garden.

\_Note\_ 2. Better than \_himself\_.--\_is\_ so small.--\_his\_ station may be,

\_is\_ bound by the laws.

\_Note\_ 3. On \_each\_ side, &c.--took \_each\_ his censer.

RULE 20. \_Whom\_ did they, &c.--They \_whom\_ opulence,--\_whom\_ luxury,

&c.--\_Him\_ and \_them\_ we know, &c.--\_Her\_ that is negligent, &c.--my

brother and \_me\_ &c.--\_Whom\_ did they send, &c.--\_Them whom\_ he, &c.

RULE 21. It is \_I\_.--If I were \_he\_.--it is \_he\_, indeed.--\_Whom\_ do

you, &c.--\_Who\_ do men say, &c.--and \_who\_ say ye, &c.--\_whom\_ do you

imagine it to have been?--it was \_I\_; but you knew that it was \_he\_.

RULE 25. Bid him \_come\_--durst not \_do\_ it.--Hear him \_read,\_ &c.--makes

us \_approve\_ and \_reject\_, &c.--better \_to\_ live--than \_to\_ outlive,

&c.--\_to\_ wrestle.

RULE 26: \_Note\_. The taking \_of\_ pains: or, without taking pains,

&c.--The changing \_of\_ times,--the removing and setting up \_of\_ kings.

RULE 28: \_Note\_ 3. He \_did\_ me--I had \_written\_--he \_came\_

home.--\_befallen\_ my cousin--he would have \_gone\_.--already \_risen\_.--is

\_begun\_.--is \_spoken\_.--would have \_written\_--had they \_written\_, &c.

RULE 29: \_Note\_ 1. It cannot, \_therefore\_, be, &c.--he was \_not often\_

pleasing.--should \_never\_ be separated.--We may live \_happily\_, &c.

RULE 30: \_Note\_. I don't know \_any thing\_; or, I \_know\_ nothing, &c.--I

did not see \_anybody\_; or, I saw \_nobody\_, &c.--Nothing ever \_affects\_

her.--\_and\_ take no shape \_or\_ semblance, &c.--There \_can\_ be nothing,

&c.--\_Neither\_ precept \_nor\_ discipline is so forcible as example.

RULE 31. For \_himself\_.--among \_themselves\_.--\_with whom\_ he is,

&c.--\_With whom\_ did, &c.--\_From whom\_ did you receive instruction?

RULE 33. My brother and \_he\_, &c.--You and \_I\_, &c. \_He\_ and I--John and

\_he\_, &c.--Between you and \_me\_, &c.

RULE 34. And \_entreat\_ me, &c.--and \_acting\_ differently, &c.

\_Note\_ 1. But \_he\_ may return--but \_he\_ will write no more.

\_Note\_ 2. Unless it \_rain\_.--If he \_acquire\_ riches, &c.

RULE 35. Than \_I\_--as well as \_he\_, than \_they\_.--but \_he\_.--but \_he\_

and \_I\_.--but \_them\_ who had gone astray.

\_Promiscuous Examples\_.--\_Him\_ who is from eternity, &c.--\_depends\_ all

the happiness,--which \_exists\_, &c.--the enemies \_whom\_, &c.--Is it \_I\_

or \_he whom\_ you requested?--Though great \_have\_ been,--sincerely

\_acknowledge\_.--There \_was\_, in the metropolis.--exercising our

memories.--\_was\_ consumed.--Affluence \_may\_ give--but \_it\_ will not.--of

this world often choke.--\_Them\_ that honor,--and \_they\_ that despise.--I

intended \_to call\_ last week.--the fields look \_fresh\_ and \_gay\_.--very

\_neatly, finely woven\_ paper.--where I \_saw\_ Gen. Andrew Jackson, \_him\_

who.--Take the \_first two\_,--\_last three\_.--thirty \_feet\_ high.--\_a\_

union,--\_a\_ hypothesis.--I have \_seen\_ him \_to whom\_ you wrote, he would

have \_come\_ back, or \_returned\_.--\_understands\_ the nature,--he

\_rejects\_.--If thou \_study\_,--thou \_wilt\_ become.--is not \_properly\_

attended to.--He \_knew\_.--therefore, to \_have\_ done it,--\_than\_ the

title.--very \_independently\_.--duty to \_do\_.--my \_friend's\_

entering.--is the \_best\_ specimen, or it \_comes nearer\_ perfection \_than

any\_, &c.--blow \_them\_, will go, &c.--\_Each of those two authors has

his\_ merit.--\_Reason's\_ whole,--\_lie\_ in.--\_strikes\_ the mind,--than if

\_the parts had been adjusted\_,--with \_perfect\_ symmetry.

Satire \_does\_ not carry in \_it\_.--\_composes\_ the triangle.--\_persons'\_

opportunities were \_ever\_.--It \_has been\_ reported.--should \_never\_

be.--situation \_in which\_.--\_is\_ thoroughly versed in \_his\_.--\_are\_ the

soul,--\_follows\_ little.--An army \_presents\_.--\_are\_ the \_duties\_ of a

christian.--happier than \_he\_.--\_always\_ have \_inclined\_, and \_which

always\_ will incline him to offend.--which \_require\_ great.--\_Them\_ that

honor me, will I.--\_has\_ opinions peculiar to \_itself\_.--that \_it may\_

be said \_he attained\_ monarchical.--\_hast\_ permitted,--\_wilt\_

deliver.--\_was\_ formerly propagated.--the measure \_is\_,--unworthy

your.--\_were\_ faithless.--After I \_had\_ visited.--nor shall \_I\_,

consent.--Yesterday I intended to \_walk\_ out, but \_was\_.--\_make\_ or

\_are\_ thirteen,--\_leave\_ three.--If he \_go\_,--make \_the eighth time\_

that he \_will have\_ visited.--\_is\_ nobler.--was possessed, or \_that

ever\_ can be.--one great \_edifice\_,--smaller \_ones\_.--honesty \_is\_.--it

to \_be\_.--\_will\_ follow me,--I \_shall\_ dwell.--\_is\_ gone astray.--he

could, not \_have done\_.--\_feeling\_ a propensity.

PUNCTUATION.

COMMA.

\_Corrections of the Exercises in Punctuation\_.

RULE 1. Idleness is the great fomenter of all corruptions in the human

heart. The friend of order has made half his way to virtue. All finery

is a sign of littleness.

RULE 2. The indulgence of a harsh disposition, is the introduction to

future misery. To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real

defect in character. The intermixture of evil in human society, serves

to exercise the suffering graces and virtues of the good.

RULE 3. Charity, like the sun, brightens all its objects. Gentleness is,

in truth, the great avenue to mutual enjoyment. You, too, have your

failings. Humility and knowledge, with poor apparel, excel pride and

ignorance, under costly attire. The best men often experience

disappointments. Advice should be seasonably administered. No assumed

behavior can always hide the real character.

RULE 4. Lord, thou hast been our dwelling place in all generations.

Continue, my dear child, to make virtue thy chief study. Canst thou

expect, thou betrayer of innocence, to escape the hand of vengeance?

Death, the king of terrors, chose a prime minister. Hope, the balm of

life, sooths us under every misfortune. Confucius, the great Chinese

philosopher, was eminently good, as well as wise. The patriarch Joseph

is an illustrious example of true piety.

RULE 5. Peace of mind being secured, we may smile at misfortune. To

enjoy present pleasure, he sacrificed his future ease and reputation.

His talents, formed for great enterprises, could not fail of rendering

him conspicuous. The path of piety and virtue, pursued with a firm and

constant spirit, will assuredly lead to happiness. All mankind compose

one family, assembled under the eye of one common Father.

KEY TO THE EXERCISES.

RULE 6. We have no reason to complain of the lot of man, nor of the

mutability of the world. Sensuality contaminates the body, depresses the

understanding, deadens the moral feelings of the heart, and degrades man

from his rank in creation.

Self-conceit, presumption, and obstinacy, blast the prospect of many a

youth. He is alternately supported by his father, his uncle, and his

elder brother. The man of virtue and honor, will be trusted, relied

upon, and esteemed. Conscious guilt renders one mean-spirited, timorous,

and base. An upright mind will never be at a loss to discern what is

just and true, lovely, honest, and of good report. Habits of reading,

writing, and thinking, are the indispensable qualifications of a good

student. The great business of life is, to be employed in doing justly,

loving mercy, and walking humbly with our God. To live soberly,

righteously, and piously, comprehends the whole of our duty.

In our health, life, possessions, connexions, pleasures, there are

causes of decay imperceptibly working. Deliberate slowly, execute

promptly. An idle, trifling society, is near akin to such as is

corrupting. This unhappy person had been seriously, affectionately

admonished, but in vain.

RULE 7. How much better it is to get wisdom than gold. The friendships

of the world can exist no longer than interest cements them. Eat what is

set before you. They who excite envy, will easily incur censure. A man

who is of a detracting spirit, will misconstrue the most innocent words

that can be put together. Many of the evils which occasion our

complaints of the world, are wholly imaginary.

The gentle mind is like the smooth stream, which reflects every object

in its just proportion, and in its fairest colors. In that unaffected

civility which springs from a gentle mind, there is an incomparable

charm. The Lord, whom I serve, is eternal. This, is the man we saw

yesterday.

RULE 8. Idleness brings forward and nourishes many bad passions. True

friendship will, at all times, avoid a rough or careless behavior.

Health and peace, a moderate fortune, and a few friends, sum up all the

undoubted articles of temporal felicity. Truth is fair and artless,

simple and sincere, uniform and consistent. Intemperance destroys the

strength of our bodies and the vigor of our minds.

RULE 9. As a companion, he was severe and satirical; as a friend,

captious and dangerous. If the spring put forth no blossoms, in summer

there will be no beauty, and in autumn, no fruit. So, if youth be

trifled away without improvement, manhood will be contemptible, and old

age, miserable.

RULE 10. They believed he was dead. He did not know that I was the man.

I knew she was still alive. The greatest misery is, to be condemned by

our own hearts. The greatest misery that we can endure, is, to be

condemned by our own hearts.

SEMICOLON.

RULE 1. The path of truth is a plain and safe path; that of falsehood is

a perplexing maze. Heaven is the region of gentleness and friendship;

hell, of fierceness and animosity. As there is a worldly happiness,

which God perceives to be no other than disguised misery; as there are

worldly honors, which, in his estimation, are a reproach; so, there is a

worldly wisdom, which, in his sight, is foolishness.

But all subsists by elemental strife;

And passions are the elements of life.

COLON.

RULE 1. The three great enemies to tranquillity, are vice, superstition,

and idleness: vice, which poisons and disturbs the mind with bad

passions; superstition, which fills it with imaginary terrors; idleness,

which loads it with tediousness and disgust.

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