328C13.

THE PRACTICAL

, SELF-TEACHING GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE:

COMPRISING

ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, & PROSODY,

WITH COPIOUS EXERCISES AND PRACTICAL ILLUSTRATIONS

ALSO,

STYLE, RHETORIC, AND A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF COMPOSITION:

WITH A

KEY TO THE PROMISCUOUS SYNTACTICAL EXERCISES.

FOR THE USE OF

SCHOOLS, LOCAL PREACHERS, AND YOUNG MEN.

BY W. J. SIMMONITE, M.M.S., M.U.S.

LONDON:

PUBLISHED BY WHITTAKER & Co., AVE MARIA LANE; J. H. GREAVES, SHEFFIELD; AND SOLD BY ALL BOOKSELLERS.

1841.

GREAVES, PRINTER, SHEFFIELD:



[Untered in Stationers' Hall.]

1.0

After the numerous works which have appeared, professing to teach the elements of the English Language, some of them under the superintendance of gentlemen of undoubted talent, and to whose labours the public have awarded the highest meed of praise, I am assured that the reasons ought to be given, which have induced me to enter the field in this department of School Literature. However, a short statement of those reasons must suffice in this place, as they are fully explained in the body of the work, of the merits of which work the enlightened Public will be the best able to judge when compared with previous Grammars.

DR. LOUTH affirms, "That if children were taught the common principles of English Grammar by some *short* and *clear* system, in which rules are laid down and illustrated by examples, they would not be engaged so long as they are, with so much *labour* of the *memory*, and so little assistance of the understanding."

In this assertion I fully acquiesce, as being my decided conviction, based on practical application; and the plan is here carried out in all its bearings.

It is universally allowed by all preceptors, who have laboured to assist the juvenile mind in the study of Grammar, that practical illustrations, in conjunction with theoretical instructions, are *alone calculated* to effect that purpose. In these essentials, I have endeavoured to be as full and as explicit as possible.

Mr. Lindley Murray's Grammar is generally understood to be the best, because it is the most popular; but this is a mistaken notion; for his definitions are so complex, and so difficult to be understood, as to render them of little utility. Notwithstanding, it contains *some* excellencies, such as the collection of opinions of different

men of learning upon the English Language. And for this reason, it appears better adapted than any previous Grammar to the general purposes of education. Nevertheless, it is defective, for there are many rules of importance unnoticed by him.

Mr. Murray's rules must be committed to memory in a kind of philosophical phraseology, of which the pupil can comprehend but little, except he discovers that his mind is burthened, and his judgment very little improved. His syntactical rules are perplexing to the learner, from their inconclusiveness. In some cases, where difference of opinions prevailed among the authors from whom his work is compiled, he has shrewdly left the learner to decide for himself. An excellent writer observes, "A Grammar, to be valuable, must be comprehensive,—a guide in difficulty, as well as in easy cases; because, if in such instances, it affords us no assistance, what is there that can supply its place?"

Mr. Murray's rules are unfit for learners, from their defectiveness; they lead adult minds, much more those of children, into difficulties, out of which the exercises and notes are unable to extricate them. In short, his whole work is so intricate, that the youthful aspirant, unless imbued with uncommon perseverance, is almost driven to despair of ever becoming master of his vernacular tongue.

Mr. Cobbett's Grammar is an ingenious commentary upon the translation of the Latin Grammar. However, it is written in that loose kind of syle which abounds with circumlocution and a multitude of words. It is unfit for schools, from its peculiar arrangement and incompleteness of practical illustrations. In his critical disquisitions, it is obvious, in many parts, he has violated his own rules. But there is a stronger objection to Mr. Cobbett's Grammar, even if it possessed every other qualification that could render a Grammar complete ; it is so tinged with political allusions and personal animosity, as to render it totally unfit for general adoption.

Lennie, Guy, Blair, Pinnock, M'Cullock, and others of minor importance, have aimed at rendering the grammatical structure of our language comprehensive; this they have in some measure accomplished; but even their works are not sufficient guides in difficulties.

This work possesses more originality than generally falls to the share of English Grammars; yet I hesitate not to acknowledge, that I am under some obligation to most of the previously mentioned authors; also to Mr. Hiley, whose work is decidedly the best. These I have brought to the test of practical experience; and whilst it contains all their good qualities, I have endeavoured to make those parts in which they are obscure, more intelligible; and to lay down a series of rules, which, whilst they neither fatigue the memory, nor perplex the understanding, render the attainment of a knowledge of correct English language comparatively easy and attractive.

I am aware of the difficulty connected with the introduction of a new treatise, and the questionable view in which the first attempt of an author is beheld, by those who are in possession of the field of literature, as if he had peremptorily entered upon forbidden ground; and unless his work not only possesses improvements the most strikingly important, at the slightest glance, but is also exhibited to public notice by efforts the most popular, "it may remain almost unknown, and for ever neglected."

It is to be desired that our *reviewing literati*, those arbiters of the fate of authors and their works, were possessed with the spirit of impartiality, equal to their great abilities, and would judge of the *practical utility* of a Grammar, as well as of its philosophical and theoretical principles.

The utility of this work may, in some measure, be seen by the simplicity in which it is arranged, as well as by the additional branches of which it treats, in order to make an accomplished and a correct speaker. For, besides the common divisions of Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody; it treats of *Style*, *Rhetoric*, and *Composition*.

Orthography is briefly treated, but sufficiently long for every useful purpose. No rules for spelling are inserted. It is impossible to lay down any *particular* rules for the spelling of the English language. The best and most expeditious method of teaching to spell, is by writing and dictation. Let the teacher read slowly to his pupils a portion of any correct composition, and desire them to write it. When this is done, he must examine it, point

,V

out those words which are incorrect, and then desire the pupil to correct them. As for the powers or sounds of letters, the learner may trust to judicious imitation and experience, or he may consult such a Dictionary as Walker's.

Under *Etymology*, our language is divided into component classes, in one or other of which every word has found a place. Grammarians differ concerning the number of the parts of speech. The general number, however, is *nine*; and rather than enter into any lengthened discussion on the subject, I admit that number. It contains full, clear, and indispensible explanations of the nature and properties of the parts of speech, the principles of which are inculcated by practical illustrations and explanatory remarks. The definitions are plain and concise. Those portions essential to be committed to memory are printed in a larger type; those parts which are easily gained by careful perusal are in a smaller type; that which can be retained only by frequent repetition, is worked in the mind by numerous exercises.

Some terms used in the moods and tenses of verbs have been discarded, and others more appropriate arc substituted. I have made use of *four* kinds of verbs, and my reasons for doing so, are given in their proper place. The *subjunctive* mood is rendered plain, and easy to be understood.

As "nothing contributes more to arrest the attention and assist the judgment of persons learning Grammar," nor is any method more advantageous in facilitating their improvement, and alleviating the labour of the teacher, than pertinent questions, every part of speech is followed by questions and exercises in *parsing*, arranged in the order in which they should be studied. By this method, one part of speech is impressed on the mind before the pupil is allowed to proceed. After these, come a specimen of promiscuous etymological parsing, with a table of questions, and about *fifty* lessons, for the investigating and confirming of the pupil's knowledge of Etymology.

Under Syntax, I have endeavoured to place the rules in the order in which they most frequently occur; and those which are most easy to be understood precede those which are more difficult. All are of utility, and all must

1

be learned, to have a perfect knowledge of the language. The arrangement may not please all, yet I consider it the most advantageous method. The reader may be surprised to see so many rules. Let me observe, that my predecessors have exceptions and notes, together with complex rules, all of which must be committed to memory, which increase, in a tenfold degree, the difficulty of understanding and applying them. Let these be brought in juxta-position with my rules, and they will be found to be half as long again. My rules, besides being very short, are made extremely simple, and are almost without an exception. New rules are also inserted, which cast light upon things which have hitherto been obscure. They are illustrated and exemplified; broken into answers and furnished with appropriate questions, by which the pupil will fully understand each rule before he proceed to correct the exercises connected with it.

I have endeavoured not only to select the shortest sentenses of false construction, but also that they contain some moral and important principle, or convey some useful information. Even sentiments of a religious nature are thought not improper to be occasionally inserted. Care has also been taken to avoid selecting those sentences which are glaringly erroneous, and which do not generally occur in the conversation of persons of a tolerable education. If there are any deviations from these principles, they are generally confined to those rules, which, from the nature of them, could not have been otherwise clearly exemplified to young minds.

Some of the rules contain many more violations than others. This has arisen from their importance, and from the variety requisite to exemplify them properly. When a few instances have afforded sufficient exercises, the pupil is not fatigued with a repetition, which casts no new light on the rule. In order that the rules may be easily understood, and their violations readily perceived, the violations immediately succeed them. That the ingenuity of the learner may be exercised, and to render him master of his rules, exercises, promiscuously disposed, are inserted after every three or four.

Under *Punctuation*, are given ample rules and exercises, by which the sense and proper delivery of every

sentence may be ascertained. Besides the usual number of points used in punctuation, is inserted the *reading pause*, the use and utility of which are noticed.

Under *Prosody*, is found the usual information—the method of scanning verses, with sufficient examples and exercises. Also a description of *Poetry*, and the different kinds into which it is divided.

Style is simplified; the rules are reduced to practice by exercises, and will be readily understood. By strict attention to this part, the pupil may become a clear, perspicuous, correct, and forcible writer and speaker. *Rhetoric*, or *Figurative Style*, is a new feature to similar publications; it is concise, yet full, containing every figure that can be used, with its original import in Greek; the utility of which is seen under its own head.

Composition is of such intrinsic worth, that comment on its utility, or recommendation to the study of it, is unnecessary. I commence with the simplest rules, and proceed in a uniform *gradation*, from the writing of names, to the describing of objects, to the writing of themes, to orations, to logical arguments, and to subjects requiring the full employment of highly cultivated facultics.

The last article which claims our attention, is the KEY. As many of the promiscuous syntactical exercises, as well as those under style, contain several errors in the same sentence, it is considered necessary to supply a *Key*, to assist young men, and others who have not the opportunity of learning under a competent preceptor. As this Grammar contains so many exercises, a separate book of them is unnecessary.

In conclusion, I take leave to state, that though care has been taken to prevent mistakes and defects, I am conscious that inaccuracies may be found. I am open to conviction; and shall carefully attend to any remarks, *liberal* criticisms, and suggestions that may be given, in order that it may be made more efficiently, "The Practical Self-Teaching Grammar of the English Language."

Sheffield, 30th January, 1841.

PART I.----ORTHOGRAPHY.

AAT	PAGE.
Of Letters	1
Of Syllables and Words	2
PART IIETYMOLOGY.	
Of the Articles	4
Of Nouns	5
Of Number	6
Rule for the forming of the Plurals of Nouns	6
Words which have no plural termination	8
Of Gender	10
Of Persons	13
Of Case	13
Declension of a Noun	15
Exercises on the Agent and the Object	15
Method of parsing a Noun, and Exercises	16
Method of parsing an Article and a Noun	16
Of Adjectives.	17
Exercises in parsing on the Article, Noun, and Adjective	23
Of Personal Pronouns	24
Parsing a Pronoun	27
Of Relative Pronouns	27
Exercises on Relative Pronouns	80
Examples in which the wrong application of the Relative	30
Of the Compound Relatives	31
Of that	31
Exercises in Parsing on the Article, Noun, Adjective, and	
Pronoun	32
Promiscuous Exercises in Parsing ditto	33
Of Verbs	34
Of the number and person of Verbs	37
Of Moods or Modes	38
Of Participles	41
Of Tenses or Distinctions of Time	43
Remarks on the Tenses, and observations on the Auxiliary	
Verbs	44
Promiscuous Rules	48
Conjugation of Verbs	49
To Love-Active Voice	49
Parsing a Verb, Pronoun, &c	· 54
Conjugation of the Neuter Verb To Be	56
On the Potential Mood	60
On the Subjunctive Mood	61
Exercises on the Verb To Be	61

۱

	PAGE.
Passive Verbs	62
Conjugation of To be loved-Passive Voice	62
Promiscuous Questions and Exercises	65
Irregular Verbs	68
Defective Verbs	71
Of the variation of the Defective and Auxiliary Verbs	72
Exercises on some Verbs	73
Of Adverbs	73
Parsing	75
Of Prepositions	77
Of Conjunctions	78
Exercises in Parsing	80
Of Interjections	80
Derivations	81
Part Second on Parsing	82
Rules to be committed to memory preparatory to parsing	82
Questions for Exercises in Parsing, as it relates to Etymo-	
logy alone	83
A specimen of Etymological Parsing	84
PART III.——SYNTAX.	
Syntax explained	98
ARTICLES.	
A or an is used before nouns in the singular	144
	1.2.3
NOUNS.	100
Two or more singular nouns.	103
Two or more singular nouns coupled with and	104
A singular and a plural noun separated	107
When a noun of multitude conveys plurality	109
It is improper to use both a noun and its pronoun	112
When two nouns or a noun and a pronoun	122
When several possessive nouns come	123
The sign of the possessive should be annexed	125
When a name or title consists of two or three	124
When one or more explana ory terms which signify	124
A Noun or Pronoun before the Present Participle	142
PRONOUNS.	
When a Pronoun is used as the subject of a Verb	100
Verbs whether expressed or understood, &c	100
Nominative Pronouns must be used, &c	101
Pronouns always agree with their antecedent	110
Personal Pronouns must not be used for these and those	110
They is generally used in preference to those	iň
In the position of the Personal Pronouns	iii
The relative Pronoun is of the same number	126
The Relative must be put in the Objective	126
The Relative must be put in the Possessive	127
The word what must be used, &c	128
Wheever whichever be	128
Whoever, whichever, &c When the relative is preceded by two antecedents	128
When the Relative and the Verb, &c	129
when me herein e and me verb, occ	130

Digitized by Google

•

In Amilian longmans the Deleting is Assessed a smithed	PAGE.
In familiar language the Relative is frequently omitted When the Relative is of the Interrogative	130 131
ADJECTIVES.	
The words one, this, that, &c.	105
When comparison is expressed	105
A singular and a plural separated by or or nor	107
Nouns and Numeral Adjectives must agree	111
Every Adjective has a Noun	113
The phrases this means and that means, &c	113
When two objects are compared	114
Double Comparatives, &c	115
Adjectives which in their simple form	116
When two persons or things are contrasted	116
Adjectives should not be used, &c	117
Some Adjectives, Adverbs, &c	139
VERBS.	
Verbs must be in the same number	102
When the subject of a Vanh	102
When the subject of a Verb	
When the Verb To Be	108
Active-transitive Verbs govern, &c	131
Transitive Verbs signifying	135
Active-transitive and Neuter Verbs	132
A Verb in the Infinitive Mood	133
PARTICIPLES.	
Active Participles govern Nonns, &c	141
When the Present Participle, &c	142
The Past Participle must always, &c	143
The Past Participle must not be used, &c	144
After the Past Tense the Present Infinitive	149
met die 1 ast 1 ense the 1 lesent infinitive	143
ADVERBS.	
When not is joined to and, &c	102
After Verbs of Motion-when, there, and while	118
Adverbs are for the most part placed	119
The Adverb only must, &c	120
Two negatives in the same sentence	121
PREPOSITIONS.	
From should not be used	118
Of joined to a noun	125
Prepositions govern nouns	134
To after a verb of motion	135
Certain words and phrases	136
CONJUNCTIONS.	
Conjunctions couple the same moods, &c	138
Some conjunctions require	139
INTERJECTIONS.	
Interjections are joined, &c	146

xi

.

PAGE.

.

BUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.	PAGE.
When Sentences imply doubt	1.48
when Sentences imply doubt	147
USE OF THE TENSES.	
In the use of the Verbs, Words, &c,	148
ELLIPSIS OR OMISSION.	
To express our ideas in a few words, an ellipsis, &c	149
When omission of words would obscure, &c	150
All the parts of a sentence	151
Promiscuous Exercises on Syntax	151
Key to ditto	222
Miscellaneous observations	160
PUNCTUATION.	
Reading Pause	162
Comma .	163
Of the Semicolon	167
Of the Colon.	168
Of the Period	169
Other characters which are used in composition.	169
Directions with respect to Capitals	170
Dictuons with respect to Capitais	170
PART IVPROSODY.	
Versification	173
Division of Poetry	177
Exercises in Prosody and in Versification	178
	180
Style, Rhetoric, and Composition Propriety	181
Precision	183
Of the structure of sentences.	185
Of the clearness or perspicuity of a sentence	185
Of the unity of a sentence	188
Of the strength or energy of a sentence	190
Rhetoric or Figurative Style	192
Rhetorical Tropes	183
Figures of Thought	195
Rhetorical Turns or Repetition	197
Composition	199
Divisions of a Discourse.	213
Method in Logic	218
Definition	219
Certainty or Truth	220
Evidence	220
Sophisms	220
Cause of Error	221
Key to Style	225
Bad Arrangement	226

xii

~

Digitized by Google

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the *art* of speaking and writing the English language with propriety.

It is divided into four parts, namely, ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, and PROSODY.

Orthography is a word made up of two Greek words—from $o\rho\theta o_{\mathcal{G}}$, (orthos) correct, and $\gamma\rho a\phi \omega$, (grapho) I write.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

1. ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the forms and sounds of letters, and the just method of spelling words.

2. A letter is the least part of a word, and represents the sounds of the human voice.

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

4. Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

5. A vowel is an articulate sound, which can be perfectly uttered by itself; as a, e, o.

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

7 Å consonant cannot be sounded distinctly without the aid of a vowel; as, b, c, d, f, l.

8. Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels.

9.⁴ 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.

10. The semi-vowels are such as have an imperfect sound of *themselves*. They are f, l, m, n, r, v, s, z, x, and c and g soft.

11. Four of these semi-vowels, viz. l, m, n, and r, are called *liquids*, because after a *mute*, their sound is somewhat liquidated or diminished, by easily uniting with the preceding short vowel.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

12. Consonants are also divided into labials; as, b, f, p, v, which are sounded by the lips; into dentals, which are sounded by the teeth; as d, s, t, z, and soft g or j; into gutturals, which are sounded by the throat, as k, q, and c and g hard; into nasals, which are sounded by the nose, as, m, n, and ng.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

What is English Grammar? Into how many parts is it divided? From what does Orthography come? 1. What does Orthography teach? 2. What is a letter ? 3. How many letters, called the English Alphabet, are there? 4. How are letters divided? 5. What is a vowel? 6. Which are the vowels? when are w and y consonants? 7. What is a consonant? 8. How are consonants divided? 9. What are mutes? 10. What are semi-vowels? 11. What are four of these semi-vowels called? Why? 12. Into what are consonants also divided?

LESSON SECOND.

OF SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

1. A SYLLABLE is a word or as much as can be sounded at once; as, ant.

2. Words are articulate sounds, used by common consent, as signs of our ideas.

3. In every word there are as many syllables as there are distinct sounds; as, or-tho-gra-phy.

4. A word of ONE syllable is termed a *Mono-syllable*; as, fox, cow, school.

5. A word of two syllables is termed a dis-syllable ; as, ink-stand.

6. A word of THREE syllables is termed a *tris-syllable*; as, but-ter-fly.

7. A word of FOUR or MORE syllables is termed a polysyllable.

8. Mono signifies one; DIS, two; TRIS, three; POLY, many.

9. A DIPTHONG is the union of two vowels in one syllable; as, ea in beat.

10. A PROPER *dipthong* is one in which both the vowels are sounded; as, oy in boy.

11. An IMPROPER *dipthong* has only one of the vowels sounded; as, ea in eagle.

12. A TRIPTHONG is the union of *three* vowels in the same syllable; as, *iew* in view.

13. All words are either primitive, derivative, simple, or compound.

14. A PRIMITIVE word is not derived from any other word in the language; as, art, kind, good, man.

15. A DERIVATIVE word is that which is derived from another word; as, goodness from good; manful from man; wisdom from wise.

16. A SIMPLE word is that which is not made up of more than one; as, school, boy, desk, pen.

17. A COMPOUND word is formed by the union of two or more primitive words; as, school-master from School-Master.

18. When compound words are considered as permanent; they are united; as, *horsemen*; but when they are not considered as permanent, they are joined together by the hyphen; as, *sea-horse*.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is a syllable? 2. What are words? 3. What is there in every word? 4. What is a word of one syllable termed? 5. A word of two syllables? 6. A word of three syllables? 7. A word of four or more syllables? 8. What do mono, &c. signify? 9. What is a dipthong? 10. What is a proper dipthong? 11. What is an improper dipthong? 12. What is a tripthong? 13. What are all words? 14. What is a primitive word? 15. What is a derivative word? 16. What is a simple word? 17. What is a compound word? 18. What are compound words considered?

Digitized by Google

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON THIRD.

1. The SECOND part of Grammar is Etymology, which treats of the different sorts of words, their various changes, and their derivations.

Etymology, from $\epsilon \tau \iota \mu o \varsigma$ (etumos) true, and $\lambda o \gamma o \varsigma$ (logos) word.

2. There are in English *nine* parts of speech; namely, article, noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition, interjection, and conjunction.

3. An ARTICLE is a word put before nouns, to *limit* their signification; as, a pen, the man, an apple, the apples.

4. In English there are but two Articles, a and the; a becomes an before a vowel, and before a silent h; as, an acorn, an hour.

5. A is used before words beginning with a consonant; as, a tree; before the long sound of u, and before w and y; as, a unit, a ewe, a week, a year, such a one.—An is used instead of a before a vowel or silent h, and in words beginning with h sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, an heroic action.

Words beginning with silent h are, heir, herb, honest, honour, hospital, hour, humour, humble, and their derivatives.

6. A or an is called the *indefinite* ARTICLE, because it does not point out a particular person or thing; as, give me a pen: that is any pen.

7. The is called the *definite* article, because it refers to a particular person or thing; as, the pen: that is some particular pen.

8. An is used before nouns in the singular number only. A is sometimes used before the plural nouns, when preceded by such phrases as, a *few*, and *great many*; as, a *few* men, a *great many* apples: before collective words; as, a dozen, a score.

9. The is used before nouns in both numbers; and sometimes before adverbs in the comparative and superlative degree; as, the more I study grammar the better I like it.

10. A noun without an article put before it, is taken either in its widest sense, as comprehending the whole of its species; as, "Man is mortal," that is, all mankind; or, in an indefinite sense, denoting a quantity, but not the whole; as, "There are men destitute of prudence;" that is, some men.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES.

1. What is the second part of English Grammar called? 2. How many parts of speech are there? 3. What is an article? 4. How many articles are there? 5. When is a used? 6. What is a or an called? 7. What is the called? 8. When is a or an used? 9. When is the used? 10. How is a noun taken without an article to limit it? Repeat answer to question 5th.

EXERCISES ON THE ARTICLE.—What should an bed be ? A bed. Why? Because a is used, &c. What should a hour be? An hour. Why? Because an is used instead of a before a vowel or silent h_s &c.—Proceed in this way through the following exercises. What should a elm be? — Why? — A officer, a orange, an horse, a apple, an hand, an hoop, a ox, an herd, a owl, a empress, an hill, an house, an onion, a infant, a enemy, an hammer, a inkstand, a organ, a unlucky girl, a ell of cloth, a easy mind, a illiterate man, an handkerchief, a open field.

LESSON FOUR.

OF Nouns.

1. A noun is the name of any thing, person, or place; as, horseman, Sheffield.

ILLUSTRATION.—Every thing that we can hear, touch, see, smell, taste, or conceive to exist, whether material or immaterial; or whatever has a name is a noun; wind, hat, light, scent, bread, are nouns, because they are names. Honour, wickedness, goodness, hope, are all nouns, for though we can neither see nor hear them, yet we can conceive such things to exist; as, "He was held in honour." "The wickedness of the people." "Hope cheered him." "His goodness was known."

2. Nouns are either common or proper.

3. Common nouns are the names of things in general, or when they apply to all individuals of one kind; as, desk, man, table, chairs.

ILLUSTRATION.—Common nouns are those words which denote the names of things containing many classes or individuals; and the name is common to every individual of that class; as, trees, men, boys, apples, animals. There are many classes of trees, men, boys, apples, and animals, and many individuals in these classes, but the name trees, men, boys, apples, animals, is common to every individual of the class.

4. Proper nouns are the names given to places, persons, seas, &c., to distinguish them from other places, persons, seas, and so on; as, Whiston, John, Mediterranean Sea. 5. *Proper* nouns take no article before them, because the extent of their meaning is pointed out in the word itself; as, *John*, *London*.

6. Proper nouns have the plural only when they refer to a *race* or family of persons; as, the *Elliotts*, or the four *Georges*.

7. Proper nouns become common by having an article prefixed to them; as, "He is the Newton of his age."

8. Collective nouns are those nouns which, in the singular number, denote many; as, multitude, people, crowd.

9. Abstract nouns are the names of qualities considered as abstracted from their substances; as, wisdom, wickedness.

10. Verbal and participal nouns are such as are derived from verbs and participals; as, reading, from read.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES.

1. What is a noun? A noun is the name, &c.

What is the noun in this sentence—Where is George? George. Why? Because it is the name of a person. Show me your book? Book. Why? Because it is the name of a thing. Where is the dog? Which man? Bring my hat. Beware of idleness. Flee from vice. Never sport with distress. Love virtue. Assist modest merit.

2. What are nouns? 3. What is a common noun? 4. What are proper nouns? 5. Do proper nouns take articles before them? 6. How have proper nouns their plural? 7. Do proper nouns become common? 8. What are collective nouns? 9. What are abstract nouns? 10. What are verbal or participal nouns?

LESSON FIVE.

1. Nouns are varied by number, gender, and case.

OF NUMBER.

1. Number is the distinction of one from more.

2. Nouns have two numbers, the singular and the plural.

3. The singular expresses one object; as, a pen, a desk. The plural expresses more objects than one, as pens, desks.

4. RULE 1. The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding s to the singular; as, book, books.

EXEBCISES.—Whether is chair singular or plural? Singular. Why? Because it denotes only one. Which is the noun in this sentence—Read your books? Books. Why? Because it is the name of some thing. What number? Plural. Why? Because it denotes more than one. Tell the nouns and number in the following sentences :-- I like nuts. An inkstand. John's hat. Your pen. A good boy. Fruit delicious. Shun bad company. Never sport with distress. An odourous garden. We ought to love virtue. Flee from vice. A final reward. An open countenance. Regions gloomy. A dignified character. 1. How are nouns varied? What is number ? 2. How many numbers have nouns? 3. What does the singular express? What does the plural express?

Repeat the first Rule. Answer. The plural of nouns &c.

1. Whether is chairs singular or plural? Plural. Why? Because it means more than one. What number is a desk? Singular. Why? Because it expresses only one.

OBSERVATION.—Ask the pupil whether each of the following words is singular or plural, and why :—

Top, school, man, boy, girl, desk, pens, streets, shoe, pig, colt, fire, son, slates, lanes, clock, time, hat, peg, apple, voyage, sea, ship, mind, heart.

RULE 2. NOUNS ending in s, sh, ch, x, or o, after a consonant, form the *plural* by adding es; as, Miss, Misses; lash, lashes; church, churches; fox, foxes; hero, heroes. Nouns ending in ch, sounding as k, form the plural in the regular way; as, stomach, stomachs.

Nouns ending in io, with junto, canto, tyro, grotto, portico, solo, and quarto, have s only in the plural; as, junto, juntos; canto, cantos; tyro, tyros.

The pupil should spell the plural of the following nouns, and tell the rule every word:---Spell the plural of fish. Fishes. Why? Because nouns ending in sh form the plural by adding es. Spell the plural of church, lass, fox, mass, match, rebus, flash, dish, monarch, distich, puss, bolus, heiress, tax, pinch, goldfinch, touch.

RULE 3.—Nouns in f or fe change f or fe into ves in the plural; as, loaf, loaves; life, lives. But nouns in ff form their plural by adding s; as, muff, muffs; except staff, which sometimes has staves; though the compounds of staff are regular, as flagstaff, flagstaffs.

Brief, chief, dwarf, fife, grief, gulf, handkerchief, hoof, kerchief, mischief, proof, roof, reproof, scarf, strife, surf, turf, and warf, never change f or fe into ves, but only have s added.

EXERCISES.—Spell the plural of life. Lives. Why not lifs? Because nouns in f or fe change f or fe into ves. Spell the plural of calf, half, wolf, hoof, cuff, thief, shelf, proof, snuff, turf, gulf, roof, brief, cliff, knife, leaf, relief, muff, handkerchief, kerchief, stuff.

RULE 4.—Nouns in y, after a consonant, change y into ies in the plural; as, lady, ladies. But y with a vowel before it is not changed; as, boy, boys; also proper names; as, Henry, the Henries. Spell the plural of fly. Flies. Spell the plural of day. Days. Why not daies? Because y with a vowel before it is not changed. Which is the vowel? A.

Write or spell the plural of the following nouns:--Spy, beauty, cry, cherry, covey, duty, folly, alley, play, toy, glory, lily, fancy, history, journey, enemy, city, relay, money, key, booby.

RULE 5.—Some nouns form their plural irregularly; as, man, men; child, children; woman, women; foot, feet; goose, geese; mouse, mice; louse, lice; tooth, teeth; ox, oxen; penny, pence; and pennies to denote the distinct pieces of coin. Brother, brothers, when applied to persons of the same family; brethren, to persons of the same society. We may say Turkoman, Turkomans; Mussulman, Mussulmans; although men, in the plural, would be more elegant.

6. Sow or swine makes sows or swine; die (for gaming) makes dice; die (for coining) dies; aid-de-camp, aidsde-camp; court-martial, courts-martial; cousin-german, cousins-german; father-in-law, fathers-in-law; peas denote the seeds as distinct objects; pease, the seeds in a mass.

What is the plural of man? Men. Spell the plural of tooth, mouse, louse, foot, woman, ox, penny, sow, alderman, die, (for play) die, (for coining) Mussulman, &c.

OBSERVATION.—Proper nouns of individuals, when pluralized, are in some degree common, and admit the same rule and an article; as, the Catoes, the Henries, the Plantagenets.

2. The proper names of nations are generally plural; except in a direct address, they are usually construed with the definite article; as, the Germans, the Romans, the Greeks.

WORDS WHICH HAVE NO PLURAL TERMINATION.

1.—There are some nouns which have no plural; such as those which express the qualities, propensities, or feelings of the mind; as honesty, meckness, and compassion; names of metals, herbs, minerals, liquids, vices, virtues, and fleshy substances, and things that are weighed or measured, are in general singular, and almost all sorts of grains: There are exceptions here, for while wheat has no plural, orts have seldom any singular.

2. Some words denote plurality without a plural termination; as, decr, sheep, hose, folk, swine, trout, salmon, &c. The singular of these nouns is generally distinguished by the article a; as, a sheep, a deer.

3. Alms and riches are generally considered plural. Pains is singular or plural; but for the most part is used in the plural.

4. The words brace, dozen, pair, score, hundred, &c., when used with a numerical adjective, rotain the singular form; as, several pair, three brace; but otherwise, they take the plural form; as, "He bought partridges in braces, and books in dozens."

ETYMOLOGY.

5.—Cannon, shot, and sail, are used in a plural sense. The words horse, foot, and infantry, comprehending bodies of soldiers, are used as plural, and followed by verbs in the plural; as, a thousand horse were ready; ten thousand foot were there.—Men is understood.

6. The following nouns, having the plural termination, must be considered as plural, and must be joined to verbs in the plural; as,

Annals	Customs	Literati	Snuffers
Antipodes	Data	Lungs	Scissors
Archieves	Drawers	Minutiæ	Shears
Ashes	Downs	Manners	Shambles
Assets	Dregs	Matins	Sessions 8
Bellows	Embers	Mallows	Tidings
Betters	Entrails	Nippers	Tongs
Bowels	Fetters	Odds	Thanks
Breeches	Filings	Orgies	Trowser ⁸
Compasses	Goods	Pains	Vespers
Clothes	Hatches	Pincers	Vitals
Calends	Ides	Pleiads	Victuals
Credenda	Lees	Riches	Wages

The singular of literati is made by saying one of the literati. Bandit is generally used in the singular of banditti. Pains, preceded by great, has a plural verb. The word nuck should never be joined to a plural noun; thus, "much pains have been taken," should be "great pains, &c." Much is sometimes joined with collective nouns, but these denote number in the aggregate; as, much company.

7. The following nouns have generally a plural termination, but sometimes are used with a singular verb :—Amends, alms, billiards, conics, ethics, fires, hysterics, mathematics, metaphysics, means, measles, optics, physics, politics, pneumatics, &c. They are construed as *singular*; as mathematics is a science; and so of the rest.

OBSERVE.—Means, when it signifies one object, has a singular, when more than one, a plural verb. Gallows and News have generally a singular verb; as, the gallows is erected, news has come.

RULE.—Nouns in *um* or *on* have *a* in the plural termination; and those which have *is* in the singular have *es* in the plural, and these are adopted from foreign languages; as—

SINGULAR. Animalculum Antithesis Arcanum Automaton Axis Basis Crisis Crisis Criterion Datum Disideratum	PLUBAL. Animalcula Antitheses Arcana Automata Axes Bases Crises Criteria Data Disiderata	SINGULAR. Effluvium Ellipsis Emphasis Encomium Erratum Hypothesis Memorandum Metamorphosis Phenomenon	PLUBAL. Effluviä Ellipses Emphases Encomia Errata Hypotheses { Memoranda or { Memorandums Metamorphoses Phenomena

Other words derived from the foreign languages are irregular in their formation; as,

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Apex	Apices.	Majus	Maji
Appendix	Appendixes Appendices	Monsieur Radius	Messieurs Radiï
Calx	Calces	Stamen	Stamina
Cherub	Cherubim Cherubs	Seraph	Seraphim Seraphs
Focus	Föci	Stimulus	Stimuli
Genius	Genu a *	Vertex	Vertices
Genus	Gëne ra	Vortex	Vortices
Ignis fatuus Lamina	Ignes fatui Laminae	Virtuoso	Virtuosi

Apparatus, hiatus, series, species, are the same in both numbers. * Genii, aërial spirits, but geniuses, persons of genius.

OF GENDER.

1. Gender is the distinction of sex. There are three genders—the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter.

2. The masculine gender denotes animals and persons of the male kind; as, a horse, a dog, a man, a boy.

3. The *feminine* gender signifies animals and persons of the female kind; as, a *cow*, a *girl*.

4. The *neuter* gender denotes whatever is without breath, and inanimate objects; as, milk, a tree.

5. Some nouns are either masculine or femininc, and are therefore said to be of the common gender; such as, parent, friend, infant, servant, child, &c.

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

REMARKS.—1. All those objects to which we apply the word he are masculine; and all those words to which we apply she are feminine. Every other object is neuter.

2. When speaking of living creatures, when the gender is not known, we apply the neuter pronoun it; as when we speak of a child, when it is uncertain to us whether it is a boy or a girl, we prefix it; thus, " It is dead."

3. All nouns having the property of productiveness are of the feminine gender; such as fruit trees, rivers, all vices, virtues, &c.

10

Digitized by Google

, ETYMOLOGY.

There are three ways of distinguishing the sex.

	-	-	- ,
	1. By differe	ent words : as,	
MALE.	FEMALE.	MALE.	FEMALE.
Bachelor	Maid, spinster	King	Queen
Beau	Belle	Lad	Lass
Boar	Sow	Landlord	Landlady
Boy	Girl	Lord	Lady
Brother	Sister	Man	Woman
Buck	Doe	Master	Mistress
Bull	Cow	Master	Miss
Bullock, ox,	TT .: C	Milter	Spawner
or steer	Heifer, hefer	Nephew	№ iece
Cock	\mathbf{Hen}	Papa	Mamma ·
Colt	Filly	Ram	Ewe
Dog	Bitch	C '	(Songstress
Drake	Duck	Singer	1 or Singer
Earl	Countess	Sloven	Ślut
Father	Mother	Son	Daughter
Friar	Nun	Swain	Nymph
Gander	Goose	Stag	Hind
Hart	Roe	Uncle	Aunt
Horse	Mare	Wizard	Witch
Husband	Wife	Sir	Madam

4

2. By a difference of termination : as,

MALE.	FEMALE.	MALE.	FEMALE.
Abbot	Abbess	Emperor	Empress
Actor	Actress	Enchanter	Enchantress
Administrator	Administratrix	Executor	Executrix
Adulterer	Adulteress	Founder	Foundress
Ambassador	Ambassadress	Governor	Governess
Arbiter	Arbitress	Heir	Heiress
Author(often)	Authoress	Hero	Heroine
Baron	Baroness	Hunter	Huntress
Bridegroom	Bride	Host	Hostess
Benefactor	Benefactress	Jew	Jewess
Caterer	Cateress	Landgrave	Landgravine
Chanter	Chantress	Lion	Lioness
Conductor	Conductress	Marquis	Marchioness
Count	Countess	Mayor	Mayoress
Deacon	Deaconess	Monitor	Monitress
Duke	Dutchess	Negro	Negress
Elector	Electress	Patron	Patroness

MALE.	FEMALE.	MALE.	FEMALE.
Peacock	Peahen	Sorcerer	Sorceress
Peer	Peeress	Sultan	Sultana or
Poet	Poetess	Guitan	(Sultaness
Priest	Priestess	Testator	Testatrix
Prince	Princess	\mathbf{Tiger}	Tigress .
Prior	Prioress	Traitor	Traitress
Prophet	Prophetess	Tutor	Tutoress
Protector	Protectress	Tyrant	Tyranness
Semster	Semstress	Viscount	Viscountess
Shepherd	Shepherdess	Votary	Votaress
Songster	Songstress	Widower	Widow

3. By a noun, pronoun, or adjective being *prefixed* to the substantive: as,

MALE.	FEMALE.
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

It is improper to use authoress, for the female noun or pronoun, that invariably accompanies this word, will distinguish the gender in it, as well as in writer, author, poet, &c. Thus, in the sentence, "The poets and authors of this age are distinguished more by correctness of taste, than sublimity of conception," I clearly include, in the terms poets and authors, both males and females; but if I say, "She is the best poetess or authores in this country," I then assign her the superiority over those only of her own sex; and when we wish to distinguish the ser, this mode becomes necessary.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is gender? How many genders are there? 2. What does the masculine gender denote? 3. What does the feminine gend. r signify? 4. What does the neuter gender denote?

An animate object signifies one that is endowed with a soul, or one that has life, and possesses the properties of an animal. An inanimate object is one that does not possess animal life, and is not actuated by a soul.

5. What are some nouns? 6. Are some nouns naturally neuter. Tell me something on the *remarks*.

How many ways are there of distinguishing the sex?

What is the feminine of father, of ram, gander, singer, buck, boy, dog, milter, husband, horse, bull, boar, man, lad, brother, king, drake, son, colt, cock, beau, stag, sir, uncle ?

What is the masculine of slut, witch, songstress, niece, spawner mistress, lass, roe, goose, nun, mother, countess, bitch, filly, heifer doe, sister, belle, maid girl, ewe?

12

ETYMOLOGY.

What is the masculine of hostess, cateress, bride, jewess, enchantress, deaconess, baroness, tyranness, peeress, mayoress, shepherdess, adulteress, countess, lioness, actress, tutoress, tigress, widow, princess, votaress, sultana, landgravine, sultaness, protectress, sorceress?

What gender is desk? Neuter. Why neuter? Because it denotes a thing without life or breath. What is meant by the word neuter? It means neither masculine nor feminine.

What is the feminine of tiger, tutor, poet, emperor, count, heir, prior, prince, marquis, lion, songster, sultan, peer, actor?

OF PERSONS.

Nouns have two persons, the second and third. Nouns are of the second person when spoken to; as, boys, attend to your writing; and of the third when spoken of; as, that boy is writing.

OF CASE.

1. CASE is the form or state of a noun or pronoun, to express the relation which it bears to another word, a verb, or preposition.

The word CASE has a variety of meanings, but its general meaning is state of things, or state of some thing. Case is derived from casus, a fall; because the Latin grammarians gave their nouns six cases, representing the five last as fulling or declining from the nominative. Hence, telling the cases is called declining a noun. They call the nominative the direct case from casus rectus, while the others are named casus obliqui, or oblique cases.

2. Nouns have three cases; the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

3. The nominative simply expresses the name of a thing, or is the subject of the verb; as, "The boys play," "The girls learn."

4. The *possessive* denotes possession or property, and has an apostrophe with the letter *s* coming after it; as, "The *scholar's* duty;" "John's book;" "My father's house."

When the singular terminates in ss, the apostrophe is generally omitted; as, "For goodness' sake;" "Righteousness' sake." All monosyllables in s or ss should have an apostrophe and s added; as "Miss's shoes;" "Bess's government;" "James's book;" "Thomas's shop."

The possessive case is an abreviation of the old Saxon genitive or possessive, which ended in *is*. Thus the Saxons, to express the treachery of Judas, would have said *Judasis* treachery; whereas we now say, by contraction, *Judas's* treachery.

5. When the plural ends in s the possessive is formed by adding only an apostrophe; as, "On *eagles*' wings;" "The *drapers*' company." **OBERNE.**—The noun in the possessive means that the thing after it belongs to it. Thus, George's book means that the book belongs to George. The *particle of* is the sign of the Norman possessive; as, "The wisdom *of* man." The possessive is often expressed by of as well as by an s. If I take aways from George, and put of before George, the same meaning will be expressed, for the thing before of will belong to the thing after it; as, "The book of George."

N.B.—The same meaning is not always conveyed by the of that is conveyed by the *apostrophe* and s; for the Lord's day means Sabbath; but the day of the Lord means the day of judgment.

EXERCISES.

Instead of saying John's book, what could we say? The book of John. A Calf's head? The head of a calf. Spain's King? This man's wife? John's pen? Shop's door? School's window? England's capital? Peru's gold mines? Eliza's gown?

Instead of saying the book of John, what could we say? John's book. The head of a calf? A calf's head. The King of Spain ? The pen of John ? The Queen of England ? The King of France ? The bonnet of Ann ?

In the following and similar sentences, possession should be expressed by of, rather than by the s, with an article before the first word; as, "Knowledge's hill;" "The hill of knowledge."

Correct the following sentences in the same way:—Austria's Emperor; London's Lord Mayor; Liverpool's trade; Socrates' wisdom; war's horrors; gold's crown; Hamon, the Jews' enemy; Kentish's hops.

In the following and similar sentences, we must use s rather than of.

Correct—The wine of Adam; the porter of Whitebread; the hat of John; the bonnet of Mary; the parasole of Jane; the book of Robert.

6. The *objective* case expresses the object of an action or of a relation, and follows either a verb or a preposition; as, "I love *Henry*." "They live in *London*."

7. The nominative and objective cases are alike; but in pronouns they are different. The cases are distinguished from each other only by their situation; thus,

NOMINATIVE OBJECTIVE

Henry loves John.

John loves Henry.

The nouns in both instances are alike; but the nominative case generally comes *before* the verb, and the objective *after* the verb or preposition.

8. Nouns are thus declined:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. Father	Fathers	Man	\mathbf{Men}
Poss. Father's	Fathers'	Man's	Men's
Obj. Father	Fathers	Man	Men

Declension of a proper noun.

	SINGULAR.	SINGULAR.
Nominative	Britain	London
P ossessive	Britain's	London's
Objective	Britain	London

Proper names have no plural. (See page 6.) Write out and decline, as above, the following :- Europe, England, Sheffield, Leeds, India, Wales, Hull, Mary, Jane, York, Miton, Newton, Homer, June, May, Nelson, Lynn, Norfolk, Chester, Don, Tiber, Spain, France, Cook, Thomas, Thames, Scotland, Charles, William, James, Edwin, Etna, Vesuvius.

10. Declension of a common noun.

	SINGULAR.	PLUBAL.
Nominative.	Book	Books
Possessive.	Book's	Books'
Objective.	Book	Books
Nominative.	Lady	Ladies
Possessive.	Lady's	Ladies'
Objective.	Lady	Ladies

Write out and decline, as above-Crook, hook, desk, pen, stool, form, shoe, bat, horse, pig, tree, cup, pony, queen, prince, king, girl, boy, school, slate, fire, skate, knife, goose, child, tiger, lion, ass, brother, quill, nest, pupil, pencil, sun, moon, stars, ball, pot, clock, form, window, street, church, brush, lass, fox, monarch, lane, street.

LESSON IN CLASS.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is meant by case? From what is case derived ? What is meant by telling the cases ? 2. How many cases have nouns ? 3. What does the nominative express? 4. What does the possessive denote? 5. How is the possessive plural formed? 6. What does the objective case express? 7. Which two cases are alike? 8. How are nouns declined? Decline the proper noun, Stephen. Decline the common noun, fancy.

EXERCISES ON THE AGENT AND OBJECT.

Remember that NOUNS sometimes act, and sometimes are the object of an action. When a NOUN does anything, it is called the AGENT, and when something is done to it, it is called the OBJECT. (See page 14.)

Point out the AGENT and OBJECT in the following sentences :---

John loves Henry. Dogs kill rats. James reads books.

Animals drink water. Henry loves John. Bees suck flowers.

PARSING.

PARSING a word means pointing out its part of speech. Parsing a noun is telling of what person, number, gender, and case it is, and whether common or proper.

METHOD OF PARSING A NOUN.

What is a common noun? What is a proper noun? "Father," is a common noun, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, third person; plural, fathers. Decline it-Singular-Nominative, father ; possessive, father's ; objective, father. Plural-Nominative, fathers; possessive, fathers'; objective, fathers.

Book noun number gender case plural.-Decline it.

Parse the following nouns, as above, and consider that you are answering the questions, (or ask yourself the questions.)

What part of speech? Common or proper? What number? Gender? Case! Person? Give the plural, if a singular noun, but if a plural, give the singular. Decline it.

EXERCISES.

George, William, Edward, brothers, boys, mother's, bread, books, pens, tooth, tongs, horse, chair, river, father's, London, heart, Ann's master, wings, goose, kings, queens, names, fears, branches, desk, echo, ox's horns, mouse, neighbours', trees, cow, dog, lilly, alley, sky, loaf, stuff's, scoffs, halfs, sow, proof, self, wife, roof, hoofs, foot, foot's, city, joy, fly, woman, way, Jane's boots, Robert's shoe, brass, glass, women's, cargo, story, kerchief, planets, year's, printer, scholars', arms, bread

METHOD OF PARSING AN ABTICLE AND & NOUN.

A Prince.

TEACHER. What part of speech is a? What is an article? What kind?

Why?

Why?

To what does a belong? Where is a used? What part of speech is Prince? What is a noun? in the room. What kind of noun is Prince? Why? What gender? Why? What person? Why? What number? Why ? What case?

PUPIL.

An article. An article is a word put before, &c. The indefinite. (See p. 4.) Because it does not point out, &c. (See page 4.) To prince. In the singular number. A noun. A noun is the name. (See p. 5.) Tell some other names you see I see chairs, tables, cat, dog; these are nouns. Common. Because the term Prince is common to all Princes. Masculine. Because it denotes the male sex. The third. Because it is spoken of. Singular. Because it denotes only one. [See page 13. Nominative. Because it simply expresses, &c.

Parse the following in the same way as before :—A man's property, a woman's ornament; a monarch; a knife; an umbrella; an honour; an hour; a sister; the king's prerogative; the scholar's duty; the weavers' company; the ladies' school; the woodbines' fragrance; the sun's light; the children; the cities; an infant; the wolves; an elephant; the deer; the brethren; the masters; the school; a gate; the tooth; the mouse; a vice; an hope; faiths; a knowledge; a college.

ADJECTIVES.

1. An *adjective* is a word added to a noun, to express its quality, number, quantity, or any other circumstance belonging to it; as, "A good boy;" "A bad man;" "A long desk;" "A sharp knife;" "The green grass;" "Ten men;" "Much talk;" "This pen."

Adjective from adjectus, which means to add, to join to, to put to; and the word adjective, in its full literal sense, means something added to something else. It may be called an ad-noun, as being a word added to a noun. For instance, there are several turkeys in the yard; some black, some white, and some speckled; and there are large ones and small ones, old ones and young ones, and of different colours. I want you to go and catch a turkey; but I also want you to catch a white one, and not only a white turkey, but a young and large one. Therefore, I add or put to the noun, the words white, young, and large, which therefore are called adjectives.

An adjective may sometimes be known by its making sense with the addition of the word *thing*; as, a good thing; a bad thing; and generally answers to the question, what sort or what number; as, this sort; ten of them.

2. English adjectives, with the exception of the definitive, are not varied on account of gender, number, or case; thus we say, a *careless* boy, *careless* girls.

3. Adjectives are divided into several kinds; namely, common, proper, compound, verbal or participal, and definitive.

4. Common adjectives are those which indicate quality or quantity of the nouns to which they are attached; as, good, black, sour, high, low, rich, poor, &c.

5. The verbal or participal adjectives are those which are derived from verbs; as, learned, honoured, adored, charming, pleasing, &c.

6. Common and verbal adjectives admit degrees of comparison.

7. There are commonly reckoned three degrees of comparison, the positive, comparative, and superlative.

8. The positive is the primitive word, and expresses the simple quality; as, good, wise, great.

9. The comparative degree expresses a higher or lower degree of the quality than the positive; as, greater, less wise.

The comparative is employed to denote the superiority of one of two things or aggregates, whether belonging to the same class or to different classes; thus, a tree may be high, but another may be higher; the former is high, but the latter is higher; and this distinction is denoted by the comparative higher.

10. The superlative expresses the highest or the lowest degree; as, greatest, least wise.

The superlative compares a thing or an aggregate with *its own* class; and is employed when more than two are implied; thus, here are three trees that are tall. The second is taller than the first, and therefore is higher of the two; but the third is taller than the two others, and is therefore the highest, which is denoted by the superlative degree.

11. The simple word, or positive, of one syllable, becomes the comparative by adding r or er; and the superlative by adding st or est; as, wise, wiser, wisest.

12. Adjectives of more than one syllable are generally compared by prefixing more and most; as, frugal, more frugal, most frugal.

13. Diminution of quality, whether the adjective is of one syllable or of more than one, is formed by less and least; as, less happy, least happy; or by adding to some adjectives ish; as, black, blackish, salt, saltish.

14. The adverb *rather* also expresses a small degree or excess of quality; as, "She is *rather* little."

The words more and most, less and least, when prefixed to adjectives, are considered as forming part of the adjective, and consequently more happy, less happy, and similar words, when taken collectively, will be adjectives in the comparitive degree. More joined to a noun, is an adjective, but when joined to an adjective, it is an adverb.

15. Dissyllables in y, preceded by a consonant, change y into i before er and est; as, happy, happier, happiest; lovely, lovelier, loveliest.

16. Dissyllables ending in ble, as, noble, nobler, noblest; also those ending in e, as ample, ampler, amplest; and especially words accented on the last syllable, are often compared by er and est; as, discreet, discreeter, discreetest.

ETYMOLOGY.

17. Some adjectives are compared irregularly; as,

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.		SUPERLATIVE.
Good	Better		Best
Bad or ill	Worse	•	Worst
Little	Less		Least
Much or many	More		Most
Late	Later		Latest or last
Near	Nearer		Nearest or next
Far	Farther		Farthest
Fore	Former		Foremost or First
Old	Older or elder		Oldest or eldest

18. Some few adjectives are compared by adding most to the end of the word; as, under, undermost; upper, uppermost, &c.; and then they are considered in the superlative degree.

19. Some nouns are often used as adjectives; as, a wine vessel; a corn field; a gold cup; a windmill; a silver tea-pot, &c. Adjectives are sometimes used as nouns, and considered as such; as, Providence rewards the good.

20. MUCH is applied to things weighed or measured; MANY and FEW to those that are numbered.

21. Elder and eldest are applied to persons; older and oldest to things.

22. Some adjectives do not admit comparison. First: Words expressive of figure; as, round, square, oval, triangular, &c. Second: Definitive adjectives; as, first, second, &c.; one, two, &c. Third: Words denoting the highest or lowest degree; as, chief, extreme, &c. Fourth: Words implying matter, time, place, &c. Fifth: Words denoting unity and universality; as all, sole, &c.

23. Proper adjectives are such as are derived from proper names and nations; thus, English from England, French, Dutch, &c.; and Newtonians from Newton.

24. Compound adjectives are those which consist of two or more primitive words joined by a hyphen; as, nut-brown ale; four-footed beasts: party-spirit zeal.

25. Definitive adjectives are prefixed to nouns to limit and show their signification, without expressing any quality.

26. This and that, with their plurals, these and those, are called the *demonstrative*, because they precisely point out the subjects to which they relate; as, "This boy does

not read so well as that girl." Former and latter, with yon are of this class, serving for both singular and plural.

27. This refers to the nearest person or thing, that to the more distant, and yon to the most distant; as, "This man is wiser than that, but yon is the wisest."

This refers to the latter mentioned, that to the first or former. That is a relative pronoun, when it can be turned into who or which, without destroying the sense. (See RELATIVE PRONOUNS.)

28. Each, every, either, neither, are called the distributive, because they denote the persons or things which make up a number, as taken separately and singly; as, "Each of his brothers is favourably situated.;" "Every man must account for himself."

Each and every seem to be nearly allied in their meaning; they are not so in their application; for each refers to one of two as well as to one of a large number; every relates to more than two objects, and signifies each one of them as taken separately and singly. Either signifies one or the other, but not both. Neither imports not either.

29. None, any, all, such, whole, some, very, both, one, other, another, several, few, many, and such, are called the indefinite, because they do not limit their subjects to any exact number; these can have no degree of comparison.

30. Any, none, and some, are used in both numbers; both, all, and most, are used in the plural number only.

31. Other is declined in the following manner:---

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL,
Nominative.	Other	Others.
Possessive.	Other's	Others'.
Objective.	Other	Others.

One and another are declined in the same manner.

32. Numeral adjectives are such as distinguish the number or order of beings or things, and they are of two kinds, cardinal and ordinal.

33. The cardinal are those which express a number absolutely; They are one, two, three, four, &c.

34. The ordinal denote the order or succession in which any number of persons or things is mentioned; as, first, second, third, fourth, &c.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS.

1. What is an adjective? Which is the adjective in the following phrase:—A sweet apple? Answer: Sweet. Why? Because it expresses the quality of the apple, or tells what sort of an apple it is. Point out the adjective and tell the reason why,

ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON FIRST.

A long street; a large shop; a bad man; a swift horse; a fine house; a dull day; the blue sky; Moses was meek; an ill look; a wise man; an high hill; a rich jew; a cold day; a base woman; the low water; the dry sand; a great drunkard; a great charity; a grave preacher; a bright example; a dry week.

From what does the word adjective come? How is an adjective generally known? 2. Are adjectives varied? 3. How are adjectives divided? 4. What are common adjectives? 5. What are verbal or participal adjectives? 6. Do they admit degrees of comparison? 7. How many degrees of comparison are there? 8. What is the positive? 9. What does the comparative degree express? For what is the comparative employed? 10. What does the superlative express? What does the superlative compare ? 11. How does the positive of one syllable become the comparative? How the superlative?

LESSON SECOND.

Words of one syllable are compared by adding r or er, and superlative by st or est; as, wise, wisest. Compare the following:—Large, larger largest; green, fine, white, soft, lean, hard, rich, wild, thick, firm, stout, kind, black, high, low, mean, near, sour, tight, swift, fine, dry, deep.

12. How are adjectives of more than one syllable generally compared ? Compare the following words :—Amiable.—Amiable, positive; more amiable, comparative; most amiable, superlative: famous, grateful, pious, attentive, benevolent, unkind, candid, impertinent, disagreeable, languid, splendid, magnificent, balefu!, baneful, baptismal, barbarous, celestial, child-like, chaste, concessive, suitable.

Write on your slate sixty adjectives; then compare them the same way as you did the *first* and *second* lessons.

LESSON THIRD.

13. How are adjectives of diminution of quality compared? Lessen the quality of happy—less happy, least happy. Also of high—less high least high. Diminish the quality of hardy, enraged, enchanted, sick, wretched, diligent, cold, retired, rusty, ruddy, royal, mournful, rueful, rugged, ruinous, tumid. Diminish the adjective of the first and second lessons.

You say some adjectives are diminished below the positive, by adding ish; as, black, blackish. Diminish white—whitish. Also green, blue, fine, mild, stony, lofty, dry, dim, late, tall, yellow, grey, soon, light. Diminish sixty of the adjectives out of the *first*, second, and third lessons.

14. What does the adverb rather express? What are more and most, less and least considered, when prefixed to adjectives.

15. How are dissyllables ending in y compared? Compare stormy-stormy, stormiest. Give the rule after every word you compare:-Hardy, tardy, oily, stately, clumsy, flimsy, lazy, worthy, massy, naughty, handy, easy, shabby, manly, guilty, tidy, sleepy, noisy, mighty, bloody, nasty, lively. N.B.—These words may be compared by prefixing more and most. Diminish them as in third lesson.

16. How are adjectives ending in ble, e, and those accented on the last syllable often compared? Compare noble—Noble, nobler, noblest. Compare simple—Simple, simpler, simplest. Compare feeble, complete, ample, polite, severe, sincere.

LESSON FOURTH.

17. Are some adjectives compared irregularly? Name them. 18. Are some adjectives compared by adding most to the end of the word? In what degree are they considered? 19. How are some nouns often used? 20. To what is much applied? To what are many and few applied? 21. To what are elder and eldest, older and oldest applied? 21. What are those adjectives which do not admit comparison?

EXERCISES.—What should a more true story be? A true story. Why? Because true does not admit comparison What should a most perfect copy be? A more universal charity? The perfectest being? perfect copy; universal charity; perfect being. There are none perfect but God. Correct the following, and tell why you alter them :—Chiefest, perfecter, extremest, most true, more exterior, rounder, most infinite, more golden, most wooden, more English, more superior, more ulterior, more square, most round, most triangular, most oval.

23. What are proper adjectives? 24. What are compound adjectives? 25. What are definitive, and where prefixed? 26. What are this and that, these and those called? 27. To what does this refer? and to what does that and you refer? 28. What are each, every, either, and neither called? 29. What are none, all, &c., called? Repeat the 30th paragraph. 31. Decline other, one and another. 32. What are numeral adjectives? 33. What are the cardinal adjectives? What do the ordinal denote?

LESSON FIFTH.

Mention all the adjectives, and tell the degree of comparison, and compare them. A wise man. Wise, an adjective, positive, compared by r and st; as, wise, wiser, wisest. The mountanious country? Mountanious, adjective, positive, compared by more and most; as, mountanious, more mountanious, most mountanious. Why not mountaniouser? Because words of more than one syllable are generally compared by more and most. Now select the adjectives, and tell the degrees, and compare them according to the directions. Cold water; pretty girls; woody mountains; a numerous army; love unbounded; fiery darts; a peevish boy; justice severe; youthful jollity; a nobler victory; gentler gales; nature's eldest birth; the winds triumphant; the tempestuous billows; the rich man'sinsolence.

LESSON SIXTH.

Compare wise, high, happy, beautiful, good, bad, little, much, fair, tall, bright, long, deep, rich, great, poor, strong, grave,

ETYMOLOGY.

sparing, diligent, dry, many, indifferent, worthy, convenient, low, ardent, cold, base, hearty, healthy, lusty, covetous, near, wretched, gay, imprudent, first, least, better, attentive, bold, well, elder, former, more, farther, next, big, tender, feeble, base. Point out the adjectives that are to be found in the *first, second*, and *third lessons*, and compare them according to the rules given.

LESSON SEVENTH.

Write on your slate all the *articles* in the above lessons, and say why they are *definite* or *indefinite*. Write, also, the *adjectives* and *nouns*. Say what nouns the *adjectives* describe, and what are their *degree* of *comparison*. Of what gender, number, person, whether common or proper, and case, are the nouns? And decline them. The student should select forty or fifty nouns and adjectives

out of the parsing lesson, part the second, till they are familiar.

Exercises in Parsing promiscuously on the ARTICLE, NOUN, and ADJECTIVE.

A wise man.

(See page 16 for parsing article and noun.)

TEACHER.	PUPIL.
What part of speech is a?	An article.
What is an article?	An article is a word.
What kind is a ?	The indefinite.
Why the indefinite?	A is called the indefinite, &c.
To what does it belong?	To man.
What is the rule?	An article is put before, &c.
What part of speech is wise?	An adjective.
What degree of comparison?	The positive.
Why an adjective?	Because it is added to, &c.
Compare it.	Wise, wiser, wisest.
What part of speech is man?	A noun.
What is a noun?	A noun is the name, &c.
What kind of noun?	Common.
Why?	Because it is common, &c.
Of what gender?	Masculine.
Why?	Because it denotes the male,&c.
What number?	Singular.
What case?	Nominative.
Which person?	Third.
Why?	∫ Because the third person is
vv my .	spoken of.
Decline it.	∫ Singular-Man, man's, man.
L'evant in	Plural, men, men's men.

Now the student must parse the following in the same way, asking the same questions. If it is an ARTICLE, ask why? Definite or indefinite? Why? If a NOUN, ask why? Proper or common? Why? Gender? Why? Number? Why? Case? Why? Person? Why? Decline it. If an ADJECTIVE-Why? Mention the degree of comparison. Compare it. (See page 18.)

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

A wiser opinion; the wisest action; a high tree; a higher mountain; the highest power; a long arm; a longer room; the longest walk; a strong city; a stronger reason; the green park; the chief magistrate; a large white horse; Alfred the great; a drier place; the driest ground; the happiest boy; more beautiful moors; a sparing meal; the best proposal; the most sparing repast; a diligent child; the worst motive. (*Parse lesson first.*)

LESSON EIGHTH.

Parse the greatest sin; much time; more thing;; most men; a little room; a cheerful good old man; an open countenance; that excellent work; any country; the just man.

Parse the fifth lesson. Point out sixty adjectives, and compare them. Write out sixty nouns, and decline them.

PRONOUNS.

1. A pronoun is a word used *instead* of a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same noun or name; as, "A lady went to a butcher, and told him that she thought his meat was not so good as it had been."

ILLUSTRATION.—In the example, "A lady went to a butcher, and told him that she thought his meat was not so good as it had been," there are four pronouns; if there were no pronouns, the sentence must have been as follows:—"A lady went to a butcher, and told the butcher that the lady thought the butcher's meat was not so good as the butcher's meat had been."

PRONOUN (Latin pronomina) of pro, for, and nomina, plural of nomen, a noun or name; that is to say, instead of nouns.

2. There are two kinds of pronouns; viz,, the personal and the relative.

3. *Personal* pronouns are such as stand for nouns that denote persons.

4. There are five personal pronouns; namely, I, thou, he, she, it; with their plurals, we, ye or you, they.

The pronoun it, however, is generally applied to things.

5. Personal pronouns, like the nouns which they represent, admit number, person, gender, and case.

6. There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. I, thou, he, she, it, are singular; we, ye or you, they, are the plural nominatives.

Ye is often used instead of you in the nominative; as, ye are happy.

7. The persons of pronouns are three in each number, namely :---

I is the first person, who speaks; Thus is the second person, who is spoken to; He, she, or it, the person or thing spoken of, is the third person;

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

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" I caution you against him." Here I, is the first person who spoke; you, is the person spoken to, and is of the second person; and him is the third person, and is spoken of.

8. Pronouns have three genders; but variety of form, to distinguish the sex is confined to the third person. He is masculine, she is feminine, it is neuter.

9. Pronouns of the *first* and *second* person are either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the speaker, or of the person spoken to.

Note.—As the persons speaking, or spoken to, being, at the same time the subjects of the discourse, are supposed to be present, and their sex is commonly known, it is unnecessary that the pronouns of the *first* and second persons should undergo any variation to mark out their gender; but persons or things spoken of, being absent, it is necessary to make a distinction of gender; the *third* person of the pronoun, singular, is distinguished by using he to denote the masculine, she to denote the forminine, and it to denote the neuter gender.

10. Pronouns have three cases, the nominative, the possessive, and the objective. These cases are the same as those of nouns.

11. The nominative pronouns are five, in the singular, namely: I, thou, he, she, it; and three plurals, we, ye or you, they.

12. The possessive are eight, namely: my, mine; thy, thine; his; her, hers; its, in the singular; and six, our, ours; your, yours; their, theirs; in the plural.

13. The objective pronouns in the singular number are five; me, thee, him, her, it; in the plural, three, namely: us, you, them.

The objective case follows a verb active, or a preposition, expressing the object of an action or of a relation. The objective pronoun has, in general, a form different dom that of a nominative or possessive; but that of a noun always remains the same. (See page 14, No. 7.)

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

14. Personal pronouns are thus declined :

SINGULAR.			-
	NOM.	PO88	OBJ.
First person mas. or fem.	I.	My, mine.	Me.
Second person mas. or fem.	Thou.	Thy, thine.	Thee.
Third person masculine.	He.	His.	Him.
Third person feminine.	She.	Her, hers.	Her.
Third person neuter.	It.	Its.	It.
PLURAL.			
	NOM.	P088.	OBJ.

First person mas. or fem. We. Our, ours. Us. Second person mas. or fem. You. Your, yours. You. Third per. mas. fem. or neut. They. Their, Theirs. Them.

15. Two words are generally given to the possessive case, my, thy, her, our, your, their, and are prefixed to nouns: mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs generally follow the noun. His and its are used either with, or without nouns.

16. Mine and thine were formerly used as nominatives, instead of my and thy, before a noun or adjective begining with a vowel or silent h; as, "Mine eyes shall see thy salvation."

17. Hers, its, ours, theirs, yours, should never be written with an apostrophe s; thus, her's, it's, own's, &c.

18. Own, self, and selves are added to pronouns, to make them more emphatic; as, myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves. Self is sometimes a noun and sometimes an adjective.

19. The compound or emphatic pronouns, myself, thyself, &c., are alike in the nominative and objective cases.

LESSON FIRST.

EXERCISES .--- QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is a pronoun? Which is the pronoun in the following sentences? Give me that? *Me.* Mary loves you; she is a good girl; They are both good men; We love good men; Eliza is pretty, but she is not proud; I did give thee good advice, but thou didst not take it; John gave it us; this glove is hers; money is very useful, but we must not love if too much; ye are they that testify of me.

Tell me for what a pronoun is used. Instead of a noun. Then throw out the noun, and put the pronoun in the following sentences:—John lost John's book, should be John lost *kis* book. Jane made Jane's own gown; James loves James's father; Robert loves Robert's cat; Lucy gave Lucy's book to Lucy's aunt; a woman went to a man's house, and told the man, that the man was in great danger of being murdered by a gang of thieves, as a gang of thieves 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 neighbour's.

2. How many kinds of personal pronouns are there? 3. For what do personal pronouns stand? To what is *it* applied? 4. How many personal pronouns are there? Name them. 5. What do personal pronouns admit? 6. How many numbers have persons of pronouns? When is ye used? 7. How many persons of pronouns are there? Name them. 8. How many genders have pronouns? 9. What are pronouns of the *first* and *second* persons? Tell me something on the *note*. 10. How many *cases* have pronouns? Name them. 11. How many in the nominative singular and plural? 12. How many in the possessive? Name them. 13. How many in the objective? Name them. What does the objective follow? 14. How are personal pronouns declined? Decline I.

Tell or write the possessive and objective, singular and plural, of thou, he, she, it.

15. How many words are generally given to the possessive? 16. How were mine and thine formerly used? 17. How should hers, its, ours, theirs, and yours, be written? 18. To what are own, self, and selves added? 19. Are the compound pronouns alike in both nominative and objective cases?

PARSING A PRONOUN.

Gather out all the pronouns that are in the lessons a, b, c, d, e, f, of exercise in parsing, part second.

EXAMPLE.—I? A pronoun. What kind? Personal. What gender? Masculine or feminine. Number? Singular. Person? First. Why? Because it is the person who speaks. Case? Nominative. Decline it. (See 14th question.)

Parse the following as above, asking the same questions:--I, thou, we, me, us, thine, its, them, us, we, thee, his, mine, they, ye, you, yours, it, he, him, she, hers, her, ours.

Which pronouns are prefixed to nouns? Which are used without nouns.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. *Relative* pronouns relate, in general, to some noun, pronoun, or phrase, going *before* it, which is thence called the *antecedent*; as, "The master *who* taught us."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—In the sentence, "The master who taught us," who is the relative, and master its antecedent. "He that shall resolutely exert his faculties, and excite his virtues;" that is the relative, and he is the antecedent.

2. The simple relatives are, who, which, and that; they are alike in both numbers, and have three cases. The relative is always of the same gender, number, and person with its antecedent, but not always of the same case. 3. Who is thus declined :---

		SINGULAR and PLURAL.
•	Nominative.	Who.
	Possessive.	Whose.
	Objective.	Whom.

4. Who is applied to persons; as, "The boy who." Who is also applied to inferior animals, when they are represented as speaking and acting like *rational beings*; as, "A stag who came to a river, seeing his own image, said," &c.

5. Which is applied to animals and things without breath; as, "The dog which barks;" "The tree which produced no fruit."

6. That is often used instead of who or which, to prevent the too frequent repetition of who or which; as, "The boy that reads;" "The book that was lost"

7. That is a relative when it can be turned into who or which, without destroying the sense, and may be applied to persons, creatures, and things; as, "He that acts wisely deserves praise;" "Modesty is a quality that highly adorns a woman;" "This is the *iree that* blooms."

8. What is a compound relative, including both the relative and the antecedent, and is equal to that which, those which, or the thing which; as, "This is what I wanted;" that is to say, "The thing which I wanted."

What has, in all cases, this extended signification; for, when in the way of inquiry as to words of which we have no clear understanding, we say, what? our full meaning is, "Repeat to us, that which you have said, or the words which you have spoken." What! in the repetition of a question of amazement, is an interjection.

9. Who, which, and what, are called interrogatives, when they are used in asking questions; as, "Who is he?" "Which is the pen?" "What are you doing?"

10. Who inquires for a person's name, and WHAT for his occupation and character. WHICH selects one or more persons or things from a number.

11. When the affix, ever, is added to who, which, and what, their signification is unlimited; as, "Whoever they be;" "Whichever he does;" "Whatever he does is wrong."

12. That, which, and what, are used in the nominative and objective alike. Whose is frequently used in the possessive of which; as, "A religion whose origin is divine."

13. That is a conjunction, when it cannot be turned into who or which, but marks a consequence, an indica-

28

tion, or a final end, and joins sentences together; as, "That he never was so happy as he is now;" "Take care that every day be well employed."

14. That is a definitive adjective, when it is placed immediately before a noun, expressed or understood, which it defines or limits; as, "That house is mine;" "that boy is industrious."

REMARK.—Whether, signifying which of the two, and denoting interrogation, is not frequently used. A relative refers to a subject that is antecedent; an interrogative, to one that is subsequent.

15. Whoever, whosoever, and whoso are relatives equal to he who; or the person that.

16. Whatever and whatsoever, with whickever and whichsoever are sometimes adjectives, and combined with nouns, and sometimes compound relatives, equal to that which. These compounds, particularly whose, are now generally avoided. Whatever and whoever are most used.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

LESSON FIRST-EXERCISES.

1. What is a relative pronoum? 2. Which are the simple relatives? Which is the relative in the following sentences?—The game which he shot; the boy who reads; she that loves her hasband is virtuous. This is the boy whose slate was lest; from whom did you receive it? Bring me the pen which I made; you who have health should improve it. Of what number, gender, and person must the relative be? 3. How is who declined?

RULE.—When the antecedent or word going before the relative is singular, the relative should be singular; but if the antecedent be plural, the relative must be plural.

How do you know when the relative is singular and when it is plural? By its antecedent. Repeat the rule. What is its antecedent in the following sentences? The boy who is good should be esteemed? Boy. Which is the relative? What number is boy? Singular. What number is who here? Singular. Why? Because boy, its antecedent, is singular. Which is the relative in "Those who love us, we should obey?" Who. What number is who? Plural. Why? Because its antecedent, those persons, is plural; and the relative is always of the same number and person with its antecedent. Which person is who here? The third. Why? Because its antecedent those is of the third person, as being spoken of; and the relative is always of the same number and person with its antecedent.

Which is the relative in the sentence—"He that is discreet acts wisely?" That, Which person? The third. Why? Because its antecedent he is the third. What number? Singular. Why? Because its antecedent is singular; and the relative is always of the same number and person with its antecedent.

Tell the relative in this sentence :--- "We who were at the meeting of parliament." Who. Which person. First. Why? Because we, its antecedent, is the first; and the relative is always of the same person with its antecedent. What number is who here? Plural because we is plural.

Which person is the relative in "You who study much will be wise?" The second. Why? Because you is the second; and the relative is always of the same number and person as its antecedent.

LESSON SECOND.

ON RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

RULE.—When the relative refers to two singular nouns, coupled with and, it is plural.

What number is the relative in this sentence—"The dog and the cat which lay on the chair?" Plural. Why? Because the two nouns, dog and cat, are equal to a plural; and when the antecedent is plural, the relative is plural. Which is the relative? Which. Which person? Third; because dog and cat being spoken of, is the third, and the relative is always of the same person as the antecedent.

How many simple relatives are there?

4. To what is who applied? 5. To what is which applied? 6. To what is that applied? 7. When is that a relative? When you see a rotive, for what are you to look? Its antecedent. Whether do you look before or after the relative, for its antecedent? Before it. What kind of a word is its relative likely to be? A noun or pronoun. Why do you look for the antecedent? To find the number and person of the relative. How do you know when it he relative is singular? How do you know when it is plural?

In the following sentences, give the relative, point out its antecedent, and tell its number. Why? Person? Why?

He who is slothful cannot be good. Those whose fortunes are great should be generous. The evil which men do lives after them. He who makes the best use of time has none to spare;

She had no respect for virtues which she never practised. We who walk with wise men shall be wise. He who studies good things in youth will be wise in old age. The veil which conceals future events is a veil of mercy.

Repeat the answers to the questions four and five. What could you use instead of who, in the above sentences? That. What could you say instead of which? That. When the relative refers. to two singulars, in what number must it be? Plural. Why? When the relative refers, &c. Turn who and which into that, in the above sentences.

Some Examples in which the wrong application of the relative is employed :

Is it right to say, the men which love peace are most agreeable? No. What should we say? The men who. Why? Because

which is applied to animals, and things without breath. What could you say instead of who? *That*; for *that* is applied to both persons and things. The knife whom I lost is found. *Whom* should be *which* because *which*, and not *who*, is applied to things without breath. "The stone whom the builders refused;" "The moon who had an halo;" "The day whom we called fine;" "The star who twinkled;" "The comet whom we saw;" "My father which brought me up."

OF THE COMPOUND RELATIVES.

8. What is WHAT called? Throw out what in the following sentence, and put the thing which, or that which, or those which, in its stead :--

I have seen what, or the thing which, or those which I never saw before. Do you know what () became of the smugglers? They knew not what to say; I have forgotton what I have said; I have got what () I wanted; we do what () we please; accept what () we offer; they told him what () to do.

What would do instead of *what* in the following sentences? You need not mention what I will give you; remember what I tell you.

What simple word will do, instead of *the thing which*, in the following sentences? I have seen the thing which I never saw before. Do you know the thing which befel the smugglers? Believe the thing which he says. They forgave him that which he had done. We do that which we please.

9. Why are who, which, and what called interrogatives? 10. For what does who, what, and which inquire? 11. What have you to notice on the affix ever? 12. How are that, which, what, and whose used? 13. When is that a conjunction? 14. When is it a definitive adjective. 15. What are whoever, whosoever, and whoso called? 16. What are whatever, whatsoever, whichever, and whichsoever?

REMARKS.—1. Whoever, whosoever, and whoso, stand for he who, or the person who; throw these compounds out of the following sentences, and put he that, he who, or the person who, in their stead.—

Whoever neglects religion will repent of his folly. He who, &c. Whosoever is angry without a cause is a fool; whoever neglects pence will never acquire pounds; whosoever sinneth is the servant of sin; whomsoever the king favours I will favour— Him whom.

2. Whatever, whatsoever, whichever, and whichsoever, when compounds are equal to that which. Throw the compounds out of these sentences, and put that which in their stead:—

Instead of *whatever*, what could I say? I hear *whatever* he says with pleasure. Do whichever you please. Do whatsoever I command you. Whichsoever he takes makes him ill.

LESSON THIRD.

OF THAT.

Repeat the answers to the questions 12, 13, and 14. What is that in the following sentences? That man is wicked? A defini-

OBSERVE.—That should not be used as a relative immediately after the definitive adjective TRAT, you must use who or which. "That that dieth let it die." Zech. xi. c., 9 v. It should be— That which, &c. "For that that is determined shall be done." For that which. Dan. xi. c., 36 v.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

ON THE ARTICLE, NOUN, ADJECTIVE, AND PRONOUN.

The student will parse the article, noun, and adjective, as in the examples page 23rd, asking the questions as they are found in *part second on parsing*.

The boys who learn well study diligently.

INSTRUCTOR.	PUPIL.
What part of speech is t	he? An article.
What is an article?	An article, &c.
What kind?	The definite.
Why?	Because it points out, &c.
Why an article?	Because it is put, &c.
What part of speech is be	oys? A noun.
Why?	Because it is the name of, &c.
Proper or common? W	hy? Common, &c. Because, &c.
Gender, number, case?	
Person? Why?	The third. Because it is, &c.
Decline it.	
What part of speech is u	who? A relative pronoun.
Why a relative ?	Because it relates to the noun boy, before it.
What gender?	Masculine.
What number?	Plural.
	Because boys, its antecedent, is plural; and the relative
Why?	must always be of the same number, gender, and person, as the antecedent.
What person?	The third person.
Why?	Because it is spoken of.
Case?	Nominative.
Why?	Because boys is of the nominative
Decline it. (S	lee page 28, No. 3.)

Define that and what.

Which nouns are prefixed to nouns? Which are used without nouns?

Parse the following sentences, asking the same questions as in the parsing lessons, page 32:---

These things—those books—all who—a boy's drum—that breast which—a man who—their strokes—some flowery streams—he himself—his own hand—a nobler victory—they themselves—any such—whom—other—those men's hands—some other time—every —a few books—one's own mind—several fine days—the many philosophers—the first time—none are good, no not one—who did that—my brother's wife's mother—a resolution, wise, noble disinterested.

Select all the articles, nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, out of the lessons b, c, and e, and parse them as in this lesson.

Write on your slate thirty proper nouns, and twenty common. Write on your slate forty adjectives, and compare them. Write down twenty nouns of the neuter gender, and tell their number. Write down thirty possessive nouns, and tell their number and gender. All these may be found in the second part of parsing lessons.

Select all the nouns, articles, adjectives, and pronouns, out of the lessons p, q, r, s, and t.

When you meet with an article, ask the same questions as in page 16; also, the same questions for the nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, as in page 23rd.

Promiscuous Exercises in Parsing, and Examinations on the ARTICLE, NOUN, ADJECTIVE, and PRONOUN.

1. Compound nouns ending in full, and all those in which the principal word is placed last, form the plural in the same way as the nouns in page 6th, Rule 1; as, mouthfu's, fellow-servants, &c.

2. Parse as in lesson eighth, page 24, the following sentences :---A more beautiful moon; a numerous, gentle army, ever the same; Watts's hymn books; the chief magistrate; an enterprising officer; that excellent work; this very endearing situation.

3. How is the *possessive* of a compound noun formed? Repeat No. 4 and 5, page 13th; also, the possessive is formed by an hyphen, without an apostrophe and s; as, school floor: a townclerk; that is the foor of the school; the clerk of the town. We have thousands of these instances.

4. Adjectives are sometimes employed to express absence, or the want of quality in the object to which they are joined; as, "A cloudless sky," that is, "A sky without clouds." (See page 18, No. 13.

5. Diminish the adjectives of page 21st, Nos. 12, 13, and 15.

6. Such nouns as can be applied either to males or females, we can, with great propriety, call COMMON nouns; as, parent, child, cousin, friend, &c. See page 10, No. 5.

7. YOUTH and FOLK are generally used in the plural, although we have youths and folks.

с З

8. Are brace, youth, hundred, couple, folk, horse, foot, pantaloons, sheep, deer, considered singular or plural?

9. Is it right to say two sheeps, three sheeps? What could we say? Name those nouns ending in to, and how they form their plurals; also, those in ff and single f.

10. Spell the possessive, singular and plural, and tell where the apostrophe and s are placed, of the following words :--- Vice, hope, aunts, loss, crutch, bush, toy, sty, ruff, play, box, lass, brush and duty. Decline them as is shown in page 15th, No. 10. 11. VERY and WELL are used as adjectives ; as, "A very knave ;"

"She is happy and well."

12. Correct the following phrases :- Two mouses, three childs, four foots, six knifs, two year, a broken teeth, five pound, sixty stone, five oxes, ton sheafs, nine mans, one dishes, four gooses, four month. After you have corrected them, parse them, as is exemplified in lesson seventh, page 24.

OF VERBS.

1. A verb is a word that affirms something of its nominative, and expresses the state of being; as, "I am;" "I live." It also expresses deed, action, movement, or suffering of some person or thing; as, "I read;" "I strike;" "I jump;" "I am taught;" It is also used to ask a question; as, "Have you been?" It is also used to command, request, or exhort; as, "Be still;" "Give me a pen;" " Study diligently."

EXPLANATION .- We say a verb affirms something of its nominative in the following phrases :- I write, John reads; something is positively declared respecting the nominatives, I and John; namely, writing and reading. The NOMINATIVE case generally comes before a verb. (For an example, see page 14th, No. 7.) The verb may be denominated the life or soul of a sentence. No full sentence can be expressed without a verb repeated or understood.

2. Verbs are of FOUR kinds, active-transitive, activeintransitive, passive, and neuter. They are also divided into regular, irregular, and defective.

3. Active-transitive verbs express action, or a thing done by the nominative of the sentence, to some object; as, John strikes the table.

The active-transitive verb always supposes a person or thing that acts, an agent or doer; and another person or thing, an object which is acted on. (See page 15, for nominative and objective.

ILLUSTRATIONS .--- "John strikes the table." Here, John is the AGENT OF DOER of the action, and is called the nominative; strike is the active-transitive verb; table is the OBJECT acted on, and the "Strikes" passes from John, the docr, to table, the object.

4. An active-transitive verb may be known by its making sense of a phrase with a noun or pronoun after it; as, men, virtue, him, you, &c. Thus, commend is an active-tansitive verb, because we can say, 1 "commend, men, virtue, him, you, &c."

This rule may be relied on at all times, because an active transitive verb always marks the *action* of *its* subject or nominative, and makes good sense with the objective case of the *thing* or *person* on *which* or *whom it* acts.

5. An active-intransitive verb denotes action confined to the doer, actor, or nominative; as, "I run;" "They walk."

PREFACTORY REMARKS .--- The young tyro is very frequently puzzled with this class of the verbs. He frequently takes this verb for an active verb, as it is commonly called. In the examples above, "Run" and "Walk" evidently imply action or motion : but it does not, however, pass from the subject or nominative "I" or "He;" consequently, the action is confined to the DOER or Most of my predecessors have made but three kinds of ACTOR. verbs, "Active, passive, and neuter." Sometimes there is a nice discrimination between "Active and neuter verbs," which the student finds difficult to understand; but this difficulty is entirely removed by the introduction of the active-intransitive. "A neuter verb" expresses neither action nor suffering, but being or state of being; as, "I am," "I sit." Here is a state of existence without And there is an obvious distinction between active-intranaction. sitive, " I run," and the neuter, " I sit." Hence the utility of the active-intransitive verb. Sometimes an active-transitive verb, by the addition of a preposition, becomes a compound active-transitive verb; but it cannot be followed by the objective case, nor he construed as a passive verb. We cannot say, "She smiled him," or "He was smiled ;" but we can say, "She smiled on him," which is a compound active-transitive verb, and the verb may thus become passive; as, "He was smiled on by fortune."

6. A passive verb expresses the suffering of an action, or the enduring of what another does; as, "The table is struck."

7. A passive verb is an impression felt by any person or thing, and the nominative is the object of an action done by some *doer* or *agent*, expressed or implied; as, "John *is taught* by the master."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—1. Here, "Is struck" is a passive verb, and obviously implies the suffering of the action of what another does; in this sentence, the agent or doer is understood; as, "The table is struck by John." 2. Here, "Is taught" is a passive verb, as it expresses what is endured by the OBJECT John, from the AGENT OF DOER master.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

EXPLANATORY REMARKS.—1. The nominative to the PASSIVE VERB denotes the sufferer or receiver of the action.

2. The object suffering or not resisting, (for the word passive means unresisting, not opposing; suffering, not acting;) is still the nominative case to the verb; but it feels or suffers, when used with a passive verb, whereas it acts, when used as a verb active. We have expressed the active transitive verb by "I commend." By changing the phrase to "I am commended," we have an example of the verb passive.

3. An active transitive verb is made PASSIVE, by the aid or association of the auxiliary verb to be. "I carry," "I love," are active transitive; but "I am carried," "I am loved," are passive.

OBSERVE.—The nature of an action, as implied by an activetransitive or passive verb, is the same; but the expression is varied, accordingly as we wish to turn the attention of the hearer principally, to the agent, or to the patient or object. The idea annexed to the verb strives remains the same, whether I say, "John striks the desk," or "The desk is struck by John." In the former case, I call the attention of the hearer to the person or agent, and in this instance, the verb is said to be active; by the latter, I call the person's attention to the thing that underwent the action; and hence, the verb becomes passive. But you will porceive that, in the latter case, I have supplied the auxiliary verb to be, which is "Was."

8. A neuter verb simply expresses being, or a state of being, situation, or action, confined to the actor; as, I live, I am, I stand, I sit.

9. A neuter verb may be known by its not making sense with the addition of a noun, immediately following the verb; thus, I live you; I am books, is nonsense; therefore, these are neuter.

ILLUSTRATION.—In the phrases, I live, I am, I stand, I sit, the verbs live, am, stand, sit, imply being, state of being, situation, and merely show the existence or condition of the nominative I.

10. A regular verb is one that forms its past tense and past participle, by adding d or ed to the present; as, present, love; past, loved; past participle, loved.

11. An irregular verb is one that does not form both its past tense and past participle by adding d or ed to the present; as, present, choose; past, chose; past participle, chosen.

12. Auxiliary or helping verbs, by which verbs are generally conjugated, are defective, having only the present and past indicative; thus,

Present: Do, have, shall, will, may, can, am, must. Past: Did, had, should, would, might, could, was, must. Let and must are complete, and have no variation.

13. The verbs, do, be, have, and will, are not always awxiliaries, but are sometimes used alone, and are then principal verbs; as, "He does it;" "The sky is red;" "I have a pen;" "She wills his death."

14. These verbs are *auxiliaries* only when their meaning is dependent upon another verb, in the *infinitive* or *participle* following; as, "I shall love;" "I have loved."

OBSERVATIONS.—The verb LOVE is in the *infini/ive*, and the word LOVED is its *participle*.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is a verb? What is the verb of a sentence? 2. How many kinds of verbs are there? Mention them. 3. What is an active-transitive verb? What does the active-transitive verb suppose? Explain the illustration. 4. How may an active-transitive verb be known? 5. What does an active-intransitive verb denote? Explain the illustration. When may an intransitive become a compound active-transitive? 6. What is a passive verb? 7. What does a passive verb express? Tell something on the explanations. What does the word passive mean? How is an activetransitive verb made passive? Can you tell me anything on the observations? 8. What is a neuter verb? 9. How may a neuter verb be known? Explain the illustration. 10. What is a regular verb? 11. What is an irregu'ar verb? 12. What are auxiliary or helping verbs? Mention them. Explain let and must. 13. Are do, be, have, and will, always auxiliaries? 14. When are they anxiliaries?

LESSON FIRST.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES.

Which is the verb in the following sentences? James often drinks wine? Drinks. Why? Because it affirms something of its nominative; "Drinks" is asserted. Which is the verb in read your lessons; Jane forgot her book; Thomas builds houses; John shot a hare; cork the bottle; remember the poor; hold your plate; George makes pens; John caught a dove; Jabez writes letters; Paul sings hymns. Tell the verbs in the lessons *i*, *h*, and *j* of the exercises.

OF THE NUMBER AND PERSON OF VERBS.

1. The properties of verbs are number, person, mood, and tense or time.

2. Verbs have two numbers, the singular and the plural, and have generally a noun or pronoun before them; as, I love, we love.

3. The verb is always of the same number and person as the noun or pronoun before it; as I love is the singular number, and the *first* person; we love is plural, and of the *first* person.

37

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

REMARK .--- The verb in the plural never ends in s.

4. There are *three* persons in each number, the same as in nouns and pronouns; as,

	SINGULAR.	PLUBAL.
First person,	I love,	We love.
Second person,	Thou lovest,	You love.
Third person,	He, she, or it loves,	They love.

OBSERVATIONS.—1. The only variation in the termination of the verb is in the second and third persons singular; the first person singular and the third person plural being always alike.

2. The termination of the verb in the second person singular is always *lt*, *st*, or *est*; and that of the third person, *s*, *th*, or *eth*, but more generally that of *s*.

3. Thus love makes thou lovest in the second person, and he she, or it loveth, or loves in the third person.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What are the properties of verbs? 2. How many numbers have verbs? 3. What is the verb always? Repeat the remark. 4. How many persons are there in each number?

4. How many persons are there in each number ? OBSERVE.—The verb is always of the same number and person as the nominative, which is either a noun or a pronoun.

"I love." What number is *I*? Singular. How do you know that I is singular? Because it means only one. If I is singular, what number must the verb love be, in the phrase "I love?" Singular. Why? Because *I*, its nominative, is singular.

What number is *love* in "We love?" *Plural*. Why? Because we, its nominative, is *plural*; and the verb must be in the same number with the pronoun before it.

OBSERVATIONS.—The verb is always the same person as its nominative. If the nominative be the *first* personal pronoun, the verb is of the *first* person; when the second personal pronoun is the nominative, the verb is in the second person; if the pronoun is in the *third* person, the verb must also be of the *third* person.

Which person is love in the phrase "I love?" The first. Why? Because I, its nominative, is the first.

Which person is lovest in "Thou lovest? The second. Why? Because thou, its nominative, is the second.

1. Tell the number of the verb, and why, in—we drink wine; they write; I shout; she sews; he draws; it rains; you talk.

2. Tell the person of the verb, and why, in—I love; she eats bread; thou wilt go; we might read; he may love; we had loved; they were there; you must go; it blows.

Tell the verb, its person, number, of lesson first, page 37. Also, gather out the verb, tell its number and person of the lessons i, j, and k, of parsing exercises.

OF Moods or Modes.

Mood or mode, from the Latin modus, which signifies manner.

1. MOOD or MODE is the particular form of a verb, showing the *manner* in which the being, action, or passion is represented.

ILLUSTRATIÓN.—1. Moods or modes of verbs shew that a person has positively performed an action, or does perform it, or will perform it. 2. It shews that he may, or can, or ought to perform it conditionally. 3. It is indeterminate and doubtful whether he performs the action or not.

2. Verbs have *five* moods; namely, the indicative, potential, subjunctive, imperative, and infinitive.

3. The *indicative* mood simply indicates or declares positively, and without condition an action or event; as, I study; he sleeps; he is loved; or it asks a question; as, does he sleep? Is he loved?

OBSERVATIONS.—The three first examples are all positive assertions, showing action, state of being, or passion, without any conditional or qualifying circumstances.

4. The *indicative mood* is never used in any situation without a noun or pronoun before it; as, I read, he writes, the man runs.

5. The potential mood expresses possibility or liberty, power, will, or duty to do or suffer an action; as, I may sing; we may walk or ride; she can read; he would run; they should learn; you should only your parents.

6. The potential is known by the signs, may, can, might, could, would, should, must.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—I may sing implies the possibility of my singing. We may walk or ride, indicates we are at liberty to walk or ride. She can read, denotes the person has the power of reading if she chooses. He would run, denotes he has a will or inclination to run. They should learn, imports it to be their duty to learn, as well as to obey their parents, which is an obligation of all children. Some Grammarians discard this mood, and include it in the subjunctive mood; but I have used it for the sake of perspicuity, for under this mood, the signs, may, can, &cc., prefixed to verbs are more easily explained than under the subjunctive mood.

7. The subjunctive mood implies a doubt, uncertainty, condition, supposition, motive, or wish, and is preceded by a conjunction expressed or understood; as, if I fall; were he good he would be happy; or he would be happy if he were good.

8. The word subjunctive signifies subjoined to something else; and the subjunctive mood of itself makes no complete sense, but requires the addition of some verb or phrase, to make a full and distinct meaning; as, "If he *come*, I will go." "If he come" requires to be joined to "I will go," to make full sense.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" If I fall." Here my falling is uncertain; 1 may or may not fall. "Were he good, he wou'd be happy." Here are a condition and a supposition, but the conjunction is understood—"If he were good." "Supposing he were good, he would be happy." Here supposition is evidently implied. "Though he calls, I do not hear him." In this sentence, the assertion is positive, therefore, the verb calls is in the indicative mood, and preceded by a conjunction.

9. The verb in the subjunctive mood will always be of the *plural*, even when the nominative is singular, when *uncertainty* and FURE TIME are both expressed.

10. When doubt, condition, or uncertainty is implied, and the nominative is plural, there can be no mistake in the subjunctive; for the verb will always be plural with its nominative,

11. When the past or present tense or time denotes uncertainty, the subjunctive mood is precisely the same as the indicative; as, "If it blows;" "If thou goest."

as the indicative; as, "If it blows;" "If thou goest." 12. But a FUTURE uncertainty is expressed by the verb being in the plural; and the s is omitted in the first and third person singular, and the st or est in the second person.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—"If it blows at this present time." Here it is uncertain to me whether it blows or not, therefore, the indicative mood is used. But "If it blow to-morrow." Here both uncertainty and futurity are implied; consequently, we use the verb blow plural, or the subjunctive mood.

"If thou go to mo row." Here is FUTURE uncertainty, therefore, we omit the est of the verb in the second person of the indicative, and use the subjunctive.

You may generally know when the subjunctive mood is to be used, by supplying the auxiliaries, shall, will, should, would, could, might, may, can; as, if it blow, supply should,—if it should blow; if thou go,—if thou shou'd go, &c.

14. The *imperative mood* commands, orders, exhorts, entreats, or permits; as, do this; be ready; let us pray; hear, O my people ! go thy way.

The word *imperative* comes frm the Latin *imperio*, to command. This might, with propriety, be called the *commanding* mood, especially when a superior exercises authority over an inferior.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" Do this" expresses a command; "Be ready" is an order; "Let us pray" an exhortation; "Hear, O my people" an entreaty; "Go thy way" is a permission.

OBSERVATIONS.—Sometimes, the same word is used to express a command, an entreaty, or permission, according to the quality of the person using it. For instance, a master shall say to a servant, "Go home;" this is an order and a command. The servant asks his master, "May I go home ?" "Yes." Here, "Go" is an *entreaty* on the servant's part, and a *permission* on the master's.

15. The *infinitive mood* expresses the action, passion, or state of being of the verb, in a general and unlimited manner, without any distinction of number or person, and generally has to before it; as, To love, to read, to study.

16. The *infinitive mood* is the radical form of the verb, from which all the other parts are derived; as, carry, love, obey.

REMARK.— 1 word to before the infinitive is considered as part of the verb, and when omitted it is implied or understood; in every other situation it is a preposition.

ILLUSTRATION.—The infinitive mood I say has no regard to person, number, or time. To denotes that point of time or place to which action tends, and in which it terminates. When the infinitive verb is used, the signification to which it is limited, must be determined by the words used with it, whether before or after it; thus, "I desire to learn;" "I desire" shows now at this time "to learn." When the infinitive verb is the immediate subject of action, the to is omitted; as, I do to go should be, I do go. (See Rule 40 of Syntax.)

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

From what does mood or mode come? 1. What is mood? What do moods of verbs show? 2. How muny moods have verbs? Name them. 3. What does the indicative imply? Repeat the observation. 4. Where is the indicative mood never used? 5. What does potential mood express? 6. How is the potential mood known? 7. What does the subjunctive mood imply? 8. What does the word subjoin signify? 9. What number is the verb in the subjunctive mood? Repeat the sentence 10th. 11. When is the subjunctive mood precisely the same as the indicative? 12. How is the future uncertainty expressed? How do you know when the subjunctive mood should be used? 14. Explain the imperative mood? From what does the word imperative come? Explain the illustration. 15. What does the infinitive mood express? 16. What mood fit the radical form of the verb? How is the word to considered when placed before the infinitive mood?

OF PARTICIPLES.

1. PARTICIPLE is derived from the Latin participio, to partake, compounded of pars, (partis,) a part, and capio, to take; because, though it partakes of the verb, as action, passion, being, and time, it partakes also of the quality of an adjective in being added to a noun; as, "I am moving;" "Moving is troublesome."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—1. Here, in the first instance, moving is part of a verb; in the second, it partakes of the character of the noum; and when we speak of a moving or an affecting scene, the words moving and affecting are distinctly adjectives.

2. The participle is derived from the verb, and, like it, signifies being, doing, or suffering, but without affirming anything; as, "Loving to give;" "Devoted to study."

3. There are three participles; the present or active; as, loving; the perfect or past; as, loved; and the compound perfect; as, having loved.

4. The present participle always ends in ing, and denotes an action in progress but not finished; as, I am reading; he is writing; she was walking.

5. The perfect or past participle denotes an action finished, and is formed by adding d or ed to the present of a regular verb; as, blame, blamed; but in irregular verbs the past participle is differently formed.

6. The compound perfect participle is formed by adding the passive participle to the word having; as, "Having loved."

7. Participles become adjectives when prefixed to nouns expressing their quality or property, and will have the degree of comparison; as, "A *loving*, a more *loving*, a most *loving* man."

8. The participle is distinguished from the adjective by the participle expressing time; as, *loving*, present; *loved*, past; but the adjective denotes only quality; as, *high*, sweet, sour.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—Loving to go; loved to sing; moving in haste. The words loving, loved, moving, are participles, because they convey the idea of time and action. But a loving man; a moving spectacle; a learning boy; the words loving, moving, and learning, simply express quality, without regard to time, and, therefore, are adjectives.

9. Participles sometimes perform the office of nouns, and are used as such, as making sense either by themselves, or joined with adjectives; as, *learning*; a good *understanding*; a little *learning*; building; a great building.

10. The present participles are represented as active; all verbal nouns signify action, and the past are represented as passive; but they are not always so situated; the present are sometimes *passive*, and the past are frequently active; as, "He was walking on the road;" "He has relieved me."

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. From what is a participle derived? 2. How many participles are there? 3. In what does the present participle end? 4. What does the past participle denote? 5. How is the compound perfect participle formed? 6. When do participles become adjectives? 7. How is the participle distinguished from the adjective? 8. Do participles sometimes perform the office of nouns? 9. Are the present participles represented as active? What do verbal nouns signify? Gather all the participles out of lessons h, i, j. Write on your slate thirty participles of the present. Write thirty past participles.

OF TENSES OR DISTINCTIONS OF TIME.

1. TENSE of a verb expresses the *time* of the being, action, or passion which it signifies.

OBSERVE.—Tense is used for time, and is formed either by the variation which the single verb undergoes, or by the combination of two or more words.

2. Properly speaking, there are only three tenses, the present, past, and future; yet they are subdivided into three more, the perfect, the past perfect, and the future perfect.

3. The PRESENT TENSE represents an action or event, which is going on just now; as, I rule, I am ruled. Its signs are am, do, or does.

4. The PAST TENSE represents an action or event, as past and finished; as, "He shot the dog and was flogged." Its signs are was or did.

5. The PERFECT TENSE represents an action or event as finished, and yet refers to the present time; as, "John has just now come;" "I have heard him preach." Its signs are have, has, and hath.

6. The PAST PERFECT TENSE represents a thing as *past*, at or before, some other past action or event happened specified in the sentence; as, "I had finished my letter before he came." Its sign is had been.

7. The FUTURE TENSE represents an action or event yet to come, either with or without reference to the precise time when; as, "I will see you again, and your hearts shall rejoice." Its signs are shall or will.

8. The FUTURE PERFECT denotes that a future action or event will be completed at or before the time of another -----

 future action or event; as, "I shall have dined before three o'clock to-morrow;" "We shall have been studying two hours when it is five o'clock." Signs, shall have or will have.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What does the tense of a verb express? Repeat the observation. 2. How many tenses have verbs? Name them. 3. What does the persent tense represent? Tell its signs. 4. Tell the past tense and its signs. 5. Name the perfect tense and its signs. 6. The past perfect and its signs. 7. The future tense and its signs. 8. What does the future perfect denote? Tell its signs.

REMARKS on the TENSES and OBSERVATIONS on the AUXILIARY VERBS. (See page 36, No. 12.)

THE PRESENT TENSE.

1. Present tense is used in three forms, simple, progressive, and emphatic.

2. In its simple form, it expresses general truths; as, "Man is born to trouble." It expresses habits or customs; as, "He snuffs;" "He goes to school." It is sometimes applied to persons long since dead, when refering to their writings or works; as, "Newton is admired in his works."

3. In historical nurrations, it is sometimes used for the past; as, Titus enters Jerusalem, fights, and conquers." It is often used for the perfect; as, "Josephus tells us of the destruction of Jerusalem," for has told us.

4. When preceded by such words as when, before, as soon as, after, it expresses the relative time of a future action; as, "When he arrives, he will or shall be welcome."

5. The progressive form denotes an action begun and going on just now; as, I am studying my lesson.

5. The *emphatic* form is used to remove some doubt on the part of the person addressed; as, "I DO write."

Do is the emphatic form of this tense.

ON THE PAST TENSE.

1. The past tense has three forms; the simple, the progressive, and the emphatic.

This tense is used when the event or action is *completely finished*, and secludes all idea of the present time. It supposes that a portion of time has elapsed between the time of the action and the time of speaking; as, "He was down last week."

2. The progressive form expresses that an action was unfinished at a certain time past; as, "I was writing when he came."

The sign of the progressive form, was doing.

The emphatic form is did; as, "I did go."

After death, all agents are spoken of in this tense; as, "Solomon was wise." In narrative style, we use the past tense; as, "He was much admired;" "He did much good;" and not he has been, &cc; he has done much good.

ON THE PERFECT TENSE.

1. The perfect tense denotes a thing that is past just now: as, "The coach has arrived;" that is, just now.

2. It denotes an action done in a limited space of time, (as a day, a week, a month.) a part of which time has yet to elapse; as, "We have seen strange things to-day."

3. An action completed some time ago, but the consequences of which extends to the present time; as, " I have neglected my duty, and am therefore unhappy."

4. Duration or existence requires the perfect, when mentioning a deceased person or his works; as, "He has been dead three days already." Here is duration, because he is yet in a state of composition. We say, "Cicero has written orations," because the orations are still in existence; but we cannot say, "Cicero has written poems," because the poems do not exist; they are lost; therefore, we must say, "Cicero wrote poems."

5. When preceded by such words as when, before, as soon as, ofter, it expresses the relation and completion of a future action; as, "When he has finished his work he shall be rewarded." Here, use instead of "When," as soon as, or after, which will be tantamount to the same word.

6. The progressive form of this tense implies that the action is complete either at the present, or was at a very short time before; as, "I have been walking these six hours."

FUTURE TENSE.

The following modes of expression denote future time; as, "I an going to write next week," "I have got a sum of money to pay to-morrow;" that is, "I am under a present necessity or obligation to do a future act."

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. In this tense, shall and will ought to be used in all the three persons; as, "I shall or will have written this grammar before midsummer;" that is, "I am determined to have it finished before midsummer." Here future tense is not so much implied as my determination or resolution.

2. "Thou shalt finish thy drawing before Christmas;" "He thall complete his geometry before his father arrives." In these instances, I do not merely foretell what will be done, but positively what shall be done.

AUXILIARIES.

The *auxiliary verbs* are those which exist in the conjugation of principal verbs. They were originally principal verbs, having after them either the past *participle* or the *infiniive* mood, with the to omitted. (See rule of Syntax 40.) The list of auxiliaries is given in page 36. Do is not only an auxiliary, but also a principal verb. Do and did are the only parts of this verb which are used as auxiliaries to other verbs. Do and did express the

action more emphatically, as though a doubt existed on the subject, either as regarding the time or the fact; as, "I do write," in the present tense; and "I did write," in the past tense. (See page 36, for the auxiliaries.)

Do and did are sometimes used in the negative sense; as, "I do not write;" "I did not write." They are used in the interrogative sentence; as, "Do you study?" present tense; and "Did you study?" past tense. They sometimes supply the place of another verb, and make the repetition of it unnecessary; as, "You mind not your lesson as they do, or even as John does."

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Several of the auxiliary verbs in the potential mood refer to present, past, and future time.

The PRESENT tense is expressed; as, "I wish he would or could come just now."

PAST time is expressed with the similar auxiliaries; as, "I could go if I chose."

FUTURE tense is expressed thus; "If he should or would come to-morrow, I might, could, would, or should speak to him."

Must denotes necessity, and has no variation or relation to time; as, "I must do it." Here must denotes necessity and do the present time. "I must do it next week." Here future time is denoted by next week. "I must have done it." Here, must merely expresses necessity, as before; and have done it shows the past. This shows what we ought to do.

Can expresses power unconditionally; as, "I can write."

May and might express a right, liberty, possibility, capacity, and power, connected with some contingent event; as, "I have the power and may go, if I think proper;" "I might see him if I chose."

Would denotes the inclination of the will; as, "I would ride if I had a horse." This is contrary to may and might; for while in the former instance, there is power, &c., in the latter the power is not under the control of the agent.

Should signifies obligation or duty of the agent; as, "He should study if he intends to learn."

Could (the past tense of can) implies conditional power; as, "Can you lend me your horse?" "I can" expresses the condition; "If he was at home I could," or "I could if he was at home."

Ought is a defective verb, having only its present and past indicative; yet it is an independent verb, and always governs another verb in the infinitive.

Ought denotes obligation without any relation to time; as, "These ought ye to do." Here ought denotes the obligation, and do the present time. Again, "These ought ye to have done." Here, ought denotes duty or obligation, and the past time is denoted by to have done. Certainly time is not denoted by ought, as it is generally understood to be by most grammarians.

Be, have, and will are often principal verbs, when unconnected with a principal verb; as, "You have it." Yet they have their auxiliaries; as, "You have got it." (See page 37, No. 14.)

Am and was are used with the participle in ing, to express a continuation or progression of action; as, "I am writing;" "I was reading." (See page 42, No. 4.)

46

The auxiliaries do, did, am, was, have, had, shall, will, and can, designate absolute or unconditional affirmation; may, might, could, would, should, conditional affirmation.

Let is an active verb and complete. It has no variations. It is not an auxiliary, but a principal verb. Let not only expresses permission, but entreating, exhorting, and commanding. (See imperative mood.)

OBSERVATIONS.

To have, through its moods and tenses is only placed before the past participle; as, "I have worked;" "I had written."

To be is placed both before the present and past participle, through all the moods and tenses; as, "I am loving, I am loved;" "I was loving, I was loved."

To be is sometimes used to conjugate active-transitive verbs, by adding the present participle to the verb to be, through all its changes of moods and tenses; thus, instead of "I teach," we say, "I am teaching."

When an auxiliary is joined to a verb, the auxiliary goes through all the changes of persons and number; and the verbs continue always the same.

When two or more auxiliaries precede a worb, the first of them is changed, and the rest continue the same without change.

The *participle* is often used with neuter verbs; as, "I am musing;" "He is sleeping."

The neuter verbs, in many instances, admit the passive form, retaining still the neuter signification; as, "I am arrived;" "I was gone;" "I was grown."

Should is often used instead of ought, to express duty or obligation; as, "We should do good to all men."

Shall (its past tense should) sometimes signifies duty; as, "Thou shalt not steal," means, "It is thy duty not to steal."

Shall, in the first person future, only foretells; as, "I or we shall go to-morrow." In the second and third person, it promises, commands, or threatens; as, "They or you shall go;" "Thou shalt not steal;" "The soul that sinneth shall die."

Shall commands, &c., in the affirmative sentences only; when used as interrogatively, in all the persons, refers to another's will; as, "Shall I send you a copy of this grammar?" "Shall you go?" "Shall he go?" "Will James return to-morrow?" i.e., "Do you expect him?"

When the second and third persons are represented as the subjects of their own expressions or their own thoughts, shall foretells, as in the first person; as, "He says he shall be a sufferer from this bargain." Do you suppose that you shall go \mathcal{F} "

In the subjunctive mood, shall is used in the second and third persons, to signify conditional future time; as, "If you shall consent;" "If he shall proceed."

Will (its past tense would) is used as a mark of futurity, and signifies intention; as, "I will come." Here it marks a determinate intention. Will intimates a promise in the first person; as, "I will come;" that is, "I promise I will come." In the second and third persons, it only foretells; as. "You will or they will die." When will signifies intention in the second and third persons, it is pronounced emphatically, and is considered as a principal verb, the same as do and did; as, "Ye will not come unto me." See Deuteronomy 25c., 7 and 9 v. Would (the past of will) is used in this way. See Luke 16 c., 26 v.

Should and would are subject to the same rules as shall and will, they are generally attended with a supposition; as, "Were I to run I sh uld soon be fatigued."

Shall never expresses the will or resolution of its nominative or subject; the following express no resolution :-- thus, "I shall fall;" "Thou shalt go if thou wilt."

PROMISCUOUS RULES.

1. Verbs ending in ss, ch, x, or o, form the third person singular of the present indicative, by adding es; as, "He dress-es, march-es, brush-es, fix-es, go-es," the same as the nouns. (See page 7, rule 2.)

2. Verbs in y, with a consonant before it, is changed into i before the terminations *est*, *es*, *eth*, and *ed*, but not before *ing*; y, with a vowel immediately before it, is *not changed* into i; as,

PRESENT: Try, triest, tries, or trieth. PAST: Tried, shied, gloried. PRESENT: Pray, prayest, prays, or prayeth. PAST: prayed, stayed. PARTICIPLE: Trying, praying, playing, shying.

3. Verbs accented on the *last* syllable, and those of one syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before the terminations est, eth, ed, ing; but never before s; thus,

Allot, allottest, allots, allotteth, allotted, allotting. Blot, blottest, blots, blotteth, blotted, blotting.

4. Adjectives in the positive degree ending in d, g, or t, preceded by a single vowel, form their comparative and superlative by doubling those letters; thus, red, redder, reddest; big, bigger, biggest; hot, hotter, hottest. But if the d, g, or t, is preceded by another consonant, or by more than one vowel, the final consonant is not doubled in forming the two last degrees; as, kind, kinder, kindest; neat, neater, neatest; strong, stronger, strongest.

5. When the positive ends in y, preceded by a consonant, the y is changed into *ie*, in the other degrees; as, pretty, pretlier, pretliest. (See nouns, page 7, rule 4.)

6. The nominative and vocative cases in Latin, correspond with the English NOMINATIVE; the genitive is equal to the POSSESSIVE; and the dative, accusative, and oblative, are all comprehended in the OBJECTIVE. (See page 13, on CASE; also, page 14, No. 7.)

7. A noun in Latin is thus declined. (See pages 14 and 15. Nos. 8 and 9.)

	SINGULAR.		PLUBA	L.
NOMINATIVE,	Dominus,	A Lord	Domini,	Lords.
GENITIVE,	Domini,	Of a Lord	Dominorum,	Of Lords.
DATIVE,	Domino,	To a Lord	Dominis,	To Lords.
ACCUSATIVE,	Dominum,	A Lord	Dominos,	Lords.
VOCATIVE,	Domine,	O Lord	Domini,	O Lords.
ABLATIVE,	Domino,	By a Lord	Dominis,	By Lords.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

1. CONJUGATION is derived from the Latin CON, together, and JUNCTIO, joining, making joining together; and denotes the regular combination and arrangement of a verb, in all its variations of mood, tense, number, and person.

2. The conjugation of an ACTIVE VERB is stiled the active voice, and that of a PASSIVE VERB the passive voice.

VERBS ACTIVE are called regular, when they form their past tense and past participle by adding to the verb d or ed; as,

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
I work,	I worked,	Worked.
I love,	I loved,	Loved.

4. A regular active verb is conjugated in the following manner : thus,

TO LOVE.—Active voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
l person.	I love.	l person.	We love.
2 person.	Thou lovest.	2 person.	You love.
3 person.	He, she, or it loves or loveth.	3 person.	They love.

OBSERVATIONS.—*Thou* is used only among the society of Friends, in solemn style, and in addressing the Deity.

Ye is often used instead of you in solemn style.

л.

You has always a plural verb, even when it is applied to a single individual.

The second person singular is formed by adding st or est to the first person.

PAST TENSE.

SING. 1. I loved.	2. Thou lovedst.	3. He, she, or it loved.
PLUE. 1. We loved.	2. You loved.	3. They loved.

PERFECT TENSE.—Have, hast, or hath. PLURAL. SINGULAR. 1. I have loved. 1. We have loved. 2. You have loved. 2. Thou hast loved. 3. He, she, or it has or hath loved. 3. They have loved. PAST PERFECT TENSE.—Had, hadst. SINGULAR. PLURAL. I had loved.
 Thou hadst loved. 1. We had loved. 2. You had loved. 3. They had loved. 3. He, she, or it had loved. FUTURE TENSE.-Shall or will. SINGULAR. PLUBAL. 1. I shall or will love. 1. We shall or will love. 2. Thou shalt or wilt love. 2. You shall or will love. 3. They shall or will love. 3. He shall or will love. FUTURE PERFECT.-Shall or will have. SINGULAR. PLUBAL. 1. We shall or will have loved. 1. I shall or will have loved. 2. Thou shalt or wilt have loved. 2. You shall or will have loved. 3. He shall or will have loved. 3. They shall or will have loved. POTENTIAL MOOD. PRESENT TENSE.—May, can, or must. PLURAL. SINGULAR. 1. We may, can, or must love. 3. He may, can, or must love. 3. They may, can, or must love. PAST TENSE.—Might, could, would, or should. SINGULAR. PLURAL. 1. I might, could, or should love. 1. We might, could, or should love. 2. Thou mightst, couldst, or 2. You might, could or should shouldst love. love.

3. He might, could, or should 3. They might, could, or should love. love.

PERFECT TENSE.—May or can have.

SINGULAR.

- 1. I may or can have loved. 1. We may or can have loved.
- 2. Thou maystor canst have loved. 2. You may or can have loved.
- 3. They may or can have loved. 3. He may or can have loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.-Might, could, would, or should have.

SINGULAR.

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

- 1. I may, can, or must love.
- 2. Thou mayst, canst, or must 2. You may, can, or must love. love.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

51

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Sixe. 1.	If I love.	2. If thou lovest.	3. If he loves.
PLUR. 1.	If we love.	2. If you or ye love.	3. If they love.

PAST TENSE.

SING. 1. If I loved. 2. If thou lovedst. 3. If he loved. PLUR. 1. If we loved. 2. If you or ye loved. 3. If they loved.

PERFECT TENSE.—Have loved.

PLURAL.

- SINGULAR. I. If I have loved.
- 2. If thou hast loved.
- 3. If he has loved.
- 1. If we have loved. 2. If you or ye have loved. 3. If they have loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.—Had loved.

SINGULAR.

-). If I had loved.
- 2. If thou hadst loved.
- 3. If he had loved.
- PLUBAL. 1. If we had loved.
- If you or ye had loved.
 If they had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

 If thou love.
 If he, she, or it love.
 If you or yelove.
 If they love. Sixe. 1. If I love. PLUE. 1. If we love.

OBSERVE .- Shall and will are generally understood, they are implied; as,

SINGULAR.	PLUBAL.
l. If I shall or will love.	1. If we shall or will love.
2. If thou shalt or wilt love.	2. If you or ye shall or will love.
3. If he shall or will love.	3. If they shall or will love.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

loved.

٠ SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- 1. If I shall or will have loved. 1. If we shall or will have loved. 2. If thou shalt or wilt have 2. If you or ye shall or will have
 - loved.
- 3. If he shall or will have loved. 3. If they shall or will have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

2. Love, or love thou, or do thou 2. Love, or love ye or you, or do ye or you love. love.

This mood has neither a *first* nor a *third* person. The word *imperative* means command, and no person can command, himself; neither can an individual command a third person, for he may be absent. The second person can only be spoken to, and consequently only the second person can be commanded.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT, To love. PERFECT, To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Loving. PAST, Loved. COMPOUND PERFECT, Having loved. (For participles, see pages 41 and 42.)

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

LESSON FIRST.

1. From what is the word conjugation derived? What is its use? 2. What is the conjugation of an active verb stiled? 3. When are active verbs called regular? What is a regular verb? Conjugate the verb to love in the indicative mood, present tense. What person is thou? When is thou used? When is ye used? What kind of verb is used with you? How is the second person singular used?

The present tense has three forms: First, the simple; as, "To love." Second, progressive. Third, the emphatic, which is formed by the verb do with I love.

How do you conjugate the verb to love when you wish to give particular emphasis to it? I then use the emphatic word do; thus,

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

I do love.
 Thou dost love.

We do love.
 Ye or you do love.

3. He, she, or it doth or does love. 3. They do love.

How does the *third* person singular of the present tense of the indicative mood terminate in the singular? How does it terminate when it is plural?

LESSON SECOND.

What is meant by tense?
 How many tenses are there?
 How many in the indicative mood?
 Repeat their names.
 Give the *first* person singular in each of them.

PRESENT, I love.	PAST PERFECT, I had loved.
PAST, I loved.	FUTURE, I shall or will love.
PERFECT, I have loved.	FUTURE PERFECT. I shall have loved.

6. Repeat the second person singular of all the tenses in the indicative mood; thus,

PRESENT, Thou lovest. PAST, Thou lovedst. PERFECT. Thou hadst loved. PERFECT. Thou hast loved. FUTURE, Thou shalt or wilt love.

7. What person generally ends in st or lt? Second. 8. Repeat the third person singular, indicative mood, as numbers five and six. 9. Repeat the first person plural, indicative mood. 10. Repeat the second person plural. Repeat the third person plural. Take care to name the tenses as in numbers five and six. 11. What is the potential mood? 12. How many tenses in the potential mood? 13. Conjugate the verb to love in the potential

52

mood, present tense. 14. Conjugate the past tense—the perfect tense. 15. Tell the signs of the different tenses in the potential mood. 16. Tell the tenses and the signs of the indicative mood.

LESSON THIRD.

1. Repeat the *first* person singular, in the potential of the verb to love in all its tenses. 2. Give the second person singular of all the tenses, potential mood—now the *third* person singular.

3. Give the *first* person *plural*, potential mood, in all its tenses -now the *second*. Tell the *third* person plural, potential mood, in all its tenses. 4. How are the several tenses divided? Answer: Into simple and compound. 5. What is meant by them? Answer: A simple tense is that which is conjugated without an auxiliary; a compound tense is that which requires an auxiliary; thus,

Ì love is a simple tense.

I have loved is a compound tense.

6. Which is the auxiliary? Have. 7. Repeat the plural of the past tense, potential mood. Supply might, could, would, and should with the verb to love. 8. Conjugate the past perfect tense, both singular and plural, supplying might, could, would, and should have with to love. 9. Conjugate the verb to love in the past tense, in the emphatic form.

LESSON FOUR.

1. What does the subjunctive mood imply? 2. What does the word subjunctive signify? 3. What is the verb in the subjunc-tive, when futurity is expressed? 4. When is the subjunctive mood the same as the indicative? Which persons require the most attention? Answer : The second and third persons singular. 6. How many tenses in the subjunctive mood? Name them. 7. Tell all the first persons singular in the subjunctive mood. Conjugate, as in the second lesson, the second person, subjunctive mood, through all its tenses-now the third person singular. 8. Give the third person plural in all its tenses.-now the second. Conjugate the first person plural, subjunctive mood, in all its tenses. 9. How are you to know when the subjunctive mood is to be used ? 10. How is a future uncertainty expressed ? 11. By what part of speech is the subjunctive mood generally preceded? 12. Wherein does the second person singular, present indicative, differ from the second person singular, present subjunctive? 13. Wherein do they differ in the third person singular? 14. What words are generally understood in the future subjunctive mood? 15. In what tense do you use shall, must, might, may, could, have, would, had, will, should, can, would have, must have, could have?

LESSON FIVE.

1. What is the imperative mood? 2. What is meant by the word imperative? 3. Tell *twelve* words in this mood. 4. Is one verb ever used to express both a command and an entreaty, or a permission? 5. Has this mood either a first or a third person? 6. Why? 7. Which person is spoken to? (See page 13.)

8. Which person commands? 9. Which person is supposed to be absent? 10. What might this mood be called? 11. In what tense do you use shall have? can have? might have? may have? should have? 12. Which mood simply declares a thing? 13. Which mood asks a question? 14. Which mood commands? 15. Which mood has something joined? 16. Which mood signifies power or will? 17. How many persons has the imperative mood? 18. How many tenses? 19. Conjugate "To work" in the imperative mood. 20. Conjugate "To speak" and "To dance" in the subjunctive mood.

LESSON SIX.

1. What does the infinitive mood express? 2. What is the infinitive mood? 3. What is its sign? 4. When is "To" conconsidered part of the verb? 5. When is the to omitted? 6. Repeat the mood and conjugate its verb. 7. What is a participle? 8. Tell its tenses. 9. Conjugate the verb "To love," infinitive mood. 10. Repeat twenty verbs in the infinitive mood. 11. How may the infinitive mood be known?

Conjugate the following verbs, through all the moods and tenses, as the verb "*To love*":—Praise, admire, content, confess, delight, invent, purpose, perform, condemn, destroy.

LESSON SEVEN.

PARSING A VERB, PRONOUN, &c.

Go over the exercises of page the 38th.

RULE.—A verb must always agree with its nominative in number, person, and case; as, "I love;" "We love."

SEE OBSERVATIONS, page 38; also, RULE 4th of Syntax.

Parse "I love." "We love him." "They love us."

INSTRUCTOR'S Questions.	PUPIL'S Answers.
" I love."	•
What part of speech is I?	A pronoun.
Why a pronoun?	It is put, &c. (Page 24, No. 1.)
What kind?	A personal. (Page 24, No. 3.)
What gender?	Masculine or feminine.
Number?	Singular.
What person? Why?	The first. Because it speaks.
Case? Why?	Nominative. (See p. 25, No. 11.)
Decline it.	(See page 26, No. 14.)
What part of speech is love?	À verb.
What kind?	Active-transitive. (See p. 34,
what kind?	No. 3.)
Why?	Because it denotes action.
Regular or irregular?	Regular.
° °	(Because it forms its past tenses
Why?	and past participle by adding
-	and past participle by adding ed. (See page 36, No. 10.)
	• • • • • •

INSTRUCTOR'S Questions.	PUPIL'S Answers.
Mood? Why?	Indicative. It simply, &c.
nova: Why:	(See page 39, No. 3.)
//	Present. Because it represents
Tense? Why?	what is going on just now.
What is its smart on mamination ?	((See page 43, No. 3.)
What is its agent or nominative?	(The first. Because I, its no-
Person? Why ?	minative is the first. (See
rotoon. Why.	page 37, No. 3.)
	(Singular. Because I, its no.
Number? Why?	minative, is singular. (Sec
Jan	(page 37, No. 3.)
Conjugate the verb.	(See p. 38, No. 4; also p. 49, No. 4.)
" We love him."	•••••
What part of speech is we?	A personal pronoun.
Gender? Number?	Masculine or feminine. Plural.
Why plural?	Because, &c. (See p. 25, No. 11.)
Person? Why? Case? Why?)	
Decline it the same as the	
pronoun I, above.) What part of speech is love?	Vorb Acting transitive Basenso
What kind? Why? Regu-	Verb. Active-transitive. Because it makes its past tense, &c. In-
lar or irregular? Why?	dicative. Present tense. Be-
Mood ? Why? Tense ?	cause it shows what, &c. (See
Why?	page 43, No. 3.)
Which is its nominative? Per-)	We. First. Because we is of
son ? Why?	the first person.
,	(Plural. Because its nomina-
Number? Why?	tive is plural. (See paye 37,
	(No. 3.)
What part of speech is him?	A pronoun.
What kind? •	Personal.
What gender?	Masculine.
Number? Person? Why?	
Case? Why? Decline it. 5 "They love us."	
What part of speech is they?	Pronoun. (See page 24, No. 4.)
What kind?	Personal. (See page 24, No. 3.)
Gender?	Masculine or feminine.
Number?	Plural. (See page 24, No. 4.)
Person?	Third. (See page 25, No. 7.)
Why?	Because it is spoken of.
Case?	Nominative.
Why? Decline it.	Because, &c. (See p. 25, No. 11.)
What part of speech is love?	A verb.
What kind? Why? Regular)	Active-transitive. Regular. In-
or irregular? Mood? Why?	dicative. Because it denotes
Tense? Why? What is its	what is going on just now. They is its nominative. Third.
agent? Person? Why?	Because they, &c.
What number ?	Plural. (See page 37, No. 3.)
Conjugate the verb.	(See p. 38, No. 4; also p. 49, No. 4.)
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

•

٠

INSTRUCTOR'S Questions.	PUPIL'S Answers.
What part of speech is us?	A pronoun. (See page 24, No. 1.)
What kind ?	Personal.
What gender?	Masculine or feminine.
Number?	Plural.
Person? Why?	First. Because we speak.
Case? Why?	Objective. (Sec page 25, No. 13.)
Decline it.	(See page 26, No. 14.)

Parse, as above, the following phrases :- We love him-he loves us-thou lovest me-I love-love-we shall love them-they will divide the spoil.

LESSON EIGHT.

Parse, as in lesson seventh :-- John loves me-- it hates you-thou mayest ask him-to have loved-if thou love-unless he love -thou hast obeyed my voice-honour thy father-

LESSON NINE.

Parse, as in lesson seventh :--- He might have been baptized--he may have betrayed us-we should have diverted the childrenreprove thou him-having-he must have been wonder-soldiers should defend their country.

LESSON TEN.

Parse, as in lesson seventh :--- I.et him work--- do thou cheer her-having surveyed it-admired and applauded, she became vain-write a letter-they will be good-if thou wert him-be wise.

OF VERBS .--- TO BE.

The verb to be is also a principal verb, as well as an auxiliary. As a principal, it signifies to exist. Thus, to be well or ill, signifies to exist in a state of health or illness. This verb, in its compound tenses, requires, like other verbs, the help of the verb to have; as, "I have been ill;" I should have been safe." As an auxiliary, the verb to be, in its moods and tenses, is used with both present and past participles of other verbs; as, "He is walking;" " It is finished."

Conjugation of the neuter verb TO BE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SING. 1. I am.	2. Thou art.	3. He, she, or it is.
Plur. l. We are.	2. You are.	3. They are.

By adding the present participle of an active or a neuter verb to the verb to be, you make it the progressive form, or the continuation of an action; as, "I am loving, thou art loving, he is loving,"

56

&c. If you place a participle after the verb to be, immediately after you have conjugated as above, you will facilitate your improvement, and save a large portion of time; thus,

PRESENT PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I am loving. 2. Thou art loving. 3. He is loving. PLUR. 1. We are loving. 2. You are loving. 3. They are loving.

OBSERVE .--- You may use another verb instead of "Loving;" say, working, learning, favouring.

PAST TENSE .---- Was.

SING.	1.	I was.	2.	Thou wast.	3.	He, she, or it was.
PLUR.	1.	We were.	2.	You were.	8.	They were.

PAST PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I was loving, &c. PLUR. We were loving, &c.

PERFECT TENSE.-Have been.

SINGULAR. l. I have been. 2. Thou hast been.

مردينه والمحاص هدانا

PLURAL. 1. We have been.

3. They have been.

- 2. You have been.
- 3. He, she, or it has been.

PERFECT PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I have been loving, &c. PLUR. We have been loving, &c.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.-Had been.

SING. 1. I had been. 2. Thou hadst been. 3. He had been. PLUR. 1. We had been. 2. You had been. 3. They had been.

PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I had been loving, &c. PLUR. 1. We had been loving, &c.

FUTURE TENSE.—Shall or will be.

SINGULAR.

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

FUTURE PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I shall or will be lov- PLUE. 1. We shall or will be loving, &c. ing, &c.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.—Shall or will have been.

SINGULAR. 1. I shall or will have been.

- PLURAL.
- 1. We shall or will have been.
- 2. Thou shalt or will have been. 2. You shall or will have been.
- 3. He shall or will have been. 3. They shall or will have been.

FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I shall or will have PLUR. 1. We'shall or will have been loving. been loving.

р3

- - We shall or will be.
 You shall or will be.
- 3. They shall or will be.
- PLURAL.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.—May, can, or must be.

SINGULAR.

PLUBAL.

1. We may, can, or must be. 1. I may, can, or must be.

2. Thou mayst, canst, or must be. 2. You may, can, or must be. 3. He may, can, or must be. 3. They may, can, or must be.

PRESENT PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I may, can, or must PLUR. 1. We may, can, or must be loving, &c. be loving, &c. ٠

PAST.—Might, could, would, should.

 I might, could, would, or should be.
 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.
 He might, could, would, or should be. SING.

PLUR. 1, 2, and 3. Might, could, would, or should be.

PAST PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I might, could, would, or should be loving, &c. PLUR. 1. We might, could, would, or should be loving, &c.

PERFECT.—May or can have been.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. I may or can have been. 1. We may or can have been.

Thou maystor can have been.
 He may or can have been.
 He may or can have been.
 They may or can have been.

PERFECT PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I may, can, or must have been loving, &c.

PLUR. 1. We may, can, or must have been loving, &c.

PAST PERFECT.-Might, could, would, or should

have been.

(1. I might, could, would, or should have been.

- 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been. 3. He might, could, would, or should have been. SING.

PLUB (1. We might, could, would, or should have been. 2. You might, could, would or should have been. 3. They might, could, would, or should have been.

PAST PROGRESSIVE.

SING. 1. I might, could, would, or should have been loving. PLUR. 1. We might, could, would, or should have been loving.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SING. 1. If I am. 2. If thou art. 3. If he is.

PLUE. I. If we are. 2. If you are. 3. If they are.

Note.-Be is often used in the Scriptures, and some other books, for the present indicative ; as, "We be true men;" for, we are true men. (See John 8 c., 33rd and 41st vs.

PAST TENSE.

		If thou wast.	
PLUB. 1. If	we were. 2.	If you were.	3. If they were.

PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
l. If I have been.	1. If we have been.
2. If thou hast been.	2. If you have been.
3. If he has been.	3. If they have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
l. If J had been.	1. If we had been.
2. If thou hadst been.	2. If you had been.
3. If he had been.	3. If they had been.

SUPPOSITIONAL TENSE.

SING. 1. If I were.	2. If thou wert.	3. If he were.
Plur. 1. If we were.	2. If you were.	3. If they were.

FUTURE TENSE.

SING. 1. If I be. PLUE. 1. If we be.	 If thou be. If you be. 	 3. If he be. 3. If they be.
	OB,	

SINGULAR.

1. If I shall or will be.	 If we shall or will be.
2. If thou shalt or wilt be.	2. If you shall or will be.
3. If he shall or will be.	3. If they shall or will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. If I shall or will have been. 1. If we shall or will have been.

2. If thou shalt or will have been. 2. If you shall or will have been.

3. If he shall or will have been, 3. If they shall or will have been.

The tenses of this mood are the same as those of the *indicative* mood, except the *suppositional* tense and the first portion of the *future* in the *subjunctive*. This mood is frequently violated both in conversation and written composition. When the verb has no reference to *future* time, it has of course either to *past* or *present*, and then if it express *doubt* or *condition* the verb varies the same as in the indicative.

Mark the difference between the past tense "If I was," and the suppositional tense, "If I were." The past tense expresses a doubt, molive, or condition respecting a fact, which, if ever it did occur, must have occured in some past time; thus "If he was at the meeting, he delivered the lecture." Here I am in doubt respecting some past action.

The suppositional tense expresses no more doubt than the other tenses; but, it is used to discriminate between a past uncertainty and a *future* uncertainty; thus, "If he do promise, he will certainly perform."

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

To know what tense you should use ask the questions—Has the time of the event taken place? or, is it now taking place? In the sentence, "If he was at the meeting," &c. Has the time of the meeting taken place? Yes; but I am uncertain whether he was there or not. Then you use the past tense indicative mood. Again, "If he do promise," &c. Has he promised? No. Does he promise? No. Then if ever he promise it must be at a future time, and the suppositional tense is used, in which tense the verb is of the plural form. (See page 59 and Rule 46 of Syntax.)

OBSERVE.—Though, unless, except, whether, &c., may be used as well as if.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SING. 2. Be, or be thou, or do thou be. PLUR. 2. Be, or be ye or you, or do you be.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT, To be. PERFECT, To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Being. PAST, Been. PERFECT, Having been. QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is a regular verb? What is an active verb? 2. What is a neuter verb? 3. What is a passive verb? 4. What does it express? 5. Is the verb to be a principal verb? 6. If a principal verb, what does it signify? 7. What does it require in its compound tense? 8. What does it require as an auxiliary verb? 9. Name the first person singular of all the tenses in the indicative 10. The third person singular. The second person singular. mood. 11. Tell the first person plural of all the tenses indicative mood. 12. Name the second person plural. 13. Repeat the third person plural. 14. How do you make the progressive form in the verb to be? 15. Repeat the present progressive, indicative mood. 16. Name the first person singular of all the tenses, indicative mood, of the progressive form. 17. Name the second person singular. 18. 'Tell the third person singular. 19. Repeat the first person plural of all the tenses, indicative mood, of the progressive form. 20. Repeat the second person plural. 21. Name the third person plural. 22. Can you use any other verb instead of loving? Yes. 23. Mention some other verbs. 24. What persons require the most attention ? 25. Do you know the meaning of the word transitive? Transitive means an action passed from the actor to the object. (See page 34.)

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION ON THE POTENTIAL MOOD.

1. What does the *potential* mood express? 2. How many tenses has it? 3. How many less than the indicative mood? 4. What persons and tenses are varied in the conjugation of the *third* person of "To be," potential mood? 5. Which persons require the most attention? Answer: The second and third persons singular. 6. Mention the second. 7. How many tenses in the sub-

junctive mood, 8. Mention all the first persons singular in the potential mood. 9. The second. 10. Tell the third. 11. Repeat all the first person plural, potential mood. 12. The second. 13. Name the third person plural. 14. Mention the store of the person tense—of the past—of the perfect—of the past perfect—15. Repeat the progressive form of all the tenses in the first person singular—the second—the third. 16. Mention the plurals of the first person—of the second—of the third.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION ON THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. What is the subjunctive mood? 2. How many tenses are there in the subjunctive mood of the verb to be? Seven. 3. Name them. 4. Which of the tenses are like the indicative? 5. Which differ from the indicative? 6. Where is be used? 7. Repeat the suppositional tense. 8. When is it used? 9. Is this tense ever violated in printed composition? 10. When the verb has no reference to the future what mood is used? 11. Does the suppositional tense express more doubt than the other? No. 12. Why is it used? 13. How may you know which tense to use? 14. What conjunctions may be used instead of *if* in this mood? 15. Repeat the *first* person singular of all the tenses—the second the third. 16. Mention the plurals of all the tenses of the *first* person—of the second—of the *third*.

PROMISCUOUS QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How many persons are there in the imperative mood? 2. How is the verb conjugated in the imperative mood? 3. What does the imperative mood do? 4. What is the infinitive mood? 5. Mention the past, present, and perfect participles. 6. How many tenses are there in the infinitive mood. 7. Mention all the changes that "Love" undergoes. 8. Conjugate the verb "To have," through all its moods and tenses. OBSERVE.—The future perfect of the subjunctive mood, in which tense and mood the verb "To have" is never used. 9. Mention a verb in the present tense. Tell twenty verbs in the past and thirty in the future tense.

CONJUGATE THE VERB TO BE.

EXAMPLES.—" Am" is a verb, masculine or feminine gender, *indicative* mood, present tense.

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

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

Proceed in this manner, through the following lessons.

1. Is, was, has, have, she has been, I was, we are, hast been, we have been, you have been, wast, hadst, they were, they had been, he had been, it was, it has been, it shall be, shalt be, mightst be, canst have been, you can be, thou be, be thou, wilt be, they may have been, if thou wast, being, will have been, am, it is, must be, having been, I be.

2. I can be, mayest be, she may be, canst be, he must be, he would be, it might be, wouldst be, wast, you could be, mightst be,

PASSIVE VERB.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

A passive verb is formed by putting the past participle of an active verb after the verb to be, through all its persons, moods, and tenses; as, "I am loved;" "I was awaked ;" " It was mown ;" " I have been forsaken."

TO BE LOVED .- Passive voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SING. J. 1 am loved. 2. Thou art loved. 3. He is loved. PLUR. I We are loved. 2 You are loved. 3. They are loved

PAST TENSE.

SING. 1. I was loved. 2. Thou wast loved. 3. He was loved. PLUR. 1. We were loved. 2. You were loved. 3. They were loved.

PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR. 1. I have been loved. 2. Thou hast been loved.

3. He has been loved.

PLURAL. 1. We have been loved.

2. You have been loved.

3. They have been loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

- 1. I had been loved.
- 2. Thou hadst been loved.
- 3. He had been loved.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall or will be loved.

2. Thou shalt or wilt be loved.

3. He shall or will be loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

PLURAL.

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

PLURAL.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

- 1. I shall or will have been loved. 1. We shall or will have been loved.
- 2. Thou shalt or wilt have been 2. You shall or will have been loved. loved.
- 3. He shall or will have been 3. They shall or will have been loved. loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

- 3. He may or can be loved.
- I may or can be loved.
 We may or can be loved.
 Thou mayst or canst be loved.
 You may or can be loved.
 - 3. They may or can be loved.

- PLURAL.
 - 1. We had been loved.
 - 2. You had been loved.
 - 3. They had been loved.

PLURAL.

be, we were, been.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

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

PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

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

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

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

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SING. 1. If I am loved. 2. If thou art loved. 3. If he is loved. PLUE. 1. If we are loved. 2. If you are loved. 3. If they are loved.

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I was loved.	1. If we were loved.
2. If thou wast loved.	2. If you were loved.
3. If he was loved.	3. If they were loved.

PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

- 1. If I have been loved. 2. If thou hast been loved.
- 3. If he has been loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

- 1. If I had been loved.
- 23 If thou hadst been loved.
- 3. If he had been loved.

SUPPOSITIONAL TENSE.

SINGULAR.

- 1. If I were loved.
- 2. If thou wert loved.
- 3. If he were loved.
- PLURAL. 1. If we were loved.
- 2. If you were loved.
- 3. If they were loved.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

- 1. If we have been loved.
- 2. If you have been loved.
- 3. If they have been loved.

PLUBAL.

- 1. If we had been loved.
- 2. If you had been loved.
- 3. If they had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

SING. 1. If I be loved. 2. If thou be loved. 3. If he be loved. PLUE. 1. If we be loved. 2. If you be loved. 3. If they be loved.

OR,

PLURAL.

- 1. If I shall or will be loved. 1. If we shall or will be loved.
- 2. If thou shalt or wilt be loved. 2. If you shall or will be loved.
- 3. If he shall or will be loved. 3. If they shall or will be loved.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- 1. If I shall or will have been 1. If we shall or will have been loved.
- 2. If thou shalt or will have been 2. If you shall or will have been loved.
- 3. If he shall or will have been 3. If they shall or will have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

FLURAL.

2. Be thou loved, or do thou be 2. Be you or ye loved, or do you loved. or ye be loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT, To be loved. PERFECT, To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRES. Being loved. PAST, Been loved. PERF. Having been loved.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is a passive verb? 2. How is it formed? 3. How many tenses are there in the indicative mood? 4. In the potential? 5. In the subjunctive? In the imperative? 6. In the infinitive? 7. In the participles? 8. What is the first person singular, of the indicative mood? The second? The third? 9. What is the first person plural of the tenses indicative? The third? The second person? 10. Mention all the first persons singular of all the tenses in the potential mood. The second. The third. 11. Repeat the first person plural. The second. The third. 12. How many tenses are there in the potential mood? Name 13. Repeat the imperative mood. 14. Conjugate loved, them. imperative mood. 15. How many tenses in the infinitive mood? Name them. 16. Mention the participles. How many tenses have they ? 17. What is the subjunctive mood ? What do you mean by the suppositional tense? 18. Give the first person singular of all the tenses of the subjunctive mood. The second. The third. 19. Tell the first person plural. The second. The third. 20. Conjugate " Work," in the subjunctive mood, through all its tenses.

Conjugate the following verbs in the passive voice :--Pursue, propose, inform, ask, honour, promote.

EXERCISES ON THE PASSIVE VERB.

Thou art loved; it is loved; she was loved; you were loved; it has been loved; we were loved; they are loved; be thou loved; loved; having been loved; being loved; if I be loved; thou canst have been loved; to be loved; unless I had been loved; though I were loved: lest thou wert hired; unless I will be loved; if I shall have been loved; ye would be loved; thou wilt be loved; you shall be hated; he must have been divided. Parse lesson j. Parse lesson k. Parse lesson m.

PROMISCUOUS QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES.

What is a verb? What is a neuter verb? How may it be known? What are regular verbs? What is a passive verb? What is an active-transitive verb? What an active-intransitive? What part of the verb has no nominative? How many parts of the verb have "Have" in them? What mood has a conjunction understood? Repeat the imperative mood. Which person of the Which person commonly ends in t? What is verb ends in s? the past participle? The present? The perfect? Is there any resemblance between the present potential and the perfect potential mood? What has the perfect more than the pre-sent? What other tenses have some resemblance? In what do they differ? What part of the verb has no nominative? Infinitive. How many parts of the verb have "Had" in them? Conjugate love with do in the emphatic form. Also conjugate music, work, read, write, sing, play, run, learn, in the same way. What is used instead of a noun? How many voices have verbs? Name them. How many tenses are there? What are they? What do they signify?

OBSERVE.—To have, as a principal verb, signifies to possess. Thus, "I have a book;" "I have a horse;" which means I possess a book and a horse. In this case the verb "To have" has as many moods and tenses as the verb "To love." As an auxiliary, the verb have is used for forming the compound tenses of the other verbs. These tenses are formed by prefixing the auxiliary have, through all its moods and tenses, to the past participle; as, I have worked; we had worked; they might, could, may, or should have worked; he shall or will have worked. (See the verb "To be," page 56.)

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The nominative to an ACTIVE-TRANSITIVE VERB denotes the doer of the action.

2. The nominative to an ACTIVE-INTRANSITIVE and to a NEUTER denotes merely the *subject* of the verb.

3. The nominative to a PASSIVE VERB denotes the sufferer or receiver of the action.

LESSON FIRST.

Of Active-transitive, Active-intransitive & Neuter Verbs.

What are active transitive, active-intransitive, and neuter verbs? Are the following verbs active or neuter?—Shine, sob, jump, work, skip, sin, dance, frown? Are the verbs sit, lie, set, lay, rise, active or neuter? Which is the verb in the following sentences:—James beats the dog? Beats. Why? Because it is something done. What kind of a verb? Active-transitive. Why? Because the action is passed from the actor or doer to the object. Who is the actor? John. What is the object? Dog. How may you know when the verb is active-transitive, active-intransitive, or neuter? (Look back to your verbs, pages 34, 35, and 36.) Tell the verb in "James walks in the garden." Walks. Why? Because it is doing something? What kind? active-intransitive. Why? Because it is an action confined to the actor. Who is the actor? James. What is the nominative to an active-intransitive verb? The subject of the verb. "I sleep?" Sleep. What kind? Neuter. Why?

Select the verbs out of the lessons h, i, j, k, l, and m, and exercise them as in the above examples.

LESSON SECOND.

What is a passive verb? Conjugate as the verb to be loved:---Detain, inform, instruct, offend, examine. 1. Is the verb to love regular or irregular? Why? Is it active, passive, or neuter? Why? Answer: To love is a regular verb, because it forms its past tense and past participle in ed; as, present, love; past, loved; past participle, loved. It is active-transitive, because it makes sense with a noun after it; as, "I love books." 2. Is the verb to be loved regular or irregular? Why? Is it active-transitive, activeintransitive, neuter, or passive? Why? "To be loved" is regular, because it forms its past tense and past participle in ed; as, present, love; past, loved; past participle, loved. It is passive, because it is formed by adding the past participle to the verb to be; as, "To be loved." 3. Is the verb to grow regular or irregular? Why? Is it active-intransitive, active-transitive, passive, or neuter? Why? "To grow" is an irregular verb, because it does not form its past tense and past participle in ed; as, present, grow; past, grew; past participle, grown. It is neuter, because it will not make sense with a noun after it; as, "To grow." Ask the same questions of the following verbs:---To learn, to praise,

Ask the same questions of the following verbs :-- To learn, to praise, to destroy, to propose, to admire, to confess, to give, to hear, to dig, to be loved, to be informed, to be saved, to be destroyed, to be beat, to be bent, to be, to be caught, to go, to come, to fly, to cling, to fall, to be followed.

(For parsing verbs, see page 54.)

LESSON THIRD.

When the nominative is plural, what will the verb be? If of the *first* person, what person will the verb be? If the *third* person singular? If the second person plural? Conjugate the following verbs in the *indicative* mood, present tense :—Beat, gain, read, eat, walk, desire, interpose. Conjugate the following verbs in the *potential* mood, past tense:—Fear, hope, dream, fly, consent, improve, controvert. Conjugate the following, in the subjunctive mood, past and future tenses:—Drive, prepare, starve, omit, indulge, demonstrate.

ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON FOURTH.

Conjugate the following verbs in the *imperative* mood :—Believe, depart, invent, give, abolish, contrive. Conjugate, in the *infinitive* mood, present and past tenses :—Grow, decrease, live, prosper, separate, incommode. Write the present and past participles of confess, disturb, please, know, begin, sit, set, eat, lie, lay. Conjugate the following in the *indicative* mood, present and past tenses of the passive voice :—Honour, abase, amuse, slight, enlighten, displease, envelope, bereave.

LESSON FIVE.

Conjugate the following verbs, in the present and past tenses, in the subjunctive and potential moods :--Know, shake, heat, keep, give, blow, bestow, beseech. Write the following in the second and third persons singular and plural, indicative and subjunctive moods:--Approve, condemn, mourn, freeze, know, arise, drive, blow. Write in the subjunctive mood, in all its tenses:--Divert, defeat, embrace, throw, slay, invent.

LESSON SIX.

Conjugate in the suppositional tense of the subjunctive mood:— Scrub, seal, seel, tire, toil, toll, imbibe, immure, impend, lurk, mark, marl, rely, savise. Parse the following sentences:—Who can preserve himself? He lives respected. We have been rewarded. Let him be animated. She might have come. He must have been. He may have repented. It can be enlarged. You have excelled us. Thou dost mark it. Man, know thyself. Let us improve ourselves.

LESSON SEVEN.

Parse the following sentences:—This is what I have feared. Hers is finished, hers is to do. They might have been honoured. Be you entreated. Let them be prepared. Thou mayest be discovered. Ye should repent. Our hearts are deceitful. To have conquered himself was his highest honour. Being reviled, he blessed.

LESSON EIGHT.

Compare the following adjectives :--Amiable, moderate, docile, disinterested, favourable, base, sensible, mild, brave, attentive, perplexing, studious, worthy, little, stronger, next, better, lower, elder, honest, deep, true, perfect. Decline the following nouns:--Church, lass, bee, knife, calf, life, wife, goose, penny, cherry.

LESSON NINE.

Parse the following sentences: —Deliberate slowly. Execute promptly. Discomposed thoughts agitate passions; a ruffled temper poisons every pleasure of life. Damp air is unwholesome. The book is his; it was mine. Your conduct met their approbation. Prepare thy lesson. We shall have agreed. I would be happy. A most miserable end. I have searched; I have found it.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

An *irregular* verb is one that does not form both its *past tense* and *past participle* by adding d or ed to the present; as,

.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Am,	was,	been.
Arise,	arosė,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, r.	awaked.
Be,	was,	been.
Bear, to bring forth,	bore,	born.
Bear, to carry,	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beaten.
Become,	became,	become.
Been,	been,	been.
Befall,	befell,	befallen.
Beget,	begot,	begotten.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.
Bend,	bent,	bent.
Bereave,	bereft, R.	bereft, R.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.
Bid, Bind	bid, bade,	bidden, bid. bound.
Bind, Bite	bound, bit,	bitten, bit.
Bite, Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built,	built.
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught, R.	caught, R.
Chide,	chid,	chidden, chid.
Chose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave, to stick or	clave, R.	cleaved.
adhere.	-	.l
Cleave, to split,	clove, or cleft,	cloven, cleft.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed,	clad, R.
Come,	came,	come. cost.
Cost,	cost,	
Creep,	сгерt, crew, к.	crept. crowed.
Crow,		cut.
Cut, Dare, to venture,	cut, durst,	dared.
Dare, B, to challenge		
Deal,	, dealt, r.	dealt, r.
Dig,	dug, R.	dug, R.
01		und in

Digitized by Google

ETYMOLOGY.

PRESENT. Do, Draw, Drink, Drive. Dwell, Eat. Fall. Feed. Feel. Fight. Find, Flee (from a foe) Fling, Fly, (as a bird) Forget, Forsake, Freeze, Get, Gild. Gird, Give. Go, Grave, Grind, Grow, Have, Hang, * Hear, Hew, Hide, Hit, Hold. Hurt, Keep, Knit, Know, Lade, Lay, Lead, Leave, Lend. Let, Lie, to lie down, Load, Loose, Make. Mean,

Meet,

Mow,

.

PAST. did, drew, drank, drove, dwelt, R. eat or ate. fell, fed. felt, fought, found, fled. flung, flew, forgot, forsook. froze, got, gilt, R. girt, R. gave, went, graved, ground, grew, had, hung, R. heard. hewed, hid, hit, held. hurt, kept, knit, R. knew, laded, laid, led. left. lent. let, lay, loaded, lost, made, meant, met.

PAST PARTICIPLE. done. drawn. drunk. driven. dwelt. eaten. fallen. fed. felt. fought. found. fled. flung. flown. forgotten, forgot. forsaken. frozen. got. gilt, R girt, R. given. gone. graven, R. ground. grown. ĥad. hung, R. heard. hewn, R. hidden, hid. hit. held. hurt. kept. knit, R. known. laden. laid. led. left. lent. let. lain. laden, R. lost. made. meant. met.

mown, R.

* Hang, to take away life, is regular; as, "The robber was hanged;" but we say the hat was hung up.

mowed,

69

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PRESENT. Overcome, Overdo, Pay, Put, Read, Rend, Rid, Ride, Ring, Rise, Rive, Run, Saw, Say, See, Seek, Seethe, Sell. Send. Set. Shake. Shape, Shave, Shear. Shed, Shine, Shoe. Shoot. Show, Shred. Shrink, Shut, Sing, Sink, Sit, Slay, Sleep, Slide, Sling, Slink, Slit, Smite, Sow, Speak, Speed, Spend, Spill, Spin, Spit, Split, Spread, Spring,

PAST. overcame, overdid, paid. put, read, rent, rid. rode, rung, rang, rose, rived, ran, sawed. said, saw, sought. seethe or sad, sold. sent, set. shook, shaped, shaved. sheared, shed, shone, R. shod, shot, showed, shred, shrunk, shut, sung, sang, sunk, sank, sat, slew, slept, slid, slung, slang, slunk. slit, R. smote, sowed, spoke, spake, sped, spent, spilt, R. . spun, span, spit, spat, split, spread, sprung, sprang,

PAST PARTICIPLE. overcome. overdone. paid. put. read. rent. rid. rode, ridden. rung. risen. riven. run. sawn, R. said. seen. sought. sodden. sold. sent. set. shaken. shaped, shapen. shaved, shaven. shorn. shed. shone, R. shod. shot. shown. shred. shrunk. shut. sung. sunk. sat. elain. slept. slidden. slung. slunk. slit, or slitted. smitten. sown, R. spoken. sped. spent. spilt, R. spun. spit. split. spread. sprung.

Digitized by Google

70

ETYMOLOGY.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
	stung,	stung.
Sting, Stink,		stung.
Stride,	stunk, stank, strode or stride,	stridden.
Strike,		
	struck,	struck, stricken.
String,	strung,	strung.
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Strow or stew,	strowed or strewed,	{ strown, strowed, strewn, strewed.
Swear,	swore	sworn.
Sweat,	swet, R.	swet, R.
Swell,	swelled,	swollen, R.
Swim,	swum, swam,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swing.
Take,	took,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Thrive,	throve,	thriven.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	trodden.
Understand,	understood,	understood.
Wax,	waxed,	waxen.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	wound.
Work,	wrought,	wrought, or worked.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote.	written.

N.B. Those verbs which are conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly, are marked with an R. Those past tenses and past participles which stand first are the most eligible.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective verbs are those which are used only in some of their moods and tenses.

N.B.—All the auxiliaries, except *do*, *be*, and *have* are defective. The following is a list of the DEFECTIVE VERBS.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPE.
Can.	could,	
May,	might,	·······
Shall,	should,	
Will,	would,	
Must,	must,	
Ought,	ought,	
	quoth,	

71

Digitized by Google

Digitized by Google

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

OF THE VARIATIONS OF THE DEFECTIVE AND AUXILIARY VERBS.

HAVE varies both in the second and third persons. MUST and QUOTH have no variation. The other DEFEC-TIVE VERBS vary only in the second person singular: thus.

70	<i>I</i> ,	singular. thou,	he,	PLURAL. We, ye, you, they.
Present.		may-st	may,	may.
Past.		might-st,	might,	might.
Present.		can-st,	can,	can.
Past.	Could,	couldst,	could,	could.
Present.	Shall,	shal-t,	shall,	shall.
Past.	Should,	should-st,	should,	should. 💡
Present.	Will,	wil-t,	will,	will.
Past.	Would,	would-st,	would,	would.
Present.	Have,	has-t,	has,	have.
Past.	Had,	had-st,	had,	had.
Present				
and	Ought,	ought-st,	ought,	ought.
Past.	-	-		

Name the past tense and past participle of take, am, begin, clothe, drink, eat, fly, go, hang, know, lie, mow, overdo, pay, rive, see, threw, understand, wind, sow, show, run, lade, knit, hew, freeze, give, fall, drive, dare, chose, catch, build, bid, beget, awake, bite, chide, crow, draw, flee, gild, grow, hit, leave, overcome, rend, shave, strow, win.

Name the verbs in this lesson that have their past tense and past participle alike. Some of the irregular verbs have two past participles. Conjugate them after the following examples :---

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.

1. I bereft or I bereaved. 1. We bereft or we bereaved.

- 2. Thou bereftest or thou be- 2. You bereft or you bereaved. reavedst.
- 3. He bereft or he bereaved. 3. They bereft or they bereaved

PERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

- 1. I have bereft or I have be-1. We have bereft or we have reaved. bereaved.
- 2. Thou hast bereft, or thou hast 2. You have bereft or you have bereaved. bereaved.
- 3. He has bereft or he has be- 3. They have bereft or they have ' reaved. bereaved.

The past, perfect, past perfect, and future perfect, indicative, with the perfect and past perfect *potential*, perfect *infinitive*, and past participle, are exercised with *bereft* or *bereaved* in the same way that the past and perfect, as is before exhibited.

PLURAL.

PLURAL.

72

The whole of the passive verb will have bereft or bereaved, and so on with other verbs that have two past participles; for it is the past participle that is put after the verbs have and be, and not the past tense. Although there are two ways of the past tense in such verbs as bid, which has bid, bade, in the past tense, yet it will have only one way, namely, bid, in all the tenses above mentioned, that have the auxiliaries have or had, and through all the passive roice, that is, after any part of the verb to be.

EXERCISES ON SOME VERBS.

EXAMPLES.—1. "To love" is a regular verb, because it forms its past tense and past participle in ed; as, present, love; past, loved; past participte, loved. 2. "To grow" is an irregular verb, because it does not form its past tense and past participle in ed; as, present, grow; past, grew; past participle. grown. Exercise the following in the same way:—To learn, to praise, to destroy, to propose, to admire, to be bent, to be caught, to be destroyed, to fly, to go, to be, to hear, to dig, to be saved, to confess.

OF ADVERBS.

ADVERB is derived from *ad* to, and *verbum* a word or verb.

1. An adverb is a word added to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, to express some additional circumstance, or modification of time, place, or manner, respecting it; as, He reads well;" "A truly excellent scholar;" "He conducts himself very honestly."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—1. "When you sow small seeds, make the earth very fine, and if it has of late been dry weather, take care to press the earth *extremely* hard upon the seeds." Here are four adverbs— "When" relates to *time*. "Very" is added to *fine*, to denote a high degree of fineness. "Of late" denotes time. "Extremely" is here to express the manner or quality of the earth, viz. "*extremely hard*."

2. An adverb may be generally known by its answering to the questions, how ? when ? or where ? thus, "An exceedingly pious woman." How pious ? Answer. Exceedingly; this word is an adverb. He wrote lately. When did he write ? Lately; here lately is an adverb. It went upwards. Where did it go ? Upwards.

3. ADVERBS are of various kinds; the chief are those of time, manner, place, quantity, doubt, number, &c.

4. ADVERBS of TIME are easily known by their meaning; as, now, to-day, before, not yet, always, long-ago, immediately, often, seldom, ever, daily, hitherto, &c.

5. ADVERBS of MANNER OF QUALITY are the most numerous, and are generally formed by adding ly to an adjective; as, wise, wisely; bad, badly; just, justly; &c., or by changing le into ly; as, able, ably. So, also, too, thus, likewise, and many others.

6. Most adverbs ending in ly may be compared by prefixing to them more and most; as, lovely, more lovely, most lovely.

7. Words derived from adjectives ending in y, to form the adverb, the y is changed into i; as, heavy, heavily.

8. ADVERBS of COMPARISON are, alike, better, best, least, less, very, more, most, often, much, soon, &c.

9. ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION and of DOUBT are, truly, surely, nay, not, no, yes, yea, indeed, really, &c. Perhaps, peradventure, perchance, and possibly, are those of doubt.

10. ADVERBS of PLACE are, above, below; downwards, upwards; backwards, forwards; hence, whence, thence; here, there, where; hither, thither, wither; herein, &c.

11. ADVERBS OF NUMBER are, often, once, twice, &c. Those of ORDER are, firstly, secondly, thirdly, &c.; and adverbs of NEGATION are, nay, no, not, not at all, &c.

12. ADVERBS OF SEPARATION are, apart, asunder, separately; of PREFERENCE are chiefly, especially, rather; of ABATEMENT are, scarcely, hardly; of INTER-ROGATION are, how, why, &c.

13. ADVERBS of CONJUNCTION are, together, generally, and universally.

14. Most adverbs are contractions, which are used to express a sentiment in few words; as, he acted wisely; that is, with wisdom; where denotes in which place.

15. Some words are used as adverbs; as, to-day, yesterday, and tomorrow. Some are used as adverbs and adjectives, as, little, better, much.

Much is used, 1. as an adverb; as, it is much better to give.

- - 2. as an adjective ; as, in much wisdom is much grief.

- - 3. as a noun; as, where much is given much is required.

16. ADVERBS which are composed of nouns, instead of at, on, &c, we use a; as, aside, afoot, ashore, &c.

17. INDEFINITE ADVERBS are, again, always, daily, hourly, ever, never, seldom, oft, often, oft-times, &c.

18. ADVERBS of COMBINATION are those which are joined to prepositions; as, thereof, whereof; herewith, therewith, &c.

ETYMOLOGY.

19. COMPOUND ADVERBS are those which consist of two or more simple words; as, by-and-by, which should always be joined by hyphens; as, now-a-days.

OBSERVE.—Some words are of different parts of speech, according to their positions in sentences, and to their signification. Care to the definitions of the parts of speech will be your only and unerring guide.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES FOR EXAMINATION.

From what is the word adverb derived? 1. What is an adverb? 2. How may an adverb be known? 3. What kind of adverbs are there? 4. What are adverbs of time? 5. Of manner? 6. How may adverbs be compared? 7. How do words derived from adjectives ending in y form the adverb? 8. What are adverbs of comparison? 9. Of affirmation? 10. Of place? 11. Of Number? 12. Of separation? 13. Of conjunction? 14. What are most adverbs? 15. What nouns are used as adverbs? 16. What have you to notice of adverbs composed of nouns? 17. What have you to say on indefinite adverbs? 18. On adverbs of combination? 19. On compound adverbs?

Which is the adverb in the following sentence?—" My servants are here." Here. Whether is "Here" joined to a verb, an adjective, or an adverb? To a verb, namely, are; and it denotes the place, therefore here is an adverb of place. "George reads distinctly?" Distinctly. To what is distinctly joined? To the verb reads; and it expresses the circumstance of distinctness or the memorer in which he speaks. She reads very correctly? There are two adverbs, very and correctly; the very being connected with correctly, to express an additional manner of correctness. Gather sixty adverbs out of lessons n, o, p, and q. (Page 92.)

(For the method of parsing, see part second, page 84.)

PARSING.

For parsing the article, see pages 16 and 23, asking the same questions. For the noun, see page 23, asking the same questions. For the adjective, see page 23, asking the same questions. For the pronoun, see page 32. For verb, see pages 54, 55, and 56.

" Immediately the cock crew. Peter wept bitterly."

MASTER.	PUPIL.
What part of speech is <i>imme</i> - diately?	An adverb.
· · · · ·	(Because it expresses a circum-
Why an adverb?	Because it expresses a circum- stance or time of the cock's crow.
From what is this adverb formed?	Form the adjective immediate by adding ly.
What part of speech is the?	Àn article.
What <i>kind</i> ?	The definite.
Why the definite ?	Because it refers to, &c.
Why the definite ? Why is it an article ?	Because it is put before, &c.
•	Е2

MASTER.	PUPIL.
What part of speech is cock?	A noun.
Tell why a noun? Common or)	
proper? Why? Gender?	
Why? Number? Why?	(See pages 16 and 23.)
Case? Why? Person? De-	
cline it.)	
What part of speech is crew?	A verb.
What kind?	Active-intransitive.
Regular or irregular?	Irregular.
What mood?	Indicative mood.
Why?	∫ Because it simply declares the
why:	cock crew.
What tense?	Past tense.
Why the next tongs?	Secause it represents the action
Why the past tense?	as past.
Number?	Singular number.
Why? See 97 on number	(Because cock, its nominative,
Why? See p 37, on number.	is singular.
What person?	The third.
Why ?	∫ Because its nominative, cock,
··· шу :	is the third person.
Decline it in its own mood, viz., indicative.	
Give its present tense and past participle.	

LESSON FIRST.

Parse the following Lesson in the same way, asking the same questions every part of speech as before. I am very happy. You are extremely unhappy. Rise early. Run quickly. I will go soon, You may go presently. I saw her long ago. They talk too much. You ran hastily. He fell fast asleep. No, indeed. We do not often see them. That mistake seldom occurs. That boy is little improved. She has studied.

LESSON SECOND.

You read too little. They are all alike. The ship was driven ashore. Ye shall know hereafter. We are in good company; and are all very well. I never saw a liar prosper. I seldom see diligence lose its reward. Never did I see a disobedient child happy. We love our mother dearly. Possibly I may have speedy intelligence. She sometimes complains.

LESSON THIRD.

He fell fast asleep. The oftener you read attentively. They will perhaps. Let him that is athirst. He was abroad three years. He called me aside and told me. He went above us all. Why may we not come? Indeed, I really think he does not deserve censure. How did it happen? The water is frozen. He has taken them. Our fruit is stolen. I was doubtless urgent.

Parse in this way the lesson n page 92.

76

OF PREPOSITIONS.

Preposition is derived from the Latin pre, before, and prono to put; and positio, hence their position is before nouns or pronouns.

1. A preposition is a word put before nouns and pronouns to show the relation between them; as, "He went from London to York with the Judge in the coach."

ILLUSTRATION.—In the above example "from" points out the place of commencement, and "to" that of termination; "with" points the relation between him and the judge; "in" shows the vehicle which conveyed them, and bears a relation to the coach.

2. A preposition may be known by its admitting after it a personal pronoun in the objective case; thus we can say, to him, of us, with me. To, of, and with are prepositions.

3. A List of Prepositions to be got by heart.

About	Before	From.	Through
Above	Behind	In	Throughout
According to	Below	Instead of.	Till
Across	Beneath	Near	To
After	Beside	Nigh.	Touching
Against	Between	Of	Towards.
Along	Betwixt	Of	Under
Amid	Beyond	Of	Underneath
Amid	By.	On	Underneath
Among	Concerning.	Over	Unto
Amongst	Down	Out of.	Up
Around	During.	Regarding	Upon.
At	Except	Respecting	With
Athwart	Except	Baund	Without *
Athwart	Excepting.	Round.	Without. *
Bating	For	Since.	

4. Prepositions serve to connect words together to make complete sense of a phrase or sentence. Thus we say, "he writes a pen," they run the river," "The man is the house." Such sentences are unconnected, and devoid of meaning, the sense must be made up of some connecting word; thus, "he writes with a pen," "they run up the river;" "the man is in or wilkin the house." All these connecting words so necessary to complete the sense, are prepositions.

5. Towards is a preposition, but toward is an adjective. The words after, above, before, beneath, and several others, have sometimes the signification of adverbs; as, "They had their reward

[•] Some grammarians give an explanation to the above words; but this is omitted, as it can be of no utility to the student. Also, other grammarians give a list of Latin and Greek prefixes used in the composition of English words: for example, they would say, A, ab, abs signifying from or away; as, abstract, to draw away. Of what use can these prefixes be to the English reader? None whatever. Let the student look at his dictionary, and he will see at once that abt-tract imports "to take away one thing from another."

soon after." "He dwells above." "He died not long before." But if the nouns time and place be added, they will lose their adverbial position; as, "He died not long before that time," &c.

OBSERVE.—Before is a preposition when it refers to place, and an adverb when it refers to time. Where a preposition does not govern the objective case, it becomes an adverb; as, "He rides about."

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

From what is the word preposition derived? 1. What is a preposition? 2. How may a preposition be known? 3. Repeat the list of prepositions. 4. Gather all the prepositions out of the following lessons. 5. Gather sixty prepositions out of lessons e, f, g, o, and p. 6. What do prepositions do? 7. When are towards, before, &c., prepositions ?

Parse the following, asking the same questions as in the other parsing lessons, and when you meet with a preposition, ask—Why a preposition; thus, "I threw above it."

Which is the preposition?	Ans. Above.
Why a preposition?	Because it is put before the pro- noun " <i>it</i> " to show that " <i>above</i> " has a relation to " <i>it</i> ."

Proceed in this way through the whole of prepositions.

Parse the following parts of speech.—1. You are seated above us. They sre placed beside her. Charles is beyond him. It is behind you. I am about them. They are beneath him. We went among them. He came within the time. Of whom do you speak? Measure around it. I perform it with pleasure.

2. He passed throughout the camp. I sailed down the stream. They passed through it without danger. The fields were under the water. He is going up the hill. Step into the carriage. He looked over the estate. You spoke concerning the war. Below me trees unnumbered rise.

OF CONJUNCTIONS.

CONJUNCTION is derived from Con, together, and junctio, join, hence the word CONJUNCTION to conjoin or join together.

1. A CONJUNCTION is a word which connects sentences and words together; as, "He and I must go; but James may stay." "Two and two make four."

Conjunctions also begin sentences after a period, showing some relation between sentences in the general tenor of discourse. ILLUSTRATIONS.—" He and I ;" here, by means of the conjunc-

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" He and I;" here, by means of the conjunction and, we unite two sentences in one, and avoid a repetition; thus instead of saying, "He must go," "I must go," we join together the "He" and "I," because the same thing is affirmed of both, namely, must go. In the sentence "two and two make four," the and signifies addition, and merely joins the words two, as these two numbers when added together amount to four. 2 Conjunctions are generally divided into two kinds: the couplative and disjunctive.

3. The copulative conjunction serves to connect words, or to continue a sentence, by expressing an addition, a supposition, or a condition, a cause, a design, or an end, an inference, or an exception; as, "Green and blue;" "I will go if he come." "You prosper because you are industrious;" "He bought a horse that he may ride;" "You are young and therefore inexperienced."

EXPLANATORY REMARES.—1.—The copulative conjunction is used to express an addition and a continuation of the sentence; as, you and I are both young. Here the "and" denotes that "you" is joined to "I," and expresses union or addition; "young" being applicable to both. 2. They are used to express a supposition or condition; as, "I will go if he come." Here, "I will go," depends on some condition, namely, "his coming;" and the word if indicates this supposition, or on this condition, 3. To express a "cause;" as, "You are prosperous because you are industrious;" here, his industry was the cause of his prosperity; and this particular relation is denoted by the conjunction because. 4. To express "a design or an end;" as, "He went to achool that he might learn." Here, his going to school was for this design or end that he might learn, and this is denoted by "that." 5. To express "an inference or an exception;" as, "He was idle, therefore he remained in poverty." Here, poverty is said to be the consequence of his idleness, and this consequence or inference is denoted by the word "therefore."

4. The *disjunctive conjunction* serves, not only to connect words, or continue the sentence, but also implies that the latter part of the sentence is, in some degree, opposed to the former; as, "You ride, but I walk"

ILLUSTRATION.—"You ride, but I walk." In this sentence one part is disjoined by the conjunction "but" from the other. Here the word but shows that the latter part of the sentence "I walk" is in opposition to "you ride."

5. A list of Conjunctions.

Copulative.—Also, and, as well as, because, both, else, for, if, since, that, then, therefore, wherefore.

For is used as a conjunction when it can be turned into because; as, "I went at once, for (because) it was useless to stay." For is a preposition when it cannot be turned into because; as, "She sighed for (a prep.) love, he for (prep.) glory." Since is used for a preposition, a conjunction, and an adverb; as, "I have not seen him since (prep.) that time." "Since (conjunction) it must be so, let us not murmur." "I finished my work long since (adverb)." Then is used both as a conjunction and as an adverb; as, "Upon these facts then (conj.) I rest." "He went then (adverb) that is, at that time."

Disjunctive.—Although, as, but, either, except, lest, neither, nor, notwithstanding, or, provided, seeing, so, than, though, unless, until, whether, yet, whereas.

But is some times used as an adverb; as, "We are but (only) of yesterday."

6. Some conjunctions are used as ADVERBS; as, as, so, still, again, indeed, therefore, wherefore.

7. The English conjunctions are chiefly derived from the Anglo-Saxon language.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

From what is the word conjunction derived? 1. What is a conjunction? 2. How are conjunctions divided? 3. What do copulative conjunctions do? 4. What the disjunctive conjunctions? 5. Repeat the list of conjunctions. 6. In what do the disjunctive differ from the copulative? 7. For what is for used? 8. What since? 9. What then? 10. What but? 11. What conjunctions are used as adverbs? 12. From what language are the conjunctions chiefly derived? Collect ten copulative and thirteen disjunctive conjunctions out of lessons p, q, r, s, pages 92 and 93.

Parse the following lesson as before exemplified; and when you meet with a conjunction ask—What kind ? Why?

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

You are happy, because you are good. She is more diligent than I am. Take care that you do not mistake. You and I must go, but he must stay, except, he endeavour to learn, because I said he should not go if he did not learn his lesson. Neither this nor that. Either your brother or sister will do. Though he was rich yet for our sake he became poor. Both of us.

Parse (No. 2. of) lesson q, page 92.

OF INTERJECTIONS.

Interjection is derived from two Latin words; inter, which signifies between, and jectio, a throwing. Hence an interjection is a word which is thrown in between the members of a sentence.

1. An interjection is a word which expresses a sudden passion or emotion of the mind as, "Alas! I fear for life!" "O, virtue! how amiable art thou!"

2. Any word, or even a phrase, may become an interjection, when used in an unconnected manner; as, "Lo! Behold! Well done! Oh, dear! Forshame! &c.

3. A list of interjections.

Adieu! ah! ah me! alas! alack! away! aha! begone! hark! ha! hail! halloo! he! ho! hum! hush! fie! forshame! hist! hey-day! lo! O! O strange! O brave! pshaw! see! well-a-day! welcome again! all hail! soho! really!

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

From what is the word *interjection* derived? 1. What is an *interjection*? 2. May any word or phrase be an interjection? 3. Repeat the list of interjections? Gather twenty interjections out of lesson r and s, page 93.

Parse the following lesson as before; and when you meet with an interjection, ask-Why? (See part second.) Ah, happy hills! Ah, pleasing shade! Alas! regardless of their doom, the little victims play! Ah! tell them they are men! O, peace! how desirable art thou! Ah! the delusions of hope! Welcome again! my lost friend! Strange! that we should be so infatuated! Behold! how pleasant a thing it is for brethren to dwell together in unity.

Parse lesson s, page 93.

DERIVATIONS.

Words are derived from one another in various ways, namely: 1. Nouns are sometimes derived from verbs; as, from write comes writer; sometimes from adjectives; as, from white comes whiteness, and from long comes ungth.

2. Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs; as, from *salt* comes "to salt;" from *warm* comes "To warm;" from *forward* comes "To forward."

3. Adjectives are derived from nouns; as, from *health* comes "Healthy."

4. Adverbs are derived from adjectives, by adding ly; as, from base comes "Basely."

5. Some nouns are derived from other nouns, by adding the terminations hood or head, ship, ery, wick, rick, dom, ian, ment, and age.

6. When participles are used before nouns to express quality, they are ADJECTIVES; but when they signify action, they are VERES. (See page 42, No. 7.)

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART SECOND ON PARSING.

Parse is pronounced as parce, to thyme with farce, purse; and not pronounced as if written parze. It is indispensably necessary that the pupil should be a good parser, Indeed, so obviously great is the utility of parsing, that no proficiency can be obtained without it. And, if it is of such paramount advantage, the teacher who neglects this important exercise is justly chargeable with a high degree of culpability.

Parsing is to resolve a sentence into the elements or parts of speech. It is presumed, the pupil ere this, is sufficiently acquainted with the inflection of every word; but to give full scope to the learner's discriminating faculty, the residue of the exercises contain all the parts of speech, promiscuously arranged. I shall here introduce a set of appropriate questions, the answers to which must be given EXACTLY as they are in the definitions on the different parts of speech in the Grammar.

The student will find the method of exercising himself upon the *article* and *noun* at page 16; the method of exercising the article, noun, and *adjective* at page 23; the *pronoun*, together with the article, noun, and adjective, at page 32; the *verb*, at pages 54 and 55; the *adverb*, at pages 75 and 76; the *preposition*, at page 78; the *conjunction*, at page 80; the *interjection*, at page 81.

RULES TO BE COMMITTED TO MEMORY PREPARATORY TO PARSING.

1. NOUNS and PRONOUNS, governed by active-transitive verbs and prepositions, are in the OBJECTIVE case; as, "The master commands the boys." "Between him and her." (See page 14; also page 77, No. 2.)

Here the noun, boys, is governed by the ACTIVE-TRANSITIVE verb, commands, and is therefore the objective case. (See pages 15 and 34.) In the second example, between is a PREPOSITION, and the words him and her are pronouns in the objective case. (See page 77, No. 2.)

2. When two nouns come together, signifying different things, the former is put in the possessive, and the latter will also be in the possessive; as, "Henry's pen." Here, pen is in the possessive case, the same as Henry's This must be particularly attended to in the parsing lessons.

QUESTIONS FOR EXERCISES IN PARSING,

AS IT

RELATES TO ETYMOLOGY ALONE.

On introducing every word, ask what part of speech.

- 1. An article. Why an article? What kind? Why?
- 2. A noun. Why? Proper or Common? Why? What gender? Why? Number? Why? Case?
 Why! Person? Why? Decline it. (See page, 15, Nos. 8 and 9.)
- An adjective. Why? What degree of comparison? To what does it belong? Compare⁵ it. (See adjectives.)
- 4. A pronoun. Why? What kind? What gender? Number? Person? Why? Case? Why? Decline it.
- 5. A verb. What kind? Active-transitive, active-intransitive, passive, or neuter? Why? Regular or irregular? Mood? Why? Tense? Why? What is its agent or nominative? Person? Why? Number? Why? Conjugate the verb. If a participle? Why? Active or passive?
- 6. An adverb. Why is it an adverb? What kind?
- 7. A preposition. Why a preposition ?
- 8. A conjunction. Why a conjunction ? What kind ?
- 9. An interjection. Why an interjection?

A SPECIMEN OF ETYMOLOGICAL PARSING.

The power of speech is a faculty peculiar to man, and was bestowed on him by his beneficent Creator, for the greatest and most excellent uses; but, alas! how often do we pervert it to the worst of purposes.

··········	
MASTER'S QUESTIONS. What part of speech is the?	PUPIL'S ANSWERS. An article.
Why an article?	Because it is put before a noun. (See page 4, No. 3.)
What kind?	The definite.
Why?	Because it refers to a particu- lar power; as, the power of speech.
What part of speech is power?	À noun.
Why?	Because it is the name of some-
Proper or common ?	Common.
Why?	Because it is a power applicable to all persons.
What gender?	Neuter.
Why?	Because it is without life.
What number?	Singular.
Why?	Because it denotes only one power.
Case?	Nominative.
Why?	Because it merely expresses the name.
Person?	(the name. The third.
Why?	Because it is spoken of.
why:	(Sing. nom. power; poss. power's;
Decline it.	obj. power. Plus. nom. powers; poss. powers'; obj. powers.
What part of speech is of?	A preposition.
Why a preposition?	Because it is put before the noun speech. (Page 77, No. 1.)
What part of speech is speech?	A noun.
Why? (See power.) Proper or common? Why? What gender?	Because it is the name of some- thing. Proper. Because it is applicable to persons only. Neuter.
Why? Number?	Because it is without life. Sing.
Why? Case ?	It means only one. Nominative.
Why?	Because it simply expresses a name.
Person? Why?	The 2d. Because it is spoken of.
Decline it.	Non. speech; poss. speech's; obj. speech. (Proper nouns
	have no plurals.)
What part of speech is is?	A verb.
What kind?	Neuter.
	(Because it expresses neither
Why neuter?	action nor passion, but being
	or a state of being.

Digitized by Google

MASTER'S OUESTIONS.

Regular or irregular? What mood ? Why? Which is its nominative or agent ? Power. (See page 94, Rule 1.) What person ?

Why?

Conjugate the verb?

What part of speech is a? Why an article?

What kind? Why?

What part of speech is faculty? Why? Proper or Common? Gender? Why? Why? Number ? Case? Why? Why? Person? Why ?

PUPIL'S ANSWEBS.

Irregular.

Indicative.

Because it merely shows, &c.

The third. Because power, its agent, is the

third person. Thou art. He, she, or I am. it is. We are. You are.

They are.

An article.

Because it is put before a noun.&c. (Indefinite. Because it does not

point out. (Page 4, No. 6.) A noun. Because it is the name of something. Common. Because it is common to all men. Neuter. Because it denotes something without life. Singular. It denotes only one. No. minative. Because it simply expresses the thing. The third. Because it is spoken of.

The pupil will observe that the words man, Creator, uses, and purposes, are all nouns and must be parsed the same, generally, as the words power speech, and faculty, which have been already parsed.

What part of speech is puculiar?	An adjective. (See p. 17, No. 1.)
What degree of comparison?	The positive degree.
To what does it belong;	To the noun man.
	(Pos. peculiar; COMPA. more
Compare it.	peculiar; SUPER. most pecu-
•	liar. (See page 18, No. 12.)
What part of speech is to?	A Preposition.
	(Because it is put before, &c.
Why a preposition ?	(See page 77, No. 1.)
What part of speech is man?	A noun. (See the parsing of power.
What part of speech is and?	A conjunction.
TTTL	(Because it connects the sen-
Why a conjunction ?	tences. (Page 78, No. 1.)
What kind?	Copulative.
What part of speech is was)	A
bestowed?	A verb.
What kind?	Passive.
Regular or irregular?	Regular.
Mar JA Withows	(Indicative. Because it simply
Mood ? Why?	indicates. (Page 39, No. 3.)
Denne A XXII and	(The third. Because it is spo-
Person? Why?	ken of.
There a With a B	Past. Because the action is past
Tense? Why?	or finished. (See p. 37, No. 3.)

MASTER'S QUESTIONS.

Conjugate it.

What part of speech is on ?

Why a proposition?

What part of speech is him? Why? What kind? Gender? Number? Person? Why?

Case? Why?

Decline it.

Singular. Phural Was bestowed. Were bestowed Wast bestowed. Were bestowed Was bestowed. Were bestowed A preposition. (Because it shows the relation. &c. (See p. 77, No .1.) A pronoun. Because it is used instead of man. Personal. Masculine. Singular. Third (Page 26, No. 14.) Because it is spoken of. Objective. Because it is governed by on; for the prepositions govern the objective case. (See Rule 1, p. 82.) 1st person singlr. nominative I. possessive mine, objective me. Decline it the same as p. 26, No. 14.

PUPIL'S ANSWER.

OBSERVE.-1. The words by, to, for, and of are prepositions; and must be exercised the same as of and on; as in the above examples. 2. The words his, we, and it are exercised the same as him, above. 3. The word beneficent is the same as peculiar.

What part of speech is Creator ? A noun.

Common or proper? Why?

Gender? Why? Number? Why?

Why? Case?

Person ? Why?

Decline it.

What part of speech is for? What part of speech is the? What part of speech is greatest? What degree of comparison? What part of speech is and? What part of speech is most excellent? (See page 18, the words more and most. What part of speech is uses? What part of speech is but? Why a conjunction? What part of speech is alas ? Why an interjection ? What part of speech is how often? Adverbs.

Why adverbs?

Proper. Because it is proper to God alone. Masculine. Because it denotes, &c. (See page 10, No. 2.) Sing. Because it denotes one, &c. (Nominative. Because it, &c. (See page 13, No. 3.) The 3rd. Because it is spoken of. (Nom. Creator; poss. Creator's;

obj. Creator. (Seep. 15, No. 9. A preposition. (See on, above.) An article. (See THE, above.)

An adjective.

Superlative. (See p. 18, No. 10.) Conjunction. (See AND, above.)

Adjective, superlative degree. (See GREATEST, above.)

(See power and speech.) A noun. A conjunction.

Because it joins, &c. (P.78, No.1.) An interjection.

(Because it is thrown in, &c. (See page 80.)

Because they are words added to the verb do.

MASTER'S QUESTIONS. PUPIL'S ANSWERS. What kind? Of interrogation. (P.74, No. 12.) What part of speech is do ? A verb. (See was bestowed, before.) What part of speech is we? A pronoun. Because it is used, &c. (See Why? page 24, No. 1.) Personal. Because it is used What kind? Why? instead of men. Gender? Number? Common. Plural. Because we is the first. First. Person? Why ? (Page 26, No. 14.) Nominative. Because it merely Case? Why? names, &c. Decline it the same way as you (See also p. 26, No. 14.) did in the personal pronoun him. above. What part of speech is pervert ? A verb. What kind? Active-transitive. (Because it denotes action, &c. Why? (Page 34, No. 3.) Regular. Because it forms, &c. Regular or irregular? Why? (Page 36, No. 10.) Indicative. Because it merely, Mood? Why? &c. (Page 39, No. 3.) Present. (Page 43, No. 3.) Tense? Why? (The first. Because we, its no-Person? Why? minative, is the first. What part of speech is it? A pronoun. What kind? Why? Personal. Because, &c. (P. 24.) Neuter. Singular. The third. Gender ! Number? Person? Because it is spoken of. Ob-Whv? Case? Why? jective. Because it is governed by pervert. (Page 82, Rule 1.) Decline it. (Page 26, No. 14.) What part of speech is to? Preposition. (See the TO, above.) What part of speech is the? An article. (Page 4, No. 4.) What part of speech is worst? An adjective. (See most excellent.) What part of speech is of? A preposition. (Page 77, No. 2.) What part of speech is purposes? A noun. (Because it is the name of some-Why? thing. Common or proper? Why? Com. Because,&c. (Page 5, No.3.) Gender? Number? Neuter. Plural. See the questions page 83, and give an answer to each of them.

In parsing, the teacher should be particular in asking the question on the different parts of speech, in the order they are given in the Table of Etymological parsing, until the questions and answers are become familiar. The pupil should be requested to give a reason for every thing he says. After this, the pupil should be made to understand, that he gives an *answer* to every question, which is supposed to be asked, without obliging the teacher to lose time to no purpose in asking them. Thus were the sentence "The boys learn well," to be parsed, the pupil might say:—The, is the definite article, because it refers to some particular boys; as, "The boys who learn." Boys, a noun, because it is the name of persons, common, masculine, because it denotes the male sex, plural, because it denotes more than one, nominative, third person, because it speak of boys. Learn, a verb, active-transitive, because it denotes action, and it makes sense with a noun or pronoun coming after it, regular, because it forms its past tense and past participle by adding ed to the present, indicative, present, boys is its nominative or agent, plural number, because it is nominative boys is plural; (conjugate it). Well, an adverb, because it is added to the verb learn, of the affirmation.

Some of the following lessons have already been parsed in part, but, in order that the pupil may be completely master of the parsing, he must take them consecutively, answering the questions in the Table of Etymological parsing page 83. When the questions are familiar to him, he may then leave off the questions, as is elucidated in the examples, above. I have arranged them in an alphabetical order, for the convenience of reference. Also they are further divided into lesser portions, in order to accommodate the different arrangements of schools. For there are some who teach in class, then a larger portion is necessary than when pupils are taught singly. Besides this, a parent may instruct his own child, in small portions as is convenient.

LESSON a.

An owl. The constitution.' Constancy. Nothing. Yorkshire. The Cæsars. Wisdom. The fields. The scholar's duty. The vices. Temperance. Parchment. George. An earthquake. Blackness. A good heart. The verdant fields. Composed thoughts.

No. 2.

An affable deportment. A gloomy cavern. Unwholesome dews. An amiable woman. An open countenance. Relentless war. Tempestuous passions. The bubbling brook. A happier life. Delicious fruit. A temperate climate. A fruitful field.

LESSON b.

A controverted point. Tender looking charity. My brother's wife's mother. A resolution wise, noble, and disinterested. I am sincere. You shall submit. They will obey us. He is disinterested. We honour them. Thou dost improve. Let him consider.

LESSON C.

Having been deserted, he became discouraged. These are yours; those are ours. Each must answer the question. Every heart knows its own sorrows. It was neither. Whose books are these? Whom have we served? One may deceive one's self. Some are negligent, others industrious. All have a talent to improve.

LESSON d.

The house was sold at a great price, and above its value. She came down stairs slowly, but went briskly up again. He is his class-mate, but not so learned. We ought to be thankful for we have received much. Neither prosperity nor adversity has improved him. He can acquire no virtue, unless he make some sacrifices. If he has promised, he should act accordingly. Though he condemn me, I will respect him.

No. 2.

Notwithstanding his poverty, he is a wise and worthy person. Hope often amuses, but seldom satisfies us. O peace! how desirable art thou! I have been often occupied, alas! with triffes. Strange! that we should be so infatuated. Ah! the delusion of hope. Hark! how sweetly the woodlark sings. The ten dirty, idle boys and girls.

LESSON e.

Oh! the humiliation to which vice reduces us. Hail simplicity! source of general joy. Behold! how pleasant it is for brethern to dwell together in unity! Welcome again! my long lost friend. If thou wert his superior, thou shouldst not have boasted. Though he is often advised yet he does not reform. Forget the faults of others, and remember your own. Study universal rectitude, and cherish religious hope.

No. 2.

Suit your desires to things, and not things to your desires. Abstain from pleasure and bear evil. Expect the same filial duty from your children which you paid to your parents. Consider yourself a citizen of the world; and deem nothing which regards humanity unworthy of your notice.

LESSON f.

Chiefly on the article, noun, adjective, and pronoun.—Henry has great fear. The apples are ripe. This is truly a most delightful scene. The birds sing sweetly. The fragrance is delightful. The wines are sour. A distant sound is heard. Adverbs qualify verbs, and sometimes other adverbs. That man who is neither elated by success, nor dejected by disappointment, whose conduct is not influenced by any change of circumstances to deviate from the line of integrity, possesses true fortitude of mind.

LESSON g.

A few sentences of the same words constituting different parts of speech.—Damp air is unwholesome. Guilt often casts a damp over our sprightliest hours. Few days pass without some clouds. The few and the many have their prepossessions. A little attention will rectify some errors. The gay and dissolute think little of the miseries which are stealing softly after them. Many persons are better than we suppose them to be. Though she is rich and fair, yet she is not amiable. A soft body damps the sound much more than a hard one. They are yet young, and must suspend their judgment yet a while. Think much and speak little. Still waters are commonly deepest. His years are more than hers, but he has not more knowledge.

LESSON h.

They were reading. You were singing. Mary was drawing. I am confessing it. Thou art performing a good work. He is planning a new book. Thomas is bringing them. They are pursuing their studies. You are wasting your time. It is shining. We are doing a useful work. I love my friend. Thou givest praise. He learns his task. She praises their manners. It destroys our pleasure. We love virtuous actions. You propose that way. They admire her taste. I do not love this situation.

No. 2.

Thou dost mark it. He does shake the desk. Ann does go. It does freeze. We do condemn such projects. You do mislead us. They do misrepresent it. We did affright them. You did command us. They did complete their journey. I loved such amusement. Thou sawest every action. She delighted them. George chose those books. It awoke them. We conceived such You detained us. They lament her fate. I have loved them. Thou hast acted an unwise part. He has restored the goods. Edward has written his copy. It has torn her dress.

LESSON i.

We have returned the favour. You have refused every offer. They have confessed their fault. I was examining his exercise. Thou wast selling it. He was studying his lesson. The man was building. We were contriving. I had encouraged them. Thou hast deceived her. He flattered her. William had laughed. The sun had risen. We had protected James. You had submitted. They had resigned themselves. I did love them. Thou didst ring the bell. He did propose it. Henry did hide it. The horse did carry her. I shall love my retreat. Thou wilt consider her proposal. Henry will play.

No. 2.

He shall instruct George. That boy will loose. We will love our country. Ye will know yourselves. They shall fear his power. He can read it. It can reward us. We can admit them. You may obtain pardon. They can awake us. I shall have determined. Thou wilt have agreed. He will have forsaken us. She will have sent it. It will have flown. We shall have offended all. You will have overtuken it. They will have surpassed me.

LESSON j.

I would do it. Thou couldst parse thy lesson. He might perish. She should think. It would do. We should procure arms. Ye might get opportunities. They should improve their tempers. Let me love. Do thou instruct him. Let them see it. Let her thank them. Let it appear. Let us admire. Dress

ETYMOLOGY.

yourselves. Let them accompany us. I may mistake it. Thou mayst subscribe a part. I may have detained you. Thou mayst have forgotten. He may have repented. She can have determined.

No. 2.

It may have rung. You may have conquered. They may have advanced. I might have interested them. Thou shouldst have forgotten. He would have brough his servant. She might come. I would have rained. We could have retained our places. You might have studied. They should have deserved it. I was his companion. He was benevolent. You were great travellers. You were the best speakers. They were all children. That girl is friendless. He has been noisy. We have been quiet. You have been grateful. They have been careless.

LESSON k.

The servant had been faithful. To have conquered himself was noble. Seeing them I departed. He lives respected. Having resigned his office, he retired. I am he. Thou art the man. He is the master. We had been easy. They shall be still. You will have been gone. Let me be useful. I may be confident. I should be wise. We may have been rich. You should have been easy. She is the most accomplished, It is I who do it. We are they. Ye are all true friends.

No. 2.

They are our most inveterate enemies. I am loved. Examples are brought. The houses are built. Goods are bought. The die is cast Thou art chosen. He is caught. They were reduced. I was known. It was written. I have been perplexed. Your ornaments have been displayed. I had been forgotten. Charles had been forsaken. They had been discouraged. Those temptations had been offered. Let them be prepared. It can be enlarged. Thomas may be thrown. The child might be stung. Money would be valued. I may have been deceived.

LESSON 1.

I am going. Thou art happy. You have the book. I have been. Your sister is coming. I am going to see your brother. I have been to your brother's. If Henry call, I will go. Hunters shoot the deer running. Little children cry. Old birds fly. The child's parent is very angry. The parent is fond of his child. I love him, you love her. We shall write to them. Henry is coming. John learns his lesson well. Books instruct mankind. A good child loves learning.

No. 2.

A good boy delights in learning his lesson. Learning is an ornament to us all. Pay attention to your teacher. It is we. It is me. A friend bears a friend's infirmities. William, ring the bell. She rang for her child. They confided in him. I may have struck the wrong person. He might have struck the child

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

My friends, write to me often. You may learn. He promised to go. They intend to return. He saw the ships enter the harbour. Henry might have learned his lesson.

LESSON m.

I have studied my lessons. You have written your exercises. Man, know thyself. Thou dost mark it. She might have come. You have excelled us. I am he. They have been disappointed. It can be enlarged. Admired and applauded, she became vain. Let us praise him. Rewards shall be given. Let us improve ourselves. I should be diligent. You will have determined. We are writing the letter. He may have repented.

LESSON n.

Few days pass without some clouds. Think much, and speak little. Yesterday I ought to have been there. Yes, it was I that called. Matter is presented to us in three very different conditions—in the solid, in the liquid, and in the gaseous form. Gases are very thin, like the air which we breath.

LESSON 0.

Vapour is the name given to any matter which may be thin and gaseous, like the air, but differing from it, in being easily condensed into a liquid, as steam, which becomes water when exposed to cold. All kinds of matter tend to attract each other, mass to mass, and particle to particle. Air is not an element, but a compound of two gases, oxygen and nitrogen, and its chemical properties depend principally upon the oxygen it contains. Nitrogen gas is observed only in a few vegetable substances.

LESSON p.

I go on horseback. I and you intend going. They live in the city. We go by his order. I attend for my master. Either you or I must attend. He is a scholar, but very reserved. I will promise, though my father cannot. Of whom do you speak. I perform it with great pleasure. Look at it.

No. 2.

Sit near us. He is going from Sheffield to London with his sister beside him. He came within the time. They are more learned, because they are more industrious. Letters were introduced from Phœnicia into Greece, by Cadmus. A comma is put after a succession of nouns. Corn, wine, oil, and vegetables are to be prefered before diamonds and rubies.

LESSON q.

This diversion is adapted for both young and old; but young people should be cautious not to indulge in it to excess, for, if they do, it may injure their health. Though it was evident that he was sorry, yet he would persist. He will stay until they arrive. Blessed are the meek; for they shall inherit the earth. Notwithstanding his age, he is very dificient. Consider the ravens; for they neither sow nor reap; which have neither storehouse nor barn; and God feedeth them.

Digitized by Gogle

LESSON r.

I have proved him to be honest, wherefore do you doubt. It is not convenient, else why should they disappove of it. If they are contented so are we. The life is more than meat, and the body more than raiment. Why should they contend, seeing he is convinced? He was expensive, whereas his income was small. They will not attempt it, lest they should err. They cannot be gratified unless they delight in the scenes of nature.

LESSON S.

Hail, simplicity! source of genuine joy. Hark! how sweetly the woodlark sings. Immortal! man. The sky is changed! and such a change! O, night! that all was lost! What a piece of work is man! how noble {in reason! how infinite in faculty! in form and moving, how express and admirable! in action, how like an angel! in apprehension, how like a God! O Caledonia! stern and wild, meet nurse for a poetic child!

No. 2.

Unfaded hope! when life's last embers burn, When soul to soul, and dust to dust return! Heaven to thy charge resigns the awful hour! Oh! then, thy kingdom comes! Immortal power! What, though each spark of earth-born rapture fly The quivering lip, pale cheek, and closing eye! O wretched state! O bosom black as death! O limed soul! that, struggling to be free, Art more engag'd.

LESSON t.

Discretion stamps a value upon all our qualities; It instructs us to make use of them at proper times, and turns them honourably to our own advantage; it shows itself alike in all our words and actions, and serves as an unerring guide in every occurence of life. Shame and disappointment attend sloth and idleness. Gentleness ought to form our address, to regulate our speech, and to diffuse itself over our whole behaviour. Meckness controls our angry passions; candour our severe judgments. Restlessness of mind disqualifies us both for the enjoyment of our peace and the performance of our duty.

No. 2.

Chiefly on the neuter and passive verb, and the verb "To be."

A virtuous education is a better inheritance than a great estate. Good and wise men only can be real friends. The coach arrives daily. Nothing appears to be so low and mean as lying and dissimulation. You may be deprived of honour and riches against your will; but not of virtue without your consent.

No. 3.

Words are like arrows, and should not be shot at random. There is not a more pleasing exercise of the mind than gratitude; it is accompanied with such an inward satisfaction, that the duty is sufficiently rewarded by the performance. I have long been taught, that the afflictions of this life are overpaid by that eternal weight of glory which awaits the virtuous. These two things cannot be disjoined—a pious life and a happy death.

LESSON U.

Forget the faults of others, and remember your own. Suit your desires to things, and not things to your desires. Consider yourself a citizen of the world, and deem nothing which regards humanity unworthy of your notice. Let your religion connect preparation for Heaven with an honourable discharge of active life. Let your words agree with your thoughts, and be followed by your actions. We observed him walk off hastily.

> And that tongue of his, that bade the Romans Mark him, and write his speeches in their books, Alas! it cried—give me some drink. *Titinius*.

No. 2.

Abstain from pleasure and bear evil. Expect the same filial duty from your children which you paid to your parents. Be kind and courteous to all, and be not eager to take offence without just reason. Practise humility, and reject everything in dress, carriage, or conversation, which has any appearance of pride.

LESSON V.

Position of the Nominative. (See Rule 4 of Syntax.)

RULE 1.—The nominative generally precedes the verb; but this position is sometimes changed, and the nominative follows the verb, when the sentence begins with here, there, then, thence, hence, thus, hereafter, now, when a question is asked, a command given, a wish expressed, and when if or thou is understood. (This rule to be got by heart.)

OBSERVATIONS.—To find the nominative to a verb, ask the questions who or what with the verb, and the word that answers the question will be the nominative; thus, "I have got some work to dispose of." What have you got? "Some work."

RULE 2.—The nominative sometimes consists of one or more nouns or pronouns; as in the example "James, John and you are learning grammar." Who is learning grammar? James, John, and you.

Where is thy brother? Gaming is a vice pregnant with every evil, and to it are often sacrificed wealth, happiness, and every thing virtuous and valuable. Then shall thy light break forth as the morning. Were he at leisure, I would wait on him. Were he to assert it, 1 would not believe it.

No. 2.

RULE.—The nominative is often a great distance from the verb.

That fortitude which has encountered no dangers, that prudence which has surmounted no difficulties, that integrity which has been attacked by no temptations, can at best be considered but as gold not yet brought to the test, of which, therefore, the true value cannot be assigned.

No. 3.

To endure misfortune with resignation, and bear it with fortitude, is the striking characteristic of a great mind. To be at once merry and malicious is the sign of a corrupt heart and weak understanding. To advise the ignorant, relieve the needy, and comfort the afflicted, are duties that fall in our way almost every day of our lives.

LESSON W.

Chiefly on the relative Pronoun and its nominative.

The chief misfortunes that befall us in life can be traced to some vices or follies we have committed. Justice consists not merely in performing those duties which the laws of society obliges us to perform, but in our duty to our Maker, to others, and to ourselves. The veil which covers from our sight the events of succeeding years, is a veil woren by the hand of mercy.

No. 2.

RULE.—When the antecedent and relative are both in the nominative, the relative is the nominative to the verb next it, and the antecedent is generally the nominative to the second verb.

He that does good for the sake of virtue, seeks neither praise nor reward, though he is sure of both at the last. He who is a stranger to industry may possess, but he cannot enjoy; he only who is active and industrious can experience real pleasure. That wisdom which enlightens the understanding and reforms the life, is the most valuable.

No. 3.

RULE 1.—The objective generally comes after the verb that governs it; but when a *relative*, and in some other cases, it comes *before* it.

2.—When two objectives follow a verb, the *thing* is governed by the verb, and the person by a preposition understood Him whom ye ignorantly worship, declare I unto you. If thy brother shall trespass against thee, go and tell him of his fault between thee and him alone. He taught me grammar. These curiosities we have imported from China. Give me understanding. Sell me meat for money.

LESSON x.

RULE 1.—The objective after an active-transitive verb, especially when a relative, is often understood.

2.—Sometimes the antecedent is improperly omitted, and must be supplied.

Our good or bad fortune depends on the choice we make of cur friends. He eats regularly, drinks moderately, and reads often. Let him labour with his hands, that he may have to give to him that needeth. There have been that have delivered themselves from their misfortunes by their good conduct or virtue. Few reflections are more distressing than those we make on our own ingratitude.

No. 2.

RULE.—The Past Participle has uniformly either a relative or personal pronoun, with some part of the verb to be understood before it.

Knowledge softened with complacency and good breeding, will make a man beloved and admired. Precepts have little influence when not enforced by example. Mere external beauty is of little estimation; and deformity, when associated with amiable dispositions and useful qualities, does not preclude our respect and approbation. Modesty seldom resides in a breast not enriched with noble virtue. Economy, prudently and temperately conducted, is the safeguard of many virtues; and is, in a particular manner, favourable to exertions of benevolence.

No. 3.

Supply all the words that are understood. The infinitive to be, or to have, is often understood.—Not supplying what is understood after than and as is frequently the cause of error.

I love you as well as him. Virtue is of intrinsic value and good desert, and of indispensible obligation; not the creature of will, but necessary and immutable; not local or temporary, but of equal extent antiquity with the divine mind; not a mode of sensation, but everlasting truth; not dependent on power, but the guide of all power.

LESSON y.

Hushed were his Gertrude's lips! but still their bland And beautiful expression seem'd to melt With love that could not die! and still his hand She presses to the heart no more that felt,

ETYMOLOGY.

Ah heart! where once each fond affection dwelt, And features yet that spoke a soul more fair. Mute, gazing, agonizing as he knelt,— Of them that stood encircling his despair, We heard some friendly words ;—but knew not what they were.

No. 1.

Like the leaves of the forest when summer is green, That host with their banners at sunset were seen: Like the leaves of the forest when autumn hath blown, That host on the morrow lay wither'd and strown.

No. 2.

Who sees with equal eye, as God of all, A hero perish, or a sparrow fall, Atoms or systems into ruin hurl'd, And now a bubble burst, and now a world.

No. 3.

Admire—exult—despise—laugh—weep—for here There is much matter for all feeling :—Man! Thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear, Ages and realms are crowded in this span.

No. 4.

The morn that usher'd thee to life my child, Saw thee in *tears*, whilst all around thee *smiled*. So live, that sinking to thy last long sleep, Sweet may'st thou *smile*, when all around thee *weep*.

LESSON Z.

From Jesse's root behold a branch arise, Whose sacred flower with fragrance fills the skies. Th' ethereal spirit o'er its leaves shall move, And on its top descends the mystic dove. Ye heavens! from high the dewy nectar pour, And in soft silence shed the kindling shower! The sick and weak the healing plant shall aid, From storms a sheller, and from heat a shade.

No. 1.

Like to the fulling of a star, Or as the flight of eagles are, Or like the fresh spring's gaudy hue, Or silver drops of morning dew, Or like a wind that chafes the flood, Or bubbles which ou water stood,— E'en such is man—whose borrow'd light Is straight call'd in and paid to night. The wind blows out, the bubble dies, The spring entom'd in autumn lies, The dews dried up, the star is shot, The flight is passed, and man forgot,

PART III.

SYNTAX.

1. SYNTAX is that part of Grammar by which we are taught the proper arrangement, dependence, and constructions of words in a sentence or phrase, according to rule.

The word SYNTAX comes from the Greek syntaxis, which is compounded of $\sigma \nu \nu$, with, and $\tau a \alpha \xi_{17}$, to order. Syntax when applied to grammar relates to the agreement and government of words.

2. A SENTENCE is a number of words so arranged as to make complete sense; as, " I study grammar."

Sentence both in French and English is from the Latin SEN-TENTIA, a thought or meaning.

3. Sentences are of two kinds, simple and compound.

4. A simple sentence contains but one subject (or nominative), one finite verb, and one noun or pronoun; as, "James loves me."

1. There are several sorts of simple sentences. An *explicative* or *affirmative*, explains or asserts something; as, "I love virtue."

2. A negative sentence, is one in which the adverb not is used; as, "I do not fear him."

3. An interrogative sentence asks a question; as, " Does he write ?"

4. An imperative sentence commands; as, " Do this work."

ORSERVE.—A finite verb is that to which number and person apportain. The *infinitive* mood has no respect to number or person.

5. A compound sentence contains two or more simple sentences, connected by one or more conjunctions; as, "Life is short, but eternity is long."

6. Sentences are divided by stops. Those parts of a sentence which are separated by commas, are called clauses; and those separated by semicolons, are called members.

7. A phrase is two or more words put together so as to express a certain relation between our ideas, without alluming anything, or making a proposition; as, " In good carnest." " In truth." 8. The principal parts of a simple sentence are three, the subject, or nominative; the attribute, or verb; and the object. All the other parts of a sentence are called *adjuncts*.

OBS.—The principal ADJUNCTS are ADJECTIVES and ADVERBS. The ADJUNCTS are those words which modify, complete, or determine the signification of the NOUNS or verbs to which they refer. They are of three kinds; namely, those which modify the NOUN; those which complete the signification of the VERB; and those which determine the signification of the SENTERCE.

9. The subject is the thing chiefly spoken of; the attribute (or verb) is the thing or action affirmed or denied; and the object is the thing affected by such action, affirmation, or denial; as, "George writes his copy." Here "George" is the subject; "writes" is the attribute or thing affirmed; and "copy" the object.

OBS.—The subject, agent, or nominative is the person, or thing acting. (See page 15 and 65.) The attribute or verb is the action done; and the object is the thing affected by such action.

10. Words used to explain or modify either the subject, attribute, or object, are placed as near as possible to the words to which they belong.

11. Every sentence, or complete sense, must have, at least, one verb expressed or understood. Verbs are the life of sentences; no sentence can be complete sense without a verb.

12. SYNTAX principally consists of two parts; concord and government.

13. CONCORD OF AGREEMENT is that which one word has over another, in gender, number, case, or person.

14. GOVERNMENT, OF REGIMEN, is that power which one part of speech has over another, in directing its mood, tense, or case.

15. All words that are omitted by *ellipsis*, and that are necessarily *understood* to complete the construction, must be supplied in *parsing*.

QUESTIONS IN SYNTAX.

1. What is syntax? 2. From what does the word syntax come? 3. What is a sentence? 4. How many kinds of sentences are there? 5. What is a simple sentence? 6. What is a compound sentence? 7. How are sentences divided? 8. What is a phrase? 9. What are the principal parts of a sentence? 10. What are *adjuncts*? 11. What are subject, attribute, and object? 12. What must every sentence have? 13. Of how many parts does syntax consist? 14. What is concord. 15. What is government? 16. What are you to do with words that are omitted? RULE 1.—When a pronoun is used as the subject of a verb it should be the *nominative* pronoun; as, "He and she were married."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" He and she were married." Here you see that "He and she" are two pronouns; the subject to "were reading." We cannot say, him reads, her runs, me speaks, &c., because him, her, and me, are objective pronouns.

REMARK.—There is an apparent exception to this rule when the verb To BE is used with a perfect participle of an active verb, the objective is the subject of the verb, and the subject becomes the object governed by a preposition; as, "We are loved by him." In this sentence the *subject* or *doer* is represented by the objective pronoun him, and the thing done to, or object, is represented by the nominative pronoun we. But though this appears to be an exception to this rule, strictly speaking it does not belong to it, but to the rules belonging to prepositions and active-transitive verbs. (Scen's 39.)

STUDENT.—What is a pronoun? Repeat the nominative pronouns. Name the objective pronouns. What is the first point to be noticed under this rule? Ans. The subject of a verb. What do you mean by the subject of a verb? Ans. The nominative or thing chiefly spoken of. The pronoun of every sentence should be in the nominative case.

The *subject* is always either a noun, pronoun, or a word or form of words equal in effect to a noun.

Correct the following violations.—1. Him and her were married. 2. Whom is it? 3. Him and me came together. 4. My brother and him are good writers. 5. You and us enjoy many privileges. 6. Us three learn grammar. 7. Him whom ye pretend reigns in heaven. 8. Whom of all men in the world, do you think was chosen? 9. Them and us learn geometry. 10. These and him might live godly. 11. She and him got the prize. 12. Them and us wort to the lectures. 13. Him and them were the topic of their conversation. 14. Thou and them were present. 15. Her and him never quarrel. 16. Them are them which testify of me.

RULE 2.—Verbs whether expressed or understood, and the words *than* and *as* require a nominative pronoun for their subject; as, "*He* is wiser than I (am). *Thou* art as good as *he* (is).

EXPLANATORY REMARKS.—This rule is frequently violated. We ought never to use an objective pronoun in such cases. You may find that the pronoun is the subject of the verb, by filling up the ellipses. "John can read better than I." Fill up the ellipsis. John can read better than I (can).

"1 love my country as well as him," is grammar, if it is intended? to convey the following meaning: "I love my country as well as I love him." Strictly speaking this example does not come under this rule; for, "I love" is an active-transitive verb, which governs? the objective case. (See Kule 39.) SYNTAX.

}

If a preposition or an active-transitive verb is understood before the pronoun, then the pronoun should be in the objective case; as, "It was better done by him than by me." Here the pronouns "him" and "me" are under the influence of the preposition "by." (See Rule on Or.) Hence, them, and as, do not influence the case of personal pronouns, but the pronoun is either the nominative to a verb, or the object governed by a verb or preposition.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" John can read better than me." Me should be I, because it is the nominative to "can write" understood; that is, "better than I" (can write). "He is as good as her." Her, should be she, because it is the nominative to is understood, i.e., "He is as good as she (is)."

STUDENT.—What are you to notice first under this rule? Ans. Verbs expressed or understood. What is the second? The words than and as. What do they require? Nominative pronouns for their subjects. How are you to know the subject? By supplying the verb understood.

VIOLATIONS TO BE CORRECTED.—1. He is younger than me. 2. She suffers hourly more than me. 3. They are greater gainers than us. 4. They know how to write as well as him, but he is a better grammarian than them. 5. John can write better than me. 6. If the king give usleave, we may perform the office as well as them that do. 7. He is as good as her. 8. It was me that wrote the letter. 9. She is not so learned as him. 10. Cromwell than whom no man was better skilled in artifice. 11. Whom do you think I am. 12. They can write as well as him, but he is a better grammarian. 13. A stone is heavy and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both.

RULE 3.—Nominative pronouns must be used with all the persons of the verb To BE whether pronouns come before or after the verb; as, "It is he."

CAUTIONS AND EXPLANATORY REMARKS.—Both Lennie and Murray say "The verb To BE through all its variations has the same case after it, as that which next precedes it." Let us reflect; and we shall see, that, whenever an objective pronoun is used either before or after the verb "To BE," that pronoun is governed by an active-transitive verb or preposition; as, "You believe it to be him," not he. "Whenever the verb 'To BE' is used the *receiver* or be-er is, or must be" a nominative pronoun. When the infinitive mood To BE follows an objective case it requires an objective pronoun after it; as, "I understood it to be him." The auxiliary verb To BE conjugates passive verbs only; neuter verbs are conjugated as the active voice with have. We must not say "When I was come." "He is arrived." "They are departed." We should say "When I had come." "He has arrived." "They have departed." Part of a sentence is sometimes the nominative both before and after the verb To BE.

ILLUSTRATION.—" It was not me." "Was" is the verb to be, and requires "I" nominative after. "It" before was, is the nominative as well as the objective; but here, according to rule, we call it the nominative. STUDENT.—What are you to notice first? Ans. Nominative pronouns. What is the second ? Nominative pronouns must be used, &c. What are you to do with them? To place a nominative both before and after the verb "To Be." Mention some of the verbs that are of the verb To Be. Ans. Am, was, are, were, is, may, can, has, have, &c. What does the verb "To Be" signify? Ans. (Page 58.)

EXERCISES—VIOLATIONS.

1. It was him who wrote the letter. 2. Be not afraid, it is me. 3. It was them who gave it. 4. Whom think ye that I am. 5. Was it me who said so. 6. I am certain it was not him. 7. It might have been him. 8. It is impossible to be them. 9. It was either him or his brother who got the prize. 10. I am her. 11. He said it was not them, 12. Was it him who gave you that intelligence. 13. I said they were them. 14. Art thou him. 15. I know not whether it were them who conducted the business, but I am certain it was not him. 15. You were convinced it was not me you saw.

RULE 4.—VERBS must be in the same number and person as their SUBJECTS or nominative case; as, "I learn." "Thou mayest." "The boys play."

OBSERVATIONS.—The subject or nominative, will be either a noun or a pronoun. To find the subject of a verb, ask the questions who or what, with the verb, and the word that answers to the question is the subject to the verb, as, "John can write." Who can write? Answer: John. Then you see John is the subject to the verb write. The plural verb never ends in s. What is the plural of is—of was—of has? Answer: Are, were, have.

POSITION OF THE SUBJECT (or nominative.)

1. The subject, though generally placed before the verb, is often placed after it; especially when the sentence begins with here, there, then, thence, hence, then, yet, hereafter, thus, yet, so, now, such, herein, therein, wherein, &c.

2. When a question is asked, when a command is given, a wish expressed, a supposition is elliptically expressed or made without if; also, after a neuter verb.

3. When a sentence depends on *neither* or *nor* so as to be coupled with another sentence.

4. When we wish to dignify the subject and make it more emphatic.

STUDENT.—What are you to notice first under this rule? Answer: The verb, What is the second? Its subject. What do you mean by its subject? The subject is the thing chiefly spoken of, or is that which is affirmed or denied. What is a verb? (See page 34, No. 1.) What are you to do with the verb and its subject? Make them agree. What do you mean by agree? If the subject is singular or denotes one thing, the verb must be singular; if plural, or the subject is the first person, the verb must be the first person; if the second, the verb must be the second, &c. OBSERVE.—1. You must not alter the subject, it is right; but the verb must be made to agree with it in number and person. 2 All singular nouns are of the third person singular, and all plural nouns are of the third person plural. 3. When you have read a sentence, ask, Which is the subject or thing chiefly spoken of? Is it singular or plural? Then look for the verb and make it agree with its subject.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—"I says it." Which is the verb in this sentence? Says. How do you know? Because it affirms something. What is its subject? "I." Do they agree? No. In what do they disagree? In number? No; they agree in number, for they are both singular. They disagree in person; for "says" should be say in the first person, because "I" is the first person; and verbs must be, &c. Repeat the rule every sentence you correct.

VIOLATIONS of the rule to be corrected.-1. I loves reading. They runs. 3. We works well. 4. They appears lovely. 5. All proves right. 6. We understands you. 7. Books teaches silently. 8. Boys plays rudely. 9. Children loves play. 10. You judges rightly. 11. You composes correctly. 12. They was with us. 13. Is your relations in town. 14. Thou shall not kill. 15. The days is short. 16. The number are small. 17. There's two or three of us. 18. Where is the snuffers. 19. He need not go. 20. Whence camest they. 21. Men judges partially. 22. Many battles was fought and many men was killed. 23. A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye. 24. Great pains has been taken to make this rule plain. 25. The days of man is but as grass. 26. So much of both merit and ability are seldom found. 27. There is many occasions in life in which silence and simplicity is true wisdom. 28. His head and hairs was like wool, and his eyes as a flame of fire. 29. And they had tails like scorpions, and there was stings in their tails, and their power were to hurt 30. There is more cultivators of the earth than men five months. of their own hearts. 31. Not one whom thou sees clothed in purple are happy. 32. What signifies rules of grammar if none will attend to them.

RULE 5.—*Two* or *more* singular nouns or pronouns, coupled with AND or WITH, expressed or implied, require a verb and pronoun in the plural; as, "John AND James were there." "The king WITH his guards were there, and they made the town busy.

OBSERVATIONS.—1. Writers frequently violate this rule; for when a singular noun has a close joined to it by with, it is sometimes used with a plural verb, and sometimes with a singular; for example, some would write, "The boys with the master was writing." Was should be were, in this and similar sentences. 2. When the nouns are nearly related in sense, they must be followed by plural nouns and pronouns; and not, as Murray and many others say, in the singular. When "As well as" can be turned into and, the verb and pronoun must be plural. 3. Though the rule says, "Two or more nouns or pronouns" they all may be nominative pronouns. These singulars being adequately engaged in doing or being are equal to they.

QUESTIONS.—1. What is a noun? 2. How many numbers have nouns? 3. What does the singular express—what the plural? 4. How is the plural formed? 5. What is a verb? 6. What is a plural verb. *Answer*: One that does not end with s. 7. What is a pronoun? 8. Repeat all the plural pronouns. (See p. 26.)

STUDENT.—What are you to notice first in this rule? Two or more, singular, &c. What is the second? A verb and pronoun. What do they require? A verb and pronoun in the *plural*. Explain yourself. When a pronoun refers to singular nouns before and after with and and, the verb and pronoun must be plural.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—"Your book and pen is in the desk." Which are the two nouns? "Book and pen." To what are they equal? A plural. Which is the verb? "Is." Singular or plural? Singular; and should be plural, are. Because two or more singular, &c. "John and James are come; they have been." Here they agrees with the two singular nouns, "John and James."

VIOLATIONS OF THIS RULE.—1. Mary and Jane is not at home. 2. She and her father was in the garden. 3. Time and tide waits for no man. 4. Humility with poor apparels, excels pride and ignorance under costly attire. 5. The planetary system, boundless space, and the immense ocean, affects the mind with sensations of astonishment. 6. Religion and virtue, our best support and highest honour, confers on the mind principles of noble independence. 7. What signifies the counsel and care of preceptors, when youth think they have no need of assistance. 8. His politeness and good disposition was, on failure of their effect, entirely changed. 9. Wisdom, virtue, happiness dwells with the mediocrity. 10. Presumption and self-conceit oversbadows the brightest attainments. 11. Lightning and electric matter is the same, 12. Liberality and thankfulness is the bond of concord. 13. Quietness and peace flourishes where justice and reason governs.

RULE 6.—When not is joined to and disuniting the second close of the sentence from the first, the verb then refers to only one of the nominatives, and the verb must be singular; as, "He and not she was present;" that is, "He was there, but she was not."

STUDENT.—What are you to notice first? Answer: When not is joined to and, &c. What is the second? The verb is used in the singular in such cases.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Genuine piety and not great riches, make a death-bed easy. 2. Ignorance and not negligence, have produced this mistake. 3. Her prudence, not her possessions, render her an object of desire. 4. Good order and not mean savings, produce profit.

RULE 7.—Two or more singular nouns, coupled with and, require a verb and pronoun in the *singular*, when they express only *one* person or thing; as, "That able scholar and critic *has* been eminently useful. STUDENT.—What are you to notice first? Two or more singular nouns coupled with and. What do they require? They require a verb and pronoun in the singular, "when they refer to one person or thing."

2. When comparison is expressed or implied, and not combination, the verb and pronoun must be singular; as, "He, as well as I, must perform his duty;" that is, "He must perform his duty, as well as I must perform mine."

STUDENT.—What do you notice first? When comparison, &c. Of what number must the verb and pronoun be in such cases?

VIOLATIONS.—1. She, as well as he, were studious at their books. 2. Burke, as well as Chatham, distinguished themselves in the British senate. 3. That superficial scholar and critic, like some renowned critics of our own, have furnished most decisive proofs that they knew not the characters of the Hebrew language. 4. It is true, that the prince, as well as the people, were to blame.

RULE 8.—When a pronoun refers to two words of different persons coupled with AND, the pronoun becomes plural, and agrees with the *first* person, when *I* or *we* is mentioned, and with the *second* when *I* or *we* is not mentioned; as, "Thou and Thomas shared between *you*."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—"Thou and he shared it between them." Here "Thou" and "He" are the two words coupled with and; but neither "I" nor "We" is mentioned, therefore, the pronoun *them*, which is of the third person, should be of the second— "You"—according to rule.

REMARKS.—The first or second person will always be one of the parties. The pronoun will always be either of the first or second person *plural*:

STUDENT.—Decline the personal pronouns. (See page 26, No. 14.) What do you notice first? A pronoun, whether it refers, &c. What is the second? Two words of different persons coupled with and. What do you do next? Make the pronoun plural, and of the first person, when I or we is mentioned; and of the second when I or we is not mentioned. Tell all the plural personal pronouns.—(See page 26, No. 14.)

VIOLATIONS.—1. James and I are attentive to their studies. 2. You and he are diligent in reading their bocks, therefore they are good boys. 3. Thou and he shared it between them. 4. He and I attend to their business. 5. You and James have got their lessons. 6. Thou, he, and I, are attending to your studies. 7. You and I are constantly employed in your domestic affairs. 8. He and you honour our parents.

RULE 9. The words one, this, that, each; every, either, neither, or, and nor, require verbs, nouns, and pronouns in the singular. All is joined with a singular, when it refers to quantity, and with a plural noun when it refers to number. OBSERVATIONS.—Each denotes two or more persons or things taken separately. Each other denotes two. One another denotes more than two; as, "They killed one another." Every relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them all taken separately; as, "Every one of them is here." It is sometimes joined to plural nouns which convey unity of idea; as, "Every ten men;" then the verb will be plural. Either signifies the one or the other, but not both. To say either of the three is improper. Neither imports not either. Either is sometimes improperly used instead of each. Neither, nor, either, and or, should be placed near the words to which they refer.

STUDENT.—What are you to notice first? The words, &c. What do those words require? Verbs, nouns, and pronouns in the singular. How do you use all?

VIOLATIONS .-- I. Every man are here. 2. Each of the men paid their share. 3. The kings sat each upon their thrones. 4. Ignorance or negligence have caused this mistake. 5. Neither character nor dialogue were yet understood. 6. Either his gratitude or compassion were roused. 7 Neither poverty nor riches were injurious to him. 8. Neither the master nor the servant were there. 9. One are never satisfied. 10. Let each of us mind their own business. 11. Death, or some worse misfortune, soon divide them. 12. Virtue or vice predominate in every mind. 13. Happiness or misery are the result of such conduct. 14. When sickness, infirmity, or reverse of fortune affect us, the sincerity of friendship is proved. 15. Nadab and Abihu, the sons of Aaron, took either of them his censer. 16. The king of Israel and the 17. And king of Judah sat either of them upon his throne. Jonathan, the son of Shimeah, slew a man of great stature. that had on every hand six fingers, and on every foot six toes. 18. By discussing what relates to each particular, in their order, we shall better understand the subject. 19. Are either of these men your friend. 20. Want of judgment, or want of enquiry, were occasion of his error. 21. Hope or despair govern him. 22. Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which move merely as they are moved. 23. The returns of kindness are sweet; and there are neither honour, nor virtue, nor utility in resisting them. 24. Either you or your friend were present.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON ALL THE PRECEDING RULES.

They was absent. Assiduity make all things easy. The crown of virtue is peace and honour. To defraud any man of his due praise, are unworthy of a philosopher. Diligence and industry repairs the defects of nature. Thou deserves punishment, thee thyself being judge. Want of birth and fortune were the objection against me To be of a pure and humble mind, to exercise benevolence towards others, to cultivate piety toward God, is the sure means of becoming peaceful and happy. Every virtue, every noble feeling were extinct. I, as well as he, must perform his duty. Humility, as well as knowledge, are truly estimable. Every hope, every wish, were disappointed. Poverty and shame attends

Digitized by Google

those who refuse to receive instruction. Every man and every woman were rendered amenable to the law. The kindness which is first experienced are seldom forgotten.

RULE 10.—A singular and a plural noun, separated by OR OR NOR, require a verb in the plural, and the nominative plural should be placed next to the verb; as, "Either, he, or they were offended at it."

If the verb has been expressed to the first nominative, it must be repeated to the second; also, when a particular emphasis is made; as, "Neither was poverty nor were riches injurious to him."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" Neither your intention nor reasons has influence." Here, "intention" is singular, and "reasons" plural; and the verb " has" singular, which ought to be *have* to agree with "reasons." " Neither she nor her sisters *wcre* commanded." If we wish to lay a particular stress upon the nominative, the verb must be repeated to both; thus, " Neither *was* she, nor *were* her sisters commanded."

STUDENT.—Name the first point under this rule. "A singular and a plural nominative." Name the second. "OR OR NOR. Tell the third. "The verb." What is a verb? Name the fourth. The verb to be next the plural nominative. What is the nominative of a sentence? What should the verb be? *Plural*. How is a *plural verb* formed? If an emphasis is intended, what do you do? Repeat the verb to each nominative. When the verb is repeated to the first nominative, what do you do with the second? Repeat the verb to both.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Either his brother or parents was to blame. 2. Neither he nor his brothers was present. 3. He or they was offended. 4. Neither the captain nor the sailors was saved. 5. Neither the king nor his ministers deserves to be praised. 6. The deceitfulness of riches, or carcs of this life, has choked the seed of virtue in many. 7. Whether one or more was concerned in the business does not yet appear. 8. Neither the thunder nor the storms was injurious. 9. Neither was the moon nor stars visible. 10. Either the general was there, or was some of his officers. 11. Neither were their exertions nor their skill successful. 12. Neither were his honours nor his estate inherited by his descendants.

RULE 11.—When the subject of a verb consists of pronouns of different persons separated by OR OR NOR, the verb should be supplied to each nominative; as, "Either he is or I am the man."

EXPLANATORY REMARKS.—Murray, Lennie, Guy, and most grammarians say "When singular nominatives of different persons are separated by on or NOB, the verb agrees with the person next it; as, 'Either thou or I *am* in fault." Lennie observes, "The verb, though expressed only to the last person, is understood to the rest. and the sentence when the ellipsis is supplied stands thus, "Either thou art or I am in fault." Let us fill up a few sentences, and then we shall have a fair specimen of grammatical elegance. "They am in fault, or I am in fault; I is the author, or they is the author, or he is the author." I suppose that grammariane thought it prudent to adopt this rule of error, because great writers frequently committed these errors: let us set ourselves against such formidable authority, rather than violate the rules of grammar. Such sentences may always be put into a different form, and it is better to take a little trouble, than to write nonsense, or even questionable grammar.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" Either he or I am going." Here "he" requires is after it, and "I" requires am. According to rule this sontence is read thus "Either he is going or I am going." Or, " Either he is, or I am going."

STUDENT.—What are you to notice first? When the subject of a verb, &c. What do you mean by different persons? The one in the first person, the other in the second or third, &c. What are you to do with the verb? Supply it after each nominative. In order to avoid stiff and pedantic language what are you to do? Avoid in convenient forms of expression.

VIOLATIONS.—1. He, thou, or I art the author of it. 2. Either he or I is to blame. 3. Jo'n or I has done it. 4. He or thou is the person who must write grammar. 5. Either Thomas or thou has tore the book. 6. Thou or I art the person that must undertake the business. 7. Neither he nor you is attentive to your interests. 8. She or Charles is still playing. 9. He or I is sure of this week's prize. 10. John or I has done it. 11. Neither you nor I were pleased at my reception. 12. Either that man or you is concerned in the affair.

RULE 12.—When the verb "TO BE" stands between a singular and a plural nominative, it agrees with that which is properly its subject; and the subject must be placed *before* the verb; as, "The wages of sin *is* death." "Death *is* the wages of sin."

EXPLANTORY OBSERVATIONS.—In the above sentences let us try to find the proper nominative to the verb. Is death or wages the subject? Death is, or constitutes, the wages. The bend of society is the laws; should be, the bond of society are the laws; for the laws are the bond. "An author's best monument is his works;" or, are his works. Works is properly the subject which constitute his monument. Avoid the verb "To Be" in all such cases of obscurity.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" His meat was locusts and wild honey." Was is the verb "To BE" and stands between meat and locusts, and meat is the nominative, singular, therefore we use s singular verb, "Locusts and wild honey" constitute his meat, therefore we use a plural verb.

Let the sense of the sentence direct you in this rule. I maintain that when two nominatives are employed, the following verb should be plural. But if you use a single nominative before the verb, the verb should be singular also. I invite any person to demonstrate to me the difference !!

STUDENT.—What is the first point? Ans. The verb "To Be." The second? A singular and a plural nominative. Where do you expect them to be placed? The one before and the other after the verb To be. Sometimes the singular is before the verb and sometimes the plura!. Where should the subject be placed? Before the verb. Consider well which is the subject, place it before the verb, and then make the verb agree with it.

VIOLATIONS.—1. His chief occupation were reading and writing. 2. Reading and writing was his chief occupation. 3. A great cause of the low state of industry were the restraints put upon it. 4 The restraints which was put upon industry were the great cause of its low state. 5. His chief occupation and enjoyment was controversy. 6. Controversy were his chief occupation and enjoyment. 7. His pavilion were dark waters and thick clouds. 8. The subject of this elegy, are the poignant sufferings and affecting death of Annabella. 9. The comeliness of youth, are modesty and frankness. 10. Modesty and frankness is the comeliness of youth.

RULE 13.—When a noun of multitude conveys *plu-rality* of idea, the verb and pronoun should be plural; as, "The committee *were* divided in their sentiments.

When a noun of multitude conveys *unity* of idea, the verb and pronoun should be singular; as, "The committee *was* sitting."

Notes.— The words, corporation, regiment, remnant, nation, flock, parliament, fleet, generation, shoal, army, class, church, family, world, are generally *singular*; but, when a meeting or counsel, &c., is *unanimous it conveys* unity of *idea*, but when *not* unanimous, plurality.

2. Mankind, peasantry, people, crowd, multitude, and sometimes committee, are generally *plural*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" The committee was sitting." Here the committee represents a number of individuals acting in an united capacity, and therefore the verb must be singular—was. In the sentence " The committee were divided in their sentiments." The word committee represents the individuals acting in a disunited capacity, therefore the verb were, and pronoun their should be employed.

STUDENT.—Name the collective nouns. Tell me the first thing to be noticed in this rule? A noun of multitude. What is a noun of multitude? The second? A verb and pronoun. For what are you to look in every scattence? A noun of multitude. What then? To look if it conveys unity or plurality of idea. If it conveys unity what do you do? I make the verb and pronoun in the singular. Read over the notes. If the verb conveys plurality of idea, what do you do? I make the verb and pronoun plural. Sometimes there is no pronoun in the sentence, and sometimes there is no plural.

VIOLATIONS.—1. The people is dispersed. 2. Every class were busy by themselves. 3. The army consist of sixty thousand. 4. The peasantry goes barefoot. 5. The crowd quarrelled among itself. 6. There is no church carcless of their own defence. 7. Mankind is naturally jealous of its rights. 8. The meeting were large. 9. The people rejoices in that which would give them sorrow. 10. The whole world were about that time in expectation of a prince out of Judea. 11. The court of Rome were not without solicitude. 12. The court have just ended, after having sat through the trial of a very long cause. 13. The crowd were so great that the judges with difficulty made their way through it. 14. The fleet were seen sailing up the channel. 15. The flock and not the fleece, are, or ought to be the object of the shepherd's care.

RULE 14.—Pronouns always agree with their antecedent and the nouns which they represent, in gender, number, and person; as, "The boys were attentive to their lessons.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—In the sentence, "The boys were attentive to their lessons," boys is of the plural number, masculine, and of the third person; the pronoun *their* agrees with boys in gender, number, and person. "The tree is known by its fruit." Tree is of the neuter, singular, and of the third person; and as its refers to trees, it must be in the same gender, number, and person.

STUDENT.---What are you to notice first? Pronouns. What is a pronoun? What do you notice second? The antecedent. What is meant by the antecedent? What are you to do with the pronoun? Make it agree with the antecedent. What do you mean by agree? . To make the pronoun in the same number, gender, and person.

VIOLATIONS.—1. John is a good boy, she loves her book. 2. Jane and Ann are naughty; for she disobey me. 3. Beware of pleasure who is a deally poison. 4. Send each of them in their turn. 5. The mind of man cannot be long without some food to nourish the activity of his thoughts. 6. A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than it both. 7. France, who is in alliance with Sweden. 8. The foe is not so forward as we supposed them to be. 9. A soul, inspired with the love of truth, will keep all his powers attentive to the pursuit of it. 10. I do not think any one should incur censure for being tender of his reputation. 11. His sound understanding and refined education discovered itself at a single interview.

RULE 15.—Personal pronouns must not be used for THESE and THOSE, which have always nouns, expressed or implied. It is improper to say, "Give me them books;" it should be *those* books. Nouns and numeral adjectives must agree in number according to the sense; thus, "this books" should be "these books," because books is plural.

OBSERVATIONS.---1. Make these and those agree with the noun implied or expressed. 2. This and that agree with the singular; these and those, with the plural. (See page 19, No. 26.)

ILLUSTRATIONS.—"Them that tell lies should never be esteemed." "Them" should be *those*, for the noun person is implied. If the noun was expressed, the sentence would read thus; "*Those* persons that" &c.

STUDENT.—What is the first point? Personal pronouns. The second? These and those. The third? Nouns expressed or implied. For what should personal pronouns not be used? For these and those. With what should a numeral adjective agree? In number, according to the sense.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Those sort of things is made at Sheffield. 2. I have not seen him this ten years. 3. Give me them here. 4. You have been talking this three hours. 5. We have lived here this many years. 6. I have no interests but that of truth and virtue. 7. Those sort of favours did real injury. 8. He has lived here this ten years. 9. Which of them two persons has most distinguished himself. 10. None more impatiently suffer injuries than these.

RULE 16.—THEY is generally used in preference to *those*, at the begining of a sentence; also, when there is no particular reference to an antecedent; thus, *those* that sow in tears, should be, "*They* that sow in tears."

STUDENT.—What are you to notice first? They is to be used instead of those, at the beginning of a sentence. What besides? When there is no particular reference to an antecedent. What do you mean by ante:edent?

VIOLATIONS.—1. Those that are diligent will generally succeed. 2. Those that prepare to die, die happy. 3. Those who win gold ought to wear it. 4. Those that study intently generally improve. 5. Those who are your superiors you should honour, and not those who are your servants. 6. Those who honour me I will honour. 7. Those who keep peace are called peacemakers. 8. Those who hate sin will fee from it. 9. Those who seek wisdom will certainly find her.

RULE 17.—In the position of the personal pronouns, the second person should be placed before the third; but the first person should be placed last; as, "Thou and he came." "Thou, he, or I came to do it."

Note.—The neuter pronoun "It" is sometimes understood and not implied; thus we say, "As appears" for "As it appears."

The pronoun "It" is sometimes employed to express—1. The state or condition of anything, or the cause of something produced; as, "How is it with you?" 2. The subject of any discourse or

inquiry; as, "It has happened fortunately." "Who was it that spoke to him?" 3. The persons or things that may be the cause of any effect or event, and when the nominative to a verb applies to persons and things; as, "It was I." "It was thou." "It was he who did it." "It rains." "It is cold." "It is them." "It is the queen." "It is I, be not afraid."

ILLUSTRATIONS ON THE NOTE.—"It rains;" that is, the state of the atmosphere is such as to produce rain. "It is a frosty morning;" that is, the state of the morning is such, that it (the morning) is frosty." 2. "It has happened fortunately." "It" refers to something which is the subject of the thing happened. 3. "It was he that hurt him;" that is, he was the person who caused the hurt, or he effected the hurt."

OBSERVATIONS.—1. "It is and "it was" are often used in a *plural* construction, to express the persons or things which may be the cause of any effect or event; as, "It is they that come in late." "It was the scholars who gave them." But when the cause of any event or effect is not implied, this mode of expression is not employed; thus, "It is true his assertions, though they are paradoxical."

I. The word *there*, is under the same influence. Both words (it and *there*) are most frequently employed in the anomalous manner, in combination with the verb *to be*; as, "It was I that did it." "It is shameful." There are many men injured by this." "There is no objection to that."

ILLUSTRATIONS ON THE RULE.—"I and hc." Now, hc is the third person, and I is the first. According to rule, "I" should be last.

STUDENT,—Where should the second person be placed? Before the third. Tell me all the second persons singular and plural. Where should the first person be placed? The last. Mention all the second personal pronouns, singular and plural. Repeat the first persons singular and plural.

VIOLATIONS.—1. I and thou must go together. 2. He and thou must do it. 3. I or you must write a letter. 4. He and thou must pronounce it. 5. I and he told the same story. 6. He and you were busy. 7. I and he have been consulting the biographical chart. 8. I and you have not written our exercises. 9. It is remarkable, his continual endeavours to serve us, notwithstanding our ingratitude.

RULE 18. It is improper to use both a noun and its pronoun as a nominative to the same verb; as, "The king, he is just." "The men *they* were there;" should be, "The king is just." "The men were there."

Also, it is improper to use both a noun and its pronoun as an objective AFTER the same verb; thus, "All that was committed to thy servants, they do it." IT should be omitted,—all is the objective after do. (See 2 Chronicles 34 c., 16 v.) ILLUSTRATIONS AND QUESTIONS.—What are you to notice first ? A noun and its pronoun. What are you to do in every sentence? To omit the pronoun. Can a noun and a pronoun be used to the same nominative? Can you use a noun and a pronoun as the object, after the same verb? No. Whether should you omit the noun or pronoun? The pronoun.

"The books they are thine." Which is the noun? Books. What is a noun? Which is the pronoun? They. To what werb are books and they the nominative? To are. Which should be omitted? They.

VIDLATIONS.—1. My banks they are furnished with bees. 2. For he bringeth down them that dwell on high; the lofty city he layeth it low. 3. Simple and innocent pleasure they alone are durable. 4. Many words they darken speech. 5. Who instead of going about doing good, they are perpetually intent upon doing mischief. 6. The boy he is good. 7. Disappointments and afflictions, however disagreeable, they often improve us. 8. These pictures they are sold. 9. Which rule, if it had been observed, a neighbouring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense which has been offered to him. 10. Man, though he has a great variety of thoughts, and such from which others, as well as himself, might receive profit and delight, yet they are all within his own breast. 11. I saw her the queen. 12. I will flog him 'his back.

RULE 19.—Every adjective has a noun expressed or understood, with which it must agree in number; as, "This kind of knives." "These kind of knives " "This man." "These men."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" He is a good as well as a wise man;" that is, "He is a good man, as well as a wise man." In the sentence "Man" is understood after the first adjective "good," and we use the singular "a." "Few are happy," i.e. persons, understood in the plural, to agree with the plural adjective FEW.

STUDENT. — What is an adjective? For what do you look first? Ans. For the noun, expressed or understood? With what must the adjective agree? With the noun. What do you mean by agree.

VIOLATIONS.—1. These kind of indulgences soften and injure the mind. 2. Instead of improving yourselves, you have been playing these two hours. 3. Those sort of favours did real injury under the appearance of kindness. 4. The chasm made by the earthquake was twenty foot broad, and one hundred fathom in depth. 5. How many a sorrow should we avoid, if we were not industrious to make them. 6. I have not seen him this ten days. 7. There is six foot water in the hold. 8. Those sort of plants is fragrant.

RULE 20--The phrases THIS MEANS and THAT MEANS, should be used when they refer to one thing or word; THESE MEANS and THOSE MEANS when they refer to plurals; as, "He was diligent, and by *this means* he became learned." "He was also industrious and frugal, and by *these means* he became rich."

STUDENT.—What is a phrase? What do you mean by singular? What do you mean by plural? What is the first thing this rule teaches you? To use this means and *that means* when they refer to one thing or word. What is the second? To use *these means* and *those means* when they refer to plurals.

Note.—Amends is used in the same way as means; as, "Peace of mind is a honourable amends for the sacrifice of interest."

2. The phrase "a mean" is used in the singular only, to denote mediocrity, moderation, medium or middle state; as, "This is a mean between the two extremes."

VIOLATIONS.—1. He lived temperately, and by these means preserved his health. 2. Charles was extravagant and by this mean became poor and despicable. 3. It was by that ungenerous mean that he otained his end. 4. Industry is the mean of obtaining competency. 5. Though a promising measure, it is a means which I cannot adopt. 6. This person embraced every opportunity to display his talants, and by these means rendered himself ridiculous. 7. Joseph was industrious, frugal, and discreet; and by this means obtained property and reputation.

RULE 21.—When two objects are compared, the comparative must be used; but, when more than two, the superlative must be used; as, "She is stronger of the two, and is the happiest of her sisters."

The comparative and the word other are followed by *than* when opposition is intended; and by of when selection is implied.

ILLUSTRATIONS AND EXPLANATORY REMARKS.

The comparative degree is used when the things compared belong to different classes; as, "The English are braver than the French." In this case the comparative is followed by than. The use of the word other after the comparative confines the persons or objects to the same class; thus, when I say, "Socrates was wiser than any other Athenian;" I mean Socrates was an Athenian. But were I to say, "Socrates was not an Athenian; but was wiser than the Athenians. The word other must always be followed by than.

The superlative always compares one or more objects with others of the same class, and in these cases the word other is not used; thus instead of saying, "Cicero, of all other Romans was the most elloquent;" we should say, "Cicero was the most eloquent of the Romans," that is, out of the whole class of Romans.

STUDENT.—What does the positive degree express? What does the comparative degree express? When is the comparative employed? What does the superlative express? What does the superlative compare? See page 18. Compare lesson 7th, p. 24. What does the first part of the rule teach you? Ans. Two objects compared. What degree are you to use? The comparative. What does the second part teach you? What words does than follow? When is of used?

VIOLATIONS.—1. Wisdom is better nor health. 2. Africanus was the greatest of the two Scipios. 3. He is the tallest of the two. 4. The opposite scale is the heaviest. 5. When two verbs come together, the last must be put in the infinitive mood. 6. Of the three, John is the more learned. 7. William, Jabez, and James, came together; the latter seems to be in ill health. 8. I understood him the least of all others who spoke. 9. She is the most amiable of all her sisters. 10. He is the best of any man I know. 11. He, of all others made the greatest figure. 12. Of all his brothers he has the most talent.

RULE 22.—Double comparatives and double superlatives must not be used; as, "A worser conduct." "A more severer temper." "The most happiest number." Should be, "A worse conduct." "A more serene temper." "The most happy number; or, the happiest number."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" Don is the most swiftest dog." Tell the adjective. Most and swiftest. What degree? How do you correct this error? By omitting most. Could you not omit est at the end of swift? No. Why? Because swift is a word of one syllable, and must be compared by adding est,

STUDENT.—What are the two things to be noticed? Double comparatives and double superlatives. What must you not do? I must not use them. How is the comparative formed? How is the superlative formed? Then you are to omit one of the comparatives if there are two; also one of the superlatives if there are two together.

CAUTIONS—You should not be profuse in the use of the superlative degree; avoid strong expressions, the too frequent use of which betrays the inexperienced writer, and the feeble thinker, instead of giving additional force and energy to a description. Never use such words as *shocking*, *horrible*, *atrocious*, *diabolical*, *scandalous*, &cc., in speaking or writing on trivial and unimportant matters.

Justin Brenan observes—" Unpractised writers deal out praise with shameless profusion, and thus make themselves the sport of the more sensible and discerning. They give us abundance of most judicious, most kind, excessively humane, uncommonly good, kindhearted, quintescence of perfection, elegant, beautiful, mild, sweet, delightful, charming, fine, and every thing that can mark encomium high." This author further observes—" This propensity betrays itself in conversation also, for, with these indiscriminate praisers, a girl is beautiful, and so is boiled mutton at dinner—soup is elegant, a pig's face charming, and a cod's head delightful."

VIOLATIONS.---1. He sometimes claims admission to the chiefest offices. 2. The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs faster the

lesser weight it carries. 3. The Supreme Being is the wisest, the most powerfulest, and the most best of being. 4. The nightingale's voice is the sweetest in the grove. 5. James is a worser scholar than John. 6. Absalom was the most beautifulest man. 7. It is more easier to build two chimnies than to maintain one. 8. It was more warmer yesterday. 9. A more yellower flower, 10. The most strongest man. 11. This is a splendider apartment than the other. 12. The prettiest but not the happiest of the two.

RULE 23.—Adjectives which in their simple form imply the highest or lowest degree, do not admit the comparative or superlative form; such as, chief, perfect, true, universal, supreme, consumate, extreme, prior, false, exterior, superior, ulterior, &c.

CAUTIONS.—Instead of more or most universal, say more extensive, or most extensive. Universal imports over all, and nothing can be more than over all the universe. "His tale was most false;" say, evidently false. Never use more or most perfect.

STUDENT.—What do you notice first? Adjectives which in their simple form, &c. (See puge 19, No. 22; also, page 22, exercises.)

VIOLATIONS.—1. His work was more perfect than his brother's. 2. That expression is more untrue than the other. 3. It was situated on the extremest point of the laud. 4. He was the chiefest of ten thousand. 5. The house is quite full. 6. That opinion is too universal to be rejected. 7. Virtue confers the most supreme dignity on man; and should be his chiefest aim. 8. His assertion was more true than that of his opponent; nay the latter words were most true. 9. His work is perfect; his brother's more perfect; and his father's the most perfect of all. 10. He gave the fullest and most sincere proof of the truest friendship.

RULE 24.—When two persons or things are contrasted; also, when two things have been mentioned and you have occasion to mention them again; THAT refers to the former or more remote mentioned, and THIS to the latter or nearer; as, "Knowledge and wisdom are very different; *this* enables us to do what is right, *that* to know what is right."

FORMER and LATTER are often used in the plural instead of *that* and *this*, they are alike in both numbers.

OBSERVE.—Former and latter are applied to both persons and things. This and that should not be applied to persons.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" Virtue and vice are opposite; that (namely virtue) enobles the mind; this (namely vice) debases the mind." "Newton and Aristotle were men of high renoun; the former for his astronomical knowledge; the latter for his metaphysics." In this sentence we could not use that and this; because the sentence refers to persons; but we can say former and latter. STUDENT.—What part of speech is this and that; former and latter? To what do this and that apply? To what do former and latter apply? To both persons and things. What do you notice first? Two persons, or things contrasted. What do you mean by contrast? Two objects of opposite qualities; as, "Light and dark." What do you notice second? The words this and that. To which does this relate? To what does that relate? Which number do this and that denote? To which number do former and latter apply? To both. (See p. 19, No. 26; also page 20, No. 27.)

VIOLATIONS .--- Wealth and poverty are both temptations; this tends to excite pride, that discontentment. Moses and Soloman were men of the highest renoun; the latter was remarkable for his meekness, the former was renound for his wisdom. Body and soul must part; the former winds its way to the almighty source, the latter drops into the dark and noisome grave. Religion raises men above themselves; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of perishable earth, this exalts them to the skies. And the cloud came between the camp of the Egyptians and the camp of Israel, and it was a cloud and darkness to them, but it gave light to these. I have always prefered cheerfulness to mirth, the former I consider as an act, the latter as a habit of the mind. Rex and Tyrannus are of very different characters; the one rules his people by laws to which they consent; the other, by his absolute power: this is called freedom, that tyranny.

RULE 25.—Adjectives should not be used as adverbs, nor adverbs as adjectives. An adjective must be used when the quality of a noun, expressed or implied, is indicated; but an adverb must be used, when the degree, manner, time, of an adjective, a verb, or an adverb, is implied. And further, adverbs qualify adjectives and verbs. Adjectives qualify nouns.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—In the following phrases adjectives are improperly used for adverbs: "Miserable poor;" "Indifferent honest;" "Excellent well." They should be, miserably, indifferently, and excellently; because these words are placed before adjectives; and adverbs qualify adjectives.

The following phrases contain adverbs improperly used for adjectives :--- "Their manner of living was agreeably to their rank and station." Agreeable; because it qualifies the nouns rank and station; that is, their manner of living was agreeable. "He must not expect to find study agreeable always" should be always agreeable.

DIFFERENT POSITIONS OF THE ADJECTIVES

The adjective is generally placed immediately before its noun; as, "A glorious prospect." There are exceptions to this rule, and this order is inverted :---1. When one or more words are dependent on the adjectives; as "Knowledge is requisite for a statesman." 2. When the adjective is emphatical, or is used as a title; as, "Alfred the Great." 3. When several adjectives belong to a single noun, they may either precede or follow the noun—(they generally follow); as, "A learned, wise, and amiable man;" or, "A man, learned, wise and amiable." OBSERVE.— The longest adjective should be placed last. 4. When the adjective is preceded by an adverb; as, "A man conscientiously exact." 5. The verb to be often separates the noun from its adjective; as, "Gaming is ruinous." 6. When the adjective expresses some circumstance of a noun, placed after transitive verbs; as, "Graat is our God." Sometimes the word all is emphatically put after a number of particulars comprehended under it; as, "Ambition, honour, interest, all concerned."

STUDENT.—What is an adjective? What is an adverb? For what should not an adverb be used? Where should an adjective be placed? When may an adverb be used? What do "dverbs qualify? What do adjectives qualify? When may an adjective be use? When the adjective is emphatic, where is it placed? Where is the word all put? When two adjectives come together, which is placed last? Tell me all you know on the position of the adjectives.

VIOLATIONS.—They lived conformable to the rules of prudence. He acted agreeable to his instructions. She reads proper, writes very neat, and composes accurate. His manner of living was singular absurd. He came agreeable to his promise, and conducted himself suitable to the occasion. Three month's notice is required to be given previous to a pupil's leaving the school. He behaved himself submissive, and was exceeding careful not to give offence. They hoped for a soon and prosperous issue to the war. I intend, conformable to my plan, to suggest a few hints. He is a person of great abilities, and exceeding upright, and is like to be a very useful member of the community.

RULE 26.—FROM should not be used before *hence*, thence, and whence, whenever it can be done without occasioning stiffness.

2. After verbs of motion, hither, thither, and whither should be used instead of here, there, and where, on solemn occasions.

3. When, there, and while should not be used for nouns: where, when no reference to place is intended, must not be used for a relative and a preposition.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—1. "From hence" should be, "hence," because "hence" signifies from this place. 2. "Where are you going" should be, "Whither are, &c." "Come here" should be, "come hither." 3. "Since when" should be, "since which time;" because when must not be used for a noun-time. "Since then" ought to be, "since that time." "Tell me where it happened" Here is reference to place and should be, "Tell me in which place it happened."

STUDENT.—What part of speech are hence, thence, and whence? (See page 74, No. 10.) What do they imply? From this place, from that place, from which place. Why should not from be used before these words ¹ Because it is implied. What part of speech are hither, thither, and whither? (See page 74, No. 10.) When should not these words be used? What do you mean by verbs of motion? What part of speech are when, then, and while? What does where denote? (See page 74, No. 14.) When must not when, then, while, and where not be used?

VIOLATIONS.—1. He departed from thence into a desert place. 2. From whence come ye? 3. From hence arose all that confusion. 4. He drew up a petition, where he too freely represented his own merits. 5. Where are you going? 6. He left the seminary too early, since when he has made little improvement. 7. We walked there in an hour. 8. His follies had reduced him to a situation where he had much to fear and nothing to hope. 9. He went to London last year, since when I have not seen him. 10. Nothing is better worth the while of young persons, than the acquisition of knowledge and virtue. 11. It is not worth his while. 12. Some of my then hearers prevailed upon me to publish these lectures. 13 George is active; he walked there in less than an hour.

RULE 27.—Adverbs are, for the most part, placed before adjectives, after verbs active-transitive or neuter, and frequently between the auxiliary and the verb; as, "He is very attentive." "She behaves well, and is much esteemed.

ILLUSTRATIONS AND EXPLANATIONS.

1. The adverb is placed before the adjective; as, "A truly good grammarian." 2. After a single verb, and after the objective of a transitive verb; as, "She walks gently." "He loves him sincerely." Sometimes, it precedes the verb; as, "Men often deceive themselves." 3. When there are two auxiliaries, it is placed either between them or after both; as, "He might easily have done it." "He should have earnestly urged it upon him." When anything emphatical is intended, it precedes the auxiliaries; as, "Certainly you must have known." 4. The adverb is generally placed after plassive verbs; as, "He has been severely reproved." Adverbs of time either before or after the second auxiliary. (See page 73, No. 4.) 5. Not, when it qualifies the present participle. 6. When there are several adverbs and several auxiliaries to the same verb, the adverbs must be intermixed with the auxiliaries.

7. Never generally precedes the verb except be; as, "I never saw him." But it may either be placed before or after the auxiliary. Never must not be used for ever; thus, "If I make my hands never so clean," should be, "Ever so clean." The chief point to study is, that the adverb may be so situated as to qualify the word which it is intended to qualify, and that word only. Perspicuity is the grand object.

RULE 1. The adverb only must always be placed as to convey the meaning intended; therefore, it may be placed either before or after the word which it modifies; as, "He only was poor;" I mean he was the only person that was poor. If I say, "He was only poor," I mean, that he was poor, and nothing else.

RULE 2.—The adverb enough must be placed after the adjective which it qualifies, and both the adjective and adverb after the noun; as, "A book large enough."

OBSERVE.—I have been as explicit and perspicuous as possible in defining and expounding this rule, notwithstanding there are other precautions to be made. Be cautious how you place the adverb NOT ONLY, and NOT MERELY; let easy flow, and perspicuity of the phrases be chiefly regarded.

STUDENT.—What is an adverb? Where should it be placed? For the most part, &c. Is the adverb placed bcfore the adjective? What is an adjective? What is an active-transitive verb? What is an auxiliary verb? (See page 36, No. 12.) Repeat them. Where is the adverb placed when there are two auxiliaries? Where is the adverb placed when anything emphatical is implied? How is the adverb placed with passive verbs? How with adverbs of time? How is not placed? How do you place the adverb when it is connected with several auxiliaries? How is never generally placed? For what must never be used? What is the chief point to study in reference to the placeng of the adverbs? Where should the adverb only be placed? Where should enough be placed?

VIOLATIONS-1. These things should be never separated. 2. It may have been recieved thankfully. 3. William nobly acted, though he was unsuccessful. 4. The heavenly bodies are in motion perpetually. 5. He sweetly sings, he charmingly converses, he prudently conducts himself, on all occasions. 6. He might have at least civilly requested it. 7. Ask me never so much dowry. 8. He spoke in a distinct enough manner to be heard by the whole assembly. 9. He gave him a large enough number. 10. I saw three persons only. 11. If some persons' opportunities were never so favourable, they would be too indolent to improve them. 12. A God verily there is that judgeth the earth. 13. We should not be overcome totally by present events. 14. He impertinently behaved to his master. 15. He unaffectedly and forcibly spoke, and was heard attentively by the whole assembly. 16. They were permitted never to assemble in large numbers. 17. A sovereign was never so much beloved by the people. 18. He was determined to invite back the king, and to call together his friends. 19. It is impossible continually to be at work. 20. The women contributed all their rings and jewels voluntarily, to assist the government. 21. Having not known,

Digitized by Google

or having not considered the measures proposed, he failed of success. 22. In the proper position of adverbs, the ear carefully requires to be consulted as well as the sense.

RULE 28.—Two negatives in the same sentence should not be used, when negation is intended; thus "I cannot drink no more wine;" should be "I can drink no more wine;" or, "I cannot drink any more wine."

CAUTIONS.—Hiley. Lennie, Pinnock, and Murray, say, "Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative; as, "Nor did they not perceive him;" that is, "They did perceive him." Here is complete nonsense. How can two denials be equivalent to an affirmative? Exactly as two lies are equal to truth. If we are allowed to use two negatives, or one negative as we think proper; why give a rule at all? If I wish to affirm the above assertion, I should say, "They did perceive him." If I wish to negative the above assertion, I should say, "They did not perceive him." This is according to the grammatical construction of the sentence. It is better to express an affirmation, by a regular affimative, than obscure the sentence by two separate negatives.

QUESTIONS AND ILLUSTRATIONS.—What do you mean by negative? A denial. What is meant by negation? Denial. Repeat the adverbs of negation. No, not, nay, not at all, nothing, never, neither, &c. What do you notice first? Two negatives. What should you do with them? Omit one; for two in the same clause of a sentence are improper. Example.—"He cannot do nothing." Which are the two negatives? Not and no. Correct the sentence. "He can do nothing." What have you done? Cast the not out. Can you express the sentence any other way? Yes, I can say "He cannot do anything."

VIOLATIONS .- 1. He will not, by no means, act as they advise him. 2. We have not done nothing to day. 3. Neither precept nor discipline is not so forcible as example, 4. So tranquil was he, so armed in conscious virtue, so sustained by the noblest religious principles, that no adverse occurrence, no change of fortune never disturbed him. 5. He will never be no taller. 6. Be honest, nor take no shape nor resemblance of disguise. 7. They could not no farther. 8. We need not, nor do not confine his operations to narrow limits. 9. Covet neither riches nor honours, nor no such perishing things. 10. I cannot comply with the proposal, neither at present, nor at any other time. 11. Nothing never affected her so much. 12. There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity. 13. I am resolved not to do it never at no 14. These people do not judge wisely, nor take no proper time. measures to effect their purpose. 15. The measure is so exceptionable, that we cannot by no means permit it. 16. The king nor the queen were not at all deceived in the business.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON THE RULE BELONG-ING TO ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

1. If you are blessed naturally with a good memory, continually exercise it. 2. We may happily live, though our possessions are

_G

small. 3. His conduct was agreeably to his notions of honour. 4. I intend conformably to my plan to suggest a few hints. 5. He is the better of the three. 6. Agreeable to my promise I now write to you. 7. The quarrel became so universal and national. 8. That is the most grossest insult that could be, offered to any one. 9. Not the man only, but the woman also was present. 10. A man was never so used. 11. From whence we may likewise date the period of this event. 12. There are some of his pieces where the fable is founded on one action only. 13. I believe that such deep reasoning could only come from such an extraordinary writer as Junius. 14. Pleasure is only received, when we give it in return. 15. I understood him the best of all others who spoke upon the subject. 16. I never saw such a high building. 17. Such an amiable temper is seldom seen. 18. He is more experienced and older than she. 19. That is a very unpretending and useful little volume. 20. He acted agreeable to his instructions.

RULE 29.—When two nouns, or a noun and a pronoun come together, signifying different things, the former is put in the possessive; as, "My father's house." "John's book."

When the thing possessed is obvious, it is usually omitted; as, "I went to the draper's;" that is, to " the draper's shop."

Two nouns coming together, and signifying the same thing, are put in the same case; as, "Victoria the queen."

STUDENT.—What is a noun? How is the possessive formed? How many cases have nouns? Name them. How is the possessive plural formed when it ends in s? What do you notice first? What do you notice second? In what case must the first be? When the thing possessed is obvious, what do you do? What do you do when two nouns come together signifying the same thing?

ILLUSTRATIONS.—lst. "Roberts hat." Here are two nouns together, and the first, according to rule, should be put in the possessive; thus "Robert's hat." 2nd. "I have been at St. Pauls." Here the second noun is obvious, meaning "St. Paul's *church.*" Srd. "The city of London." These two nouns signify the same place, therefore they are put in the same case.

VIOLATIONS.—1. The kings picture. 2. A ladys fan. 3. Virtues reward. 4. The mens gloves. 5. Childrens toys. 6. A mans hat. 7. Englands glory. 8. Wisdoms precepts are the good mans delight. 9. A mans manners frequently influence his fortune. 10. Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord. 11. A mothers tenderness and a fathers care, are natures gifts for mans advantage. 12. Helen her beauty was the cause of Troy its destruction. 13. My ancestors writue is not mine. 14. His brothers offence will not condemn him. 15. I will not destroy the city for ten sake. Jesus feet. 17. Moses rod. 18. He is gone to the booksellers.
 We have been at St. James. 20. Religion the support of adversity. 21. Cicero the orator.

NOTES.—lst. Nouns are always of the third person, except when they are employed to name the person addressed; in which case they are of the second person; as. "Our Father who art in heaven."

2nd. The possessive its is often improperly used for "it is," as, "Its my book," instead of "It is my book." You must use neither "tis nor its," but "it is." (See Observations, page 112.)

3rd. Two proper nouns forming one name, or a name and title; or, several persons of one name, the plural form is annexed to the last \$\overline{a}_{as}\$, "Miss Bells;" "Mr. Thompsons." When speaking of them in a particular manner, we say, "The Miss Bells," or "The two Miss Bells."

4th. In composition, and in addressing letters to several persons of one name, or of one firm, we pluralize the title; as, "To *Misses* Bush;" "To *Messrs*. (for Messieurs, French) Greaves."

RULE 30.—When several possessive nouns come together, the apostrophe and s are annexed to the *last* and understood to the rest; as, "John and James's book."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" David and Jonathan's friendship." Here friendship is equally applicable to David and Jonathan; therefore the latter only has the sign of the possessive.

STUDENT.—What do you notice 1st? Several possessive nouns coming together. Which is put in the possessive? The last.

REMARK.—The thing possessed belongs jointly to the individuals named.

VIOLATIONS.--1. Johns and Eliza books. 2 This was my father's, mother's, and uncle's advice. 3. Peter's, John's, and Andrew's occupation was that of fishermen. 4. He asked his fathers as well as his mother's advice. 5. It was the men's, women's, and children's lot to suffer great calamities.

RULE 31.—The sign of the possessive should be annexed to each noun; 1st. When a particular emphasis is to be laid; as, "They are John's as well as Eliza's books." 2nd. When several words intervene; and when comparison is made; as, "This not only gained the king's but the people's approbation."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—Emphasis is laid on the nouns of the following sentence, and according to rule the possessive must be annexed to each; thus, "He had the *physician's*, the *surgeon's*, and the *apothecary's* assistance.

2. Several words intervene in this sentence—" Thy ancestor's virtue and character is not thine.

STUDENT.—What are you to notice first? The sign of the possessive. The second? To see if there is an emphasis placed on the nouns. The third? To annex the sign of the possessive to every word. The fourth? Look if there are several words intervening. What then? To make the nouns in the possessive case.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Not a day nor an hour's unnecessary delay. 2. The emperors and the kings forces. 3. He took refuge at the governors the kings representative. 4. Not only the counsel and attorneys, but the judge opinion also favoured his cause. 5. The judge and the jurys sentiments are often at variance.

RULE 32.—When a name or title consists of two or three terms, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the *last*, whether the governing noun is expressed or implied; as, "TheDuke of Wellington the general's tent."

REMARKS.—When the governing noun is *expressed* the 's is annexed to the *office* or *profession*, as in the above sentence, where *general* is the office. In those cases, in which several terms are applied to the same individual it is better to use of rather than s.

STUDENT.—What is the first point? Sentences which contain names or titles of two or three terms. To which is the 's added? To the *last*. When the governing noun is expressed, to which is the 's annexed? To the office.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—He called upon Mr. Newton, the chemist and druggist's shop. Here the governing noun *shop* is expressed, and therefore the noun druggist has the 's annexed.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Paul the apostle advice. 2. Alfred the Greats palace. 3. Henry the eighth reign. 4. This is the Grand Sultan's Mahomet's palace. 5. The Bishop's of Landaff excellent work. 6. The Lord Mayor's of London authority. 7. The captain of the guard's house. 8. I will not do it for David's thy father's sake. 9. Give me John the Baptist head.

RULE 33.—When one or more explanatory terms, which signify office or possession, are added to a name, the apostrophe and s are added to the *name* only, when the governing noun is understood; as, "I left the bottle at Mr. Newton's, the chemist and druggist; here, the governing noun shop is understood, and, therefore, not the possession druggist; but the name Newton must have the 's added; thus, "Newton's."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—I called at Mr. Greaves's, the printer, bookseller, and stationer. The silk was purchased at Brown's, the mercer and haberdasher. In both these cases, shop is understood, and therefore the apostrophe and s are added to the name only. VIOLATIONS.—1. These psalms are David, the king, priest, and prophet. 2. This is Dr. Watson, the bishop of Landaff's. 3. He emulated Cæsar's the great. 4. We staid a week at Lord Grosvenor the president's. 5. I reside at Lord Littleton, the ornament of his country.

NOTE RULES.—1. In some cases, the word of is used instead of the apostrophe and s; as, "The hill of science" for "Science's Hill."

The following sentences are better expressed by of, with the coming before the noun.

EXERCISES.—Correct the succeeding sentences:—1. Socrates's wisdom. 2. In the armies' name. 3. Lord's house. 4. Common's house. 5. Sheffield's trade. 6. England's queen. 7. Spain's king. 8. Gold's crown. 9. War's horrors. 10. London's Lord Mayor. (See Observations and Exercises, page 14.) When of would destroy the sense, it should not be used instead of the 's. In the following and similar sentences, we must use the 's rather than of:—The book of John. The bonnet of Amelia. The wine of Adam. The parasol of Jane.

RULE 2.—Of, joined to a noun, is equal to the possessive case only, when the expression can be turned into the possessive without altering the meaning; thus, a cup of ale cannot be turned into ale's cup; nor a crown of gold into gold's crown.

RULE 3.—In some instances, the word following of has the 's; in these cases, plurality is denoted; as, "A horse of my friend's," signifies, that is a horse that belongs to my friend. A picture of my uncle's indicates, this is one out of several. Sometimes, the sentences might be better expressed by using one; as, this is one of my uncle's pictures.

If there is only one subject possessed, the word immediately following of is in the objective case, without the possessive sign; as, "This picture of my friend," meaning a likeness of him. That is your friend's house; but not, that is the house of your friend's, when only one house is intended.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON THE LAST RULES.

1. From others' experience learn wisdom. 2. The lemons' juice is cool and refreshing. 3. They praised the duke's, as they called him, wit and sense. 4. He sent to Wilson's, the draper's shop. 5. It was a proposal of your brother. 6. This book is Thomas. 7, The estate of the corporation's is much encumbered. 8. Shakspeare, Milton, and Johnson's works have obtained great celebrity. 9. Till, vain of mortal's empty praise he strove. 10. This is the Duke's of Leinster's. 11. On this trial, the judge and the jury's sentiments were at variance. 12. This is Sir Walter Scott's work, the celebrated novelist and poet's. 13. The extent of the dominions of the emperor of Russiais very great. 14. These three books, (severally) are John, Thomas, and William's. 15. The Misses Clayton are come. 16. The house was Joseph's and Robert's property. 17. The letter was addressed to Miss Johnsons.

RULE 34.—The relative pronoun is of the same number, gender, and person as the *antecedent*, and the verb agrees with it accordingly; as, "Thou who *lovest* wisdom." "The men who officiated were very kind."

Note Rules.—1. Who is applied to persons; which to both things and persons, when asking questions. (See page 28th, No. 10.)

2 The relative must be put in the objective case when it is the object of a verb or preposition; as, "He whom we serve is eternal."

3. That is used instead of who or which; 1st, after adjectives in the superlative degree—after the words SAME and ALL, and after some and any. 2nd. When the antecedent consists of two nouns, the one requiring who and the other which; as, "The man and the horse that we saw yesterday." 3rd. After the interrogative who; as, "Who that has common sense will believe it ?" 4th. That is also used when persons form only part of the antecedent; as, "The men and things that he has studied have not improved his morals." 5th. When the antecedent of the pronoun is a clause or part of a sentence, the pronoun is put in the neuter gender, singular number, and third person; as, "It grieves me to hear of your illness." "She was over-indulgent to her children, which is a sin."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—In the sentence, "Thou who lovest wisdom," the pronoun thou is the antecedent in the singular number, and of the second person; and, therefore, who, the relative, must be in the same number and person, to agree with it, and the verb lovest agrees also with the relative, as its nominative. In the sentence, "The men who officiated were very kind," the antecedent, men, is in the plural number, and of the third person, (as being, spoken of;) and who must be in the same number and person, to agrees with it.

OBSERVE.—The relative does not agree with it in case; the antecedent may be in one case, while the relative may, according to circumstances be in another.

STUDENT.—Name the first point. The relative. What the second? Its antecedent. Having found these two points, what it your business? To make the relative agree.

"A boy which is diligent will improve."

Which is the relative in this sentence? Which. Which is the antecedent? Boy. What gender? Masculine. Which should be who, because boy is masculine, and who is applied to persons.

VIOLATIONS.—1. They which seek peace will certainly find her 2. The tiger is a beast of prey, who destroys without pity. 3. This is the friend which I love. 4. That is the vice whom I hate. 5. This moon who rose last night. 6. Blessed is the man which walketh in wisdom's ways. 7. Thou who has been a witness of the fact can speak to it. 8. Who of those men came to her assistance? 9. Who of those boys reads the best? 10. The horse who I saw run for the cup. 11. Who of you did that?

QUESTIONS AND EXAMINATIONS ON THE - THIRD NOTE RULE.

Name the first point. The relative *that*. You will not find a "that" in every sentence. You are to turn who or which into THAT. Repeat the whole rule. Now, you see you are to use THAT, first after the superlative degree; also, after same and all; second, after two antecedents, the one requiring who, the other which; and 3rd, the interrogative WHO. Now, when you get any of these words in a sentence, throw out the who, which, or whom, and put THAT in its place.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—" The boy is the best who repeated his lesson first." Who should be THAT, because that is used instead of who, after adjectives in the superlative degree.

"The man and the dog which we saw."

Which should be *that*, because man requires *who*, and the dog *which*, according to rule, which says, "THAT is used instead of *who* or *which*, &c." The relative *that* is applicable to both *man* and *dog*.

VIOLATIONS.—1. It is the same picture which you saw before. 2. Who of these came to his assistance. 3. He is the best scholar which I ever saw. 4. It is richer than any which you gave me. 5. All these men who fought for their king. 6. The master and the books which I received. 7. And all which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave, &c. 8. Some village, Hampden, which with danniless breast, &c. 9. This is the same pen which I had yesterday.

4. The relative must be in the *possessive* case, when it denotes the possessor, as, "He, whose creatures we are is Almighty." Here, whose is in the possessive, because it signifies the possessor.

5. Who is not applied to collective nouns, signifying unity of idea, though they imply persons; thus, "The court who." "The cavalry who." "This generation who." In all these, and similar cases, who should be . .

WHICH. When plurality of idea is implied, the relative who is employed for the nominative, and whom for the objective.

6. Which is applied to infants, to irrational animals, and to inanimate things; as, "The child which I saw." If the proper name of the child is mentioned, then who must be used; as, "The child James, who, &c. "The book which was torn." "The bird which was shot."

7. Whose is applied to both persons and things; as, "The man whose condition." "The pleasure whose nature." "Locke, whose name."

8. Who must never be used for whose and its governing nourf; thus, "It is no wonder if such a man did not shine at the court of queen Elizabeth, who was but another name for prudence and economy; should be, "Whose name was but another word, &c."

RULE 35.—The word WHAT must not be used for that, nor the word THAT for what; thus, "We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen," should be, "We speak what we do know, and testify what we have seen."

REMARKS.—When what can be turned into those which, or the thing which, it must be used; in other situations, that must be used. (See relative pronouns, pages 27 and 28.)

ILLUSTRATIONS.—"They would not believe but what I was the guilty person." Here, what cannot be turned into the thing which, therefore, what should be that; as, "They would not believe but THAT, &c. "We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen, &c." Here "that" is improperly placed, for it can be turned into the thing which;" thus, "We speak (the thing which or) what we do know, and testify (the thing which, or) what we have seen."

VIOLATIONS.—1. They will not but believe what I have been to blame. 2. He is the same man what we saw before. 3. Who what has any sense of religion would have argued thus. 4. The estate what became his portion. 5. This is that thing which I wanted. 6. All fevers, except that, are called nervous.

RULE 36.—Whoever, whichever, and whatever should be used instead of whosoever, whichsoever, and whatsoever, except in scriptural language.

These words are often divided by the interposition of the corresponding word; thus, "On whichsoever side the king cast his eyes" should be, on which side soever. Howsoever should always be divided. If that, should always be used instead of whoso. SYNTAX.

STUDENT.—Name the first point in this rule. Whoever, &c. What are you to do with them? We should use them instead of whosoever, &c. Are these words ever divided? Yes, they are divided by the interposition, &c. What is the next? To always divide howsoever. The next point? To use he that instead of whoso.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—"Howsoever beautiful they appear." Howseever being divided, the sentence reads thus :—How beautiful seever they appear. "On whichsoever side he looked," would sound better if written, "On which side seever he looked." "Whoso keepeth his fig-tree" should be, "He that keepeth," &c.

REMARKS.—The above words should never be altered in scriptural language. Whoever, whatever, and houever cannot be divided; we properly say, "Whoever committeth sin, is the servant of sin." Whatever he does he does well. However great he may be.

VIOLATIONS.--1. On whatsoever side they are contemplated. 2. Howsoever beautiful they appear. 3. Whoso keepeth the figtree. 4. Whosoever told him, it is false. 5. In whatsoever light we view him. 6. Whosoever neglects religion will repent of his folly. 7. Do whatsoever I command you. 8. Whichsoever he takes. 9. Whoso stoppeth his ears at the cry of the poor. 10. Whoso keepeth his mouth and his tongue, keepeth his soul from troubles.

RULE 37.—When the relative is preceded by two antecedents of different persons, the relative and verb generally agree in person with the latter, and to prevent ambiguity, the relative ought to be placed next its antecedent; as, "I am the man who commands you. "The master who punished the boy for idleness, never chastises without a reason," should be, "The master who never chastises, &c."

NOTE.—When we address the Deity, and in scriptural language, the relative is made to agree with the former antecedent; as, "Thou art the Lord, who seest us in all our ways."

STUDENT.—What is the first thing to be noticed? The relative. The second? The two antecedents of different persons. How many persons are there in grammar? Three; first, second, and third. Name them. (See pages 13 and 25. No. 7.) What is the fourth? To place the relative next its antecedent. Why? To prevent ambiguity. In scriptural language, with which antecedent should the relative agree? With the former.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—"The king dismissed his minister without any inquiry, who had never before commited so unjust an action." We are uncertain whether it was the king or the minister who committed the unjust action. According to rule the relative should be next its antecedent king, then the sentence is clear; "thus, "The king who had never before committed so unjust an action, dismissed, &c." "You are the friend who has often relieved me."

G 3

Which are the two antecedents? You and friend; and the relative who must agree with the latter, namely, friend. "I am the tutor who instructs you to-day," and, "I who instructs you to-day, am the tutor." A difference of meaning is implied, arising from the position of the phrase to-day. "I am the tutor who instructs you to-day;" that is, only for this day; but "I who instructs you today am the tutor; that is, "I am your regular tutor." The sentences, without the phrase to-day, would have the same meaning, whether the relative comes before or after the second antecedent.

VIOLATIONS.—1. I am a man who speaks but seldom. 2. I am the person who adopt that sentiment, and maintains it. 3. Thou art the friend that has often relieved me, and that has not deserted me now in the time of peculiar need. 4. The soldier with a single companion, who passed for the bravest man in the regiment. 6. The boy beat his companion, whom everybody believed incapable of doing mischief. 6. Thou art he who driedst up the red sea before thy people Israel. 7. Thou art a pupil who possesseg bright parts, but who has cultivated them but little. 8. I acknowledge that I am the teacher who adopt that sentiment and maintains the propriety af such measures. 9. I am the Lord thy God, who teacheth the to profit, and who lead thee by the way thou ahouldst go. 10. I am the person who advise such things.

2. When the relative and the verb have been determined to agree with the antecedent, the same relative and verb must be preserved throughout the sentence; as, "I am the father who loves you, that cherishes you, that provideth for you," should be, "I am the father who loves you, who cherishes you, who provides for you." "I am the Lord, that maketh all things, that stretcheth forth the heavens."

Should we annex to the last sentence, "by myself," then the verbs must be in the first person; as, "I am the Lord that make;" that is, "I make," "I stretch." In the third person singular of verbs, the solemn eth seems to become the dignity of the Almighty better than the familiar es; thus, "I am the Lord thy God, who teacheth thee to profit; who leadeth thee by the way thou shouldst go;" is more dignified than, "I am the Lord thy God, who teaches thee to profit, who leads thee, &c.

This rule needs no further illustrations, we may now proceed to CORRECT the following sentences.—1. 1 am he who preserves thee, that teacheth thee, that provides for thee. 2. The boy who, when he was at school, learned fast; but had the misfortune to lose his father, who loved him, which provided for him.

3. In familiar language, the relative is frequently omitted; as, "He is a man I greatly esteem," instead of "He is a man whom I greatly esteem." The relative should never be omitted, even in familiar con-

130

versation. "I am displeased with the manner I have spent my time," is very inelegant; it should be, "I am displeased with the manner in which, &c.

RULE 38.—When the relative pronoun is of the interrogative kind, then the noun or pronoun containing the answer must be in the same case as that which contains the question; as, "Whose books are these?" "They are mine."

STUDENT.—What is the first point? To look in what case the relative pronoun that asks the question is. Why? Because the pronoun which answers the question must be in the same case. Explain yourself. If the question begins with a nominative pronoun, the answer must be the nominative pronoun. If the question begins with a possessive pronoun, the answer must be the posessive pronoun; and if the question begins with an objective promoun, the answer must be the objective pronoun.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—Who calls? I; that is, I call. We could not say me (calls.) Whose pen is this? Mary's; that is, it is Mary's pen. Whom shall I serve? Him. Because whom is the objective, and the answer him is the objective.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Who will have that? Me. 2. From where were the articles bought? Of a mercer who resides near the Mansion house. 3. Whom do you love? She. 4. Who said so? Us. 5. Who tore the book? Her. 6. Who broke the glass? Him. 7. Who is there? Us. 8. Who did it? Me. 9. Who speaks first? Me. 10. Who is there? It is me. 11. Who counted the money? Both the clerk and him. 12. Who betrayed her companion? Not me. 13. Who revealed the secrets he ought to have concealed? Not him, it was her. 14. Whom did you meet? He. 15. Who bought that book? Him. 16. Whom did you see there? He and his sister. 17. Whose pen is this? Mine's.

RULE 39.—Active-transitive verbs govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case, but do not admit a preposition after them; as, "We admire them." You tell James."

EXPLANATORY REMARKS.—1. A whole clause may be the object of an active-transitive verb; as, "You see how few of these men are returned." 2. A noun or pronoun preceeding the transitive verb, is in the nominative, when it is the AGENT of the action; as, "John loves Henry." (See page 14, No. 7; also, bottom of page 15.) 3. When the objective is a relative expressed or implied, it comes before the verb that governs it; as, "If ye love me, keep my commandments." (See lesson w, No. 3, page 95.) 4. The objective noun or pronoun, when emphatic, precedes the verb; as, "Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you." Place the objective noun or pronoun as near the verb as possible. STUDENT.—What is the *first* point in this rule? Active-transitive verbs. What is the *second*? They govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case. What is an active-transitive verb? Repeat the *objective* pronouns. Where is the *objective* generally placed? After the verb. Where is it placed when the objective is a *relative*? Before the verb. Do transitive verbs admit prepositions after them ? No. Where are you to place the objective? As near the verb as possible.

"You love I."

Which is the active-transitive verb? Love. What is its object? I. What case is I? What should it be?

"I must premise with three circumstances"

Which is the verb? Premise. What do transitive verbs not admit? *Prepositions*. Is there a preposition in the sentence above? What do you do with it? Throw it out. Correct it.

VIOLATIONS.—1. He taught I to write. 2. Vice ruins they who obey its commands. 3. She that is idle, reprove sharply. 4. Wife did they entertain so freely? 5. Who have you called? 6. Let thou and I the battle try. 7. Ye only have I known. 8. The master who I saw. 9. You are the friend who I esteem, who I revere, who I sincerely wish to serve. 10. I will not desert ye; I will not give ye up a prey to the enemy. 11. He who is weak receive. 12. Take care who you admit into your friendship. 13. They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, are not happy. 14. He ingratiates with some by traducing others. 15. Accusations like these, do not diminish from his merits. 16. He shall not want for encouragement. 17. We should fear and obey the author of our being, even He who has power to reward or punish us for ever.

RULE 40.—Trans tive verbs, signifying allow, ask, deny, envy, fine, give, grudge, offer, pay, promise, teach, teil, send, admit two objective cases after them, the thing is governed by the verb, and the person by a preposition understood; as, "He sent it us;" that is, "He sent it to us."

STUDENT.—What verbs are followed by two objective cases? Are both these cases governed by the verb? By what is the thing governed? By what is the person governed?

Supply the preposition to its proper object in the following sentences:—He asked him his opinion. He promised him a book. I sent him a grammar. He offered me a pardon. She told you the story. I will pay you the sum.

RULE 41.—Active-intransitive and neuter verbs do neither admit the passive form in a sentence, nor the objective case after them; as, "Repenting him of his design," should be, "Repenting of," &c. "Whose number was now amounted to twenty," should be, "had amounted." STUDENT.—What do you notice first ? Active-intransitive and neuter verbs. What will they not admit ? REMARKS.—Intransitive verbs are generally followed by a pre-

REMARKS.—Intransitive verbs are generally followed by a preposition, when connected with a noun or pronoun. Throw out the objective, and insert a preposition. What is an active-intransitive verb? Tell me ten active-intransitive verbs. What is a neuter verb? How may a neuter verb be known? Mention ten neuter verbs. What is a passive verb? How is it formed? (See page 62.)

"I repent me of my folly."

Which is the verb? What kind? How do you know? What case follows it? What generally follows it? What should be omitted? Me.

"The whole obligation of that law was ceased."

Which is the verb? What kind? Does the sentence admit this form? What should it be?

VIOLATIONS.—1. He would sit him down. 2. The popular lords did not fail to enlarge themselves on the subject. 3. Fifty men are deserted from the army. 4. The influence of his corrupt example was then entirely ceased. 5. If he would depart the country. (See the remarks.) 6. He waits me every morning. 7. He was entered into the connexion before the consequences were considered. 8. The rule of our holy religion, from which we are infinitely swerved. 9. The commissioners being come. 10. Being at length entered the senate house. 11. This person was entered into a conspiracy against his master.

RULE 42.—A verb in the infinitive mood is preceded by the sign to, except when it follows the verbs behold, bid, can, dare, feel, hear, have, know, let, make, may, must, need, perceive, observe, say, shall, see, will; as, "Strive to learn;" "He bade me go."

EXPLANTORY REMARKS.—1. To is generally prefixed to 'the passive voice of these verbs, except let; as, "He was bid to run." "They were made to go" "He was let go." 2. Have, denoting possession or obligation, is generally followed by to; as, "I had to walk all the way." When have implies volition (willing) to is generally omitted; as, "Would they have us reject such an offer? 4. Dare, when it signifies defy or challenge, requires to; as, "I dare thee but to breathe upon my love."

STUDENT.—What do you first notice in this rule? A verb in the infinitive mood. What does the infinitive mood express? Read the remark under No. 16, page 41. Before what verbs is to omitted? Read the above explanatory remarks. What do you notice on to in the passive voice? What do you notice on have?

"He dares not to assert it."

Which are the two verbs in the sentence? Dares and assert. What is wrong? To should be omitted; because to is not used after the verbs behold, bid, can, dare, &c. VIOLATIONS.—Learn do well. 2. He found him to idle about. 3. Cease do evil. 4. I desired him call in the evening. 5. They ought not do such things. 6. They wished him wrestle with affliction. 7. We ought forgive injuries.

EXERCISES ON THE EXCEPTIONS.—8. Let me to do that. 9. We heard the thunder to roll. 10. How delightful to behold a young man to resist all allurements of vice, to despise the voice of flattery, and to cheerfully obey the call of duty. 11. She bid him to do it. 12. We heard him to say it. 13. I feel pangs of grief and emotions of sorrow to seize my heart. 14. I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly. 15. It is the difference of their conduct which makes us to approve the one and to reject the other. 16. We will make him to repent it.

EXERCISES ON THE PASSIVE VOICE.—17. They have been bid go. 18. They have been heard say. 19. She has been made observe. 20. He will be seen prosper.

RULE 43.—Prepositions govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case, and should be placed *immediately* BEFORE the object and relative which they govern; as, "To whom do you speak?" "He went with us."

REMARKS AND CAUTIONS.—1. Prepositions should never be separated from their relative or object. "Who servest thou under" should be "Under whom doest thou serve."

2. The preposition to is generally omitted before the personal pronouns; as, "Give me the book, instead of "Give the book to me," or, "Give to me the book."

3. Sometimes the relative is omitted; it should always be supplied; as, "The temper of mind he was then in," should be, "The temper of mind *in which* he was then." (See No. 3, p. 130.)

4. One relation must not be expressed by two different prepositions in the same clause; thus, "The combat between thirty French against twenty English." Here there is only one idea implied, a combat between some French and some English; consequently, the use of two different prepositions is improper.

5. Never connect two prepositions, or one and an active transitive verb, with the same noun; thus, "They were refused entrance *into*, and forcibly driven *from* the house," should be, "They were refused entrance *into the house*, and forcibly driven *from it.*

STUDENT.—What is the first point here? A preposition. The second? Nouns and pronouns. What is the third? An objective case. Where do you place the preposition? Before the noun or pronoun. In what case should they be? Name the prepositions. Repeat the objective pronouns. Repeat the relative.

"Who do you speak to?"

"Which is the preposition? To. Which is the nominative or pronoun? Who. In what case is who? Nominative. What is the objective of who? Whom. Where should the preposition be placed? Immediately before the objective and relative. Correct the sentence. "To whom do you speak?" VIOLATIONS—1. They spoke against both he and she. 2. She was desirous of speaking to he and I. 3. With who can I be safe? 4. Who doest thou ask for? 5. We are still much at a loss to know who civil power belongs to. 6. Associate not with those who none can speak well of. 7. I hope it is not I you are displeased with. I enquired for. 9. We are all accountable creatures, the set of and I. The person who I travelled with has sold the horse which he rode on during our journey. 13. Flattery can hurt none but those it is agreeable to. 14. Have you no person who you can trust to for the execution of that commission?

EXERCISES ON THE REMARKS.—15. That man gave me this book. 16. This is the school he goes to. 17. He assorted that monastic retirement, if not contrary to, was not required by, the the laws of God. 18. He is an author I am much delighted with.

RULE 44.—To, after a verb of motion, is used before the names of places; as, "We went to Spain."

In, is used before the names of countries, cities, and streets; as, "He lives in France; in London; in High-street."

At, is used before the names of villages, single houses, towns, and cities in distant countries, as. "He resides at Whiston; at Wentworth house; at Sheffield; at Rome."

At, is also used after the verb to be; as, "I was at Leeds. Also, after the verbs to touch, arrive, land; as, "We touched, arrived, landed at Gateshead."

STUDENT.—What is the first point? To, after a verb of motion, &c. Tell me a few verbs of motion. When do you use in? Where is the first AT used' Where is the second AT used? Repeat ten verbs of the verb to be.

"He is going for London."

Which is the verb of motion? Going. For should be to, because to is used after a verb of motion, &c.

VIOLATIONS.—1. She went away for Bath some time ago. 2. I have been at London. 3. We were once detained two years at France. 4. They landed in Plymouth. 5. I have been to London, after having resided at Ireland, and I now live in Sheffield. 6. I was in the place appointed long before you. 7. We touch in Liverpool, on our way to Australia. 8. He resides in No. 4, at South-street, in Hull. 9. He was lodging at Victoria-street. RULE 45.—Certain words and phrases must be followed with appropriate prepositions; as in the

EXAMPLES.

Abate of. Ahhorence of. Abound in, with. Abridge of, from. Accord with, when neuter. Accord to when transitive. Accused of (a crime.) Accused by (a person.) Acquiesce in. Adapted to. Adjudge to. Admonish of. Admission (access) to. Admission (entrance) into. Advantage over, of. Affinity to, with, between. Agree with (persons.) Agree to (things proposed.) Agree upon (things.) Amerce in. Analogy to, with, between. Antipathy to, against. Array with, in. Ascendent over. Ask of (a person.) Ask for, (something we wish.) Ask after (what we wish to hear of Aspire to, after. Attend to. Averse to, from. Beguile of. Boast of. Betray to (a person.) Betray into (anything. Bestow upon. Blaspheme against. Call on (a person.) Call at (a house.) Call for (is a demand.) Caution against. Change for. Clear of. Coalesce with, into. Concerned at, for, Condemned to. Confer on. Conformable to.

Consonant to. Contend with, again Contest with. Convict of (a crimer) Convicted in (a penalty.) Deal with. Debar of, from. Defend (others) from. Defend (ourselves) against. Denounce against (a person.) Denounce on (a thing.) Dependent upon. Derogatory to. Derogation from, of. Despoil of. Designed for. Destined to. Devolve on. Die of (a disease.) Die by (an instrument.) Differ with (a person.) Differ from (a person in property.) Diminution of. Disabled from. Disappointed of (a thing when we cannot get it.) Disappointed in (a thing when we have it, and find it not to answer our expectations. Discouragement to. Disqualify for, from. Dissent from. Divested of. Divide between (two.) Divide, among (three or more.) Eager in, of, for, on, after. Enamoured with. Engage with. Engaged in a work for a time. Entrance into. Espouse to. Exception from. Expert in, at. Fall under. Fondness for. Free from. Glad of.

136

EXAMPLES (Continued.)

Grateful to a person for a favour.	Reduce to.
Imposed upon.	Rejoice at, over,
Independent of.	Reproach for.
Initiate into (a place of trust.)	Rest in, at.
Initiate in (an art of science.)	Rest (to depend) on, upon.
Insult over.	Restore to.
Joined with or to.	Rush against.
Lean on, against.	Satiate with.
Lord over.	Significant of.
Made of.	Sink into, beneath.
Many to.	Skilful (when a noun follows) in.
Martyr for.	Skilful (when a participle) at, in.
Plunder of.	Solicited to.
Preference to.	Strain out.
Prejudice against.	Strive with, against.
Prevail (to persuade) with, on,	Surprised at, with.
upon.	Taste of, for.
Prevail (overcome) over, against.	Tax with, for.
Prey upon, on.	Think of, on.
Profit by.	Unite with, to.
Protect (others) from.	Useful for.
Protect (ourselves) against.	Unison with, to.
Provide with, for.	Value upon.
Reckon on, upon.	Wait upon, on.
Reconcile to.	Worthy of.
Reduce (subdue) under.	Yield to, .

N.B.—I recommend the tutor to mention each word, and require the pupil to give the proper *preposition*, before he is requested to commit the phrases to memory; and let him study those only which he cannot answer.

The following are a few phrases and words which are less frequently violated:—Abandoned, acceded, access, accommodate, adapted, add, adequate, adhere, address, adjoin, agreeable, allude, amount, annex, approach, apply, assent, attain, commit, compelled, concede, condescend, congenial, dislike, endeared, encouragement, equivolent, indulgent, inured, marry, offer, request, require to after them. Absent, detract, dissent, distinct, distinguish, excluded, hinder, inseparable, require from after them. Compliance, comply consistent, contest, contrast, conversant, dispute, level, loaded, replete, require with.

VIOLATIONS.—1. He is resolved of going. 2. He was totally dependent of the papal crown. 3. They called of me this morning. 4. Call for your uncle. 5. It is a situation which decides of the fortune and characters of men. 6. A taste of beauty. 7. A difficulty of writing. 8 You have bestowed your favours to the most deserving persons. 9. He accused the ministers for betraying the Dutch. 10. You are prejudiced to my cause. 11. The English were a different people then to what they are now. 12. In compliance to his desires. 13. They have a great resemblance with each other. 14. I dissent with the examiner. 15. He

was made much on at Leeds. 16. Persons on whom the parliament could confide. 17. If policy can prevail upon force. 18. Such circumstances as fell into their cognizance. 19. He could not forbear from appointing the pope. 20. A strict observer after times and fashions. 21. When we have had a true taste for the true pleasures of virtue, we can have no relish of those of vice. 22. We are often disappointed of things, which, before possession, promised much enjoyment. 23. This is a principle in unison to our nature. 24. They are resolved of doing their duty. 25. The Saxons reduced the greater part of Britain to their own power. 26. His deportment was adapted for conciliating regard. 27. The politeness of the world has the same resemblance with benevolence that the shadow has with the substance. 28. Expert on deceiving. 29. We profit from experience. 30. Reconciling himself with the king. 31. It is more than they thought for. 32. He was eager of recommending it. 33. It is no discouragement for the authors. 34. He would not comply to his measures. 35. I differ with you. 36. His abhorence to gaming was extreme. 37. He died for thirst. 38. He died of the sword. 39. This change is to the better. 40. They boast in their great riches.

RULE 46. Conjunctions couple the same moods and tenses of verbs, when the subject is not repeated; as, "Do good and seek peace."

REWARKS.—1. The same form of the verb must be continued through the sentence; as, "*Professing* regard, and *acting* differently, mark a base mind." It should not be "*professing* regard and to act differently," &c.

2. If the sense requires the verbs to be in different moods and tenses, the *nominative* must be repeated, otherwise the second verb will have no nominative; as, "I know it, and I can prove it."

3. The nominative is generally repeated, even to the same mood and tense, when a contrast is stated, or when the sentence is interrogative or emphatical; as, "Do you say so, and can you prove it?" (See Rule 10, the second portion.)

STUDENT.—Name the *first* point here. Conjunction. What is a conjunction? What do conjunctions do? Couple the same, &c. What do you mean by mood? What by tense? What is the subject?

"He reads and wrote well."

Which is the conjunction? What tense comes before it? Present. What tense should come after it? Present. Therefore, wrote should be writes, because conjunctions couple, &c.

VIOLATIONS.—1. This excellent person appeared to be fully resigned either to live or to have died. 2. Enjoying health, and to live in peace, are great blessings. 3. I will go and told him. 4. He spells and pronounced well. 5. Did he not tell thee his fault and entreated thee to forgive him. 6. Anger glances into the breast of a wise man, but will rest only in the bcsom of fools. 7. The parliament addressed the king, and has been prorogued the same day. 8. If he understands the subject, and attend to it, he can scarcely fail of success. EXERCISES ON THE REMARKS.—9. If a man have a hundred sheep, and one of them is gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray. 10. She was proud, but is now humbled. 11. He has proved us and will preserve us. 12. He is not rich but is respectable. 13. Our season of improvement is short. and, whether used or not, will soon pass away. 14. Rank may confer influence, but will not necessarily produce virtue.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON RULES 39 TO 46, (Both included.)

1. To have no one whom we heartily wished well to, and whom we are deeply concerned for, is a deplorable state. 2. Enjoying health, and to live in peace, are great blessings. 3. This is more grateful for strangers. 4. We can fully confide on none but the truly good. 5. To poor I, there is not much hope remaining. 6. He has brought ruin upon hisself. 7. They were too eager of the pursuit. 8. Did you see him, and delivered my message? 9. Can these person consent to such a pro-posal, and will consent to it? 10. I will wait of you. 11. He died a martyr to Christianity. 12. Let me to do that. 13. They need not to call upon her 14. We ought forgive injuries. 15. Endeavouring persuade. 16. He is unacquainted with, and consequently cannot speak upon it. 17. I have been to London, after having resided at France, and I now live in Bath. 18. You are conversant with that science. 19. Learning strengthens the mind, and, if properly applied, will improve our morals too. 20. What concord can subsist between those who commit crimes and they who abhor them. 21. I heard him say it. 22. She I enquired for. 23. He I spoke to. 24. Who ye ignorantly wor-ship, he declare I unto you. 25. The rain the dew, and the sun make the corn and grass to grow. 26. What book is that mentioned in? 27. Sulphur is found in and on the surface of the 28. Many have profitted from good advice. 29. On these earth. occasions, the pronoun is governed by, and consequently agrees with, the preceding word. 30. To be moderate in our expecta-tions of worldly happiness, being cautious in forming our plans, and to be scrupulous in our choice of means, do most probably insure prosperity, and have surely secured self-satisfaction. 31, These are exceptions to the general rules. 32. A freehold is bred with an aversion from subjection. 33. I bid my servant to do this, and he doeth it.

RULE 47.—Some adjectives, adverbs, and conjunctions require to be followed by words corresponding with them in sense; as—

No other requires than; as, "It was no other than him."

SUCH requires AS, expressing comparison; as, " These are such as yours,"

SUCH requires THAT, except the infinitive, when consequence is denoted; as, "His diligence was such, that his friends were confident of success."

As requires As, expressing equality; as, "He is as good as she."

As requires so, expressing equality; thus, "As the stars so shall thy seed be."

As requires so, expressing a comparison of quality; thus, "As the one dieth, so dieth the other."

BOTH requires AND; as, " Both you and I did it."

EITHER requires OR; as, I will either come or send." NEITHER requires NOR; as, "Neither this nor that." WHETHER requires OR; as, "Whether he go or stay."

HERE requires THERE; as, " Here plenty, there want."

WHEN requires THEN; as, "When he strives, then he conquers."

THOUGH requires YET; as, "Though deep yet clear." BECAUSE requires THEREFORE; as, "Because he was proud, he ought therefore to suffer."

So requires so, expressing *similarity*; thus, "So we preach, and so ye believe."

So requires As, expressing a degree of quality; as, "He is not so wise as his brother."

So requires As, with a negative, and an adjective expressing a comparison of quantity; as, "Pompey was not so great a man as Cæsar."

So requires THAT, expressing a consequence; as, "I am so weak that I cannot walk."

NOT ONLY requires BUT ALSO; as, "He was not only prudent, but he was also industrious."

WHERE requires THERE; as, "Where idleness is, there is poverty."

IF, (in reasoning,) requires THEN; as, "If this point is obtained, then it naturally follows, &c.

QUESTIONS AND EXPLANATIONS.

What does no other require? What does such require? When such marks a consequence, what does it require? What should follow as expressing equality? What does as require, when comparison or resemblance is meant? Answer: So; thue, "As the stars, so shall thy seed be;" that is, they shall resemble each other in greatness of number. What does as require, expressing compariagn of quality? What does both require? What follows either? What follows neither? What does whether require? What follows here? What comes after when? What does though require? What should follow because? What does so require, expressing similarity? What does so require when degree is meant? As; as, "He is not so wise as his brother; that is, he has not the same degree of wisdom. What does so require with a negative? What does so require when a consequence is meant? That; as, "I am so weak" (what is the consequence?) "that I cannot walk?" What does not only require? What does where require? What does if, in reasoning, require?

ORSERVE.—Great attention must be paid, to preserve a correct and an easy connexion of these different clauses, which custom has made to correspond to each other, so that, when one of these conjunctive particles is found in the beginning of a sentence, the corresponding one is expected to follow in some subsequent part of the sentence.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Both honour, riches, glory, await the conqueror's brow. 2. Neither despise or oppose what thou dost not understand. 3. I must, however, be so candid to own I have been mistaken. 4. As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written. 5. The house is not as commodious as we expected it would be. 6. He is not as diligent and learned as his brother. 7. The work is a dull performance, and is neither capable of pleasing the understanding or the imagination. 8. The dog in the manger would neither eat the hay himself, or suffer the ox to eat it. 9. There is no condition so secure as cannot admit of change. 10. When he has written the letter, so soon will he be at liberty. 11. So as thy days, so shall thy strength be. 12. He must go himself, or send his servant.

EXERCISES ON SINGLE CONJUNCTIONS.—13. Germany ran the same risk as Italy had done. 14. The resolution was not the less fixed, that the secret was yet communicated to very few. 15. He has too much sense and prudence than to become a dupe to such artifices. 16. He has little of the scholar than the name.

PARTICIPLES.

RULE 48.—Active Participles govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case, as the verbs do from which they are derived; as, "I am weary with hearing him." "Having praised them he sat down."

REMARKS.—1. When the past participle is used with the person of the verb to be, then an objective pronoun cannot follow it, without a preposition; as, "I am loved by her." 2. Such phraseologies as these are called *passive* The same meaning may always be expressed actively; as, "She loves me."

3. When the participle is taken absolutely it is adequate to a verb in the infinitive mood; as, "Properly speaking; (absolute form) for, "To speak properly."

STUDENT.—What is the first point here? Active participles. What is a participle? Name ten active participles. What do active participles govern? Nouns and pronouns in the *objective* case. VIOLATIONS.—1. Who I am obeying. 2. They I am reproving. 3. He is wearying hisself in vain. 4. I could not refrain from suspecting they as enemies, and he as a suspicious friend. 5. He prepares them for this event, by sending to their proper information. 6. Upon seeing I he turned pale. 7. He is a man who I am far from considering happy. 8. Respecting you, he, and they I said little.

RULE 49.—When the present participle is active or doing something, then it requires an article before it, and of after it; as, "By the preaching of Christ." "In the hearing of the philosopher."

REMARKS.—1. The present participle has always the capacity of a noun when preceded by an article. "By the preaching of Christ;" or, "By Christ's preaching." "In the hearing of the philosopher;" or, "In the philosopher's hearing." Here Christ and philosopher are active. Christ preached; the philosopher heard. In these instances, the words preaching and hearing are nouns.

STUDENT.- What is the first point? What does it require? In what does the present participle end ? Name ten present participles. Repeat No. 9, page 42. Repeat No. 10, p. 42.

" By exercising our faculties they are improved."

Which is the present participle? Exercising. Is it active or doing anything? Yes. What does it require? The sentence should be, "By the exercising of our faculties," &c.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Learning of languages is very difficult. 2. The learning anything speedily requires great application. 3. By the exercising our faculties they are improved. 4. By observing of these rules you may avoid mistakes. 5. By obtaining of wisdom thou wilt command esteem. 6. This was a betraying the trust reposed in him. 7. The not attending to this rule is the cause of a very common error. 8. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying our wants, and riches upon the enjoying our superfluities.

RULE 50.—A noun or pronoun before the present participle is put in the *possessive*, and must not be followed by of; as, "Much depends on the *pupil's* composing frequently."

Also, when the noun or pronoun represents the object of an action the article and preposition of must be omitted; as, "In hearing the philosopher."

REMARKS.—1. The participles having, and being, and those of intransitive verbs, exclude the preposition after them; as, "The having a warm house;" not, "The having of a warm house," &c. "The being of a good scholar," in which construction the word being has a different meaning; as, we say, "The being of a God."

.

142

2. There is a manifest difference in sense, between "Hearing the philosopher," or "*The* hearing the philosopher," and "The hearing of the philosopher." In the last form the noun is represented as being the *doer*. In the first form the noun is the *object*, he was heard; according to the second portion of the rule.

3. ILLUSTRATIONS.—"Much depends upon the *pupil's composing* frequently." Here *pupil's* is in the possessive as coming before the present participle, according to the *first* portion of the rule.

4. When a preposition follows the participle, of, is omitted; as, "His depending on promises," &c. Depending, according to rule 45, requires to; in such cases the article should be omitted before the participle.

STUDENT.—What is the first point in this rule? A noun or pronoun before the present participle. In what case is it put? By what must not the participle be followed? What does the second part of the rule teach? When a noun or pronoun represents, &c.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Much depends upon the tyro observing this rule. 2. What is the reason of this man dismissing his servant? 3. There will be no danger of their spoiling of their faces, or of their gaining of converts. 4. I remember it being done. 5. The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for the gaining of wisdom. 6. Nothing could have made her so unhappy, as the marying a man who possessed such principles. 7. By the observing of truth, you will command esteem. 8. For his avoiding of that precipice he is indebted to his friend.

RULE 51.—The past participle must always follow the verbet to have and to be; as, "I have written;" "He was chosen;" and not, "I have wrote;" "He was chose."

REMARKS.—1. The past tense and past participle of regular verbs being formed alike, it is impossible to violate this rule, except when the participle of an irregular verb is employed. "He was chose," is wrong, for chose is the past tense of the verb and not the past participle. "He repeats verses wrote on glasses." In this sentence the verb to be is not expressed before the word wrote, but it is implied; as, "He repeats verses that are wrote on glasses." It ought to be, "He repeats verses what are wrote on glasses."

STUDENT.—What is the first point? The past participle. Name the *past* participles of page 70. What is the second? The verbs to have and to be.

" He has chose to ride."

Which is the verb, have or be? Has. What does the verb to have require after it? The past participle. Which is the participle? Chose. What should it be? Chosen, because the past participle must always follow, &c.

VIOLATIONS.-1. This is well wrote. 2. He had mistook me. 3. Smiles were interwove with sighs. 4. He had broke it. 5. He was beat. 6. The health of Mr G. was drank with applause. 7. It has been shook. 8. I have forgot. 7. If events had not fell out unexpectedly. 10. He would have went with us. 11. The cloth was wove. 12. The French Language is generally spoke. 13. He had mistook his true interest, and found himself forsook by his friends. 14. The Rhine was froze over. 15. She was showed into the room. 16. He has broke the bottle. 17. The boy has fell. 18. The horse was stole,

RULE 52.—The past participle must not be used for the past tense; thus, "He begun," for, "He began."

The active participle must not be used for the passive participle; thus, "Nothing else is *wanting*," &c. should be, "Nothing else is *wanted*," &c.

REMARKS.—1. This rule is frequently violated. We often see the past participle used for the past tense; as, "He run, he drunk," instead of "He ran, he drank."

2. The active participle is frequently used instead of the passive; thus, were I to say, "Ann is *weating*," you would understand that she was *active* and *seeking*, or *desiring* something, and you would say, "What is she *wanting*? But, "Ann is *wanted*," is passive, and means some person wants her, or wishes to see her.

STUDENT.—What are you to notice first? The past participle must not be used, &c. What is the second? The active participle. How many participles are there? In what does the *active* or *present* participle end? Repeat the perfect or past participle. For what must not an active participle be used?

VIOLATIONS.—1. He was greatly heated, and drunk with avidity. 2. They begun to sing with joy. 3. He soon begun to be weary of having nothing to do. 4. He dared not commit so great an offence, as that which was proposed to him.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON RULES 48 TO 52.

From calling of names he proceeded to blows. Time and talents were wanting to do justice to the subject. Propriety of pronunciation, is giving to every word its proper sound. Great exertions were making to secure his return. We have eat our bread. I have rose early this morning. And when they lift up their eyes they saw no man save Jesus only. The laws of Draco are said to have been wrote with blood. He spent his whole life in the doing of good. If we alter the situation of any of the words, we shall presently be sensible of the melody suffering.

RULE 53.—A or an is used before nouns in the singular number only, individually or collectively; as, "A Christian, an Infidel, a score, a thousand."

2. The is used before nouns in both numbers; as "The garden, the scholars, the kings." (Repeat No. 9, page 4.)

3. The article being once expressed is sufficient, except when one word in the same construction begins with a

vowel and another with a consonant; also when a particular emphasis is intended, the article must be repeated to each word; as, "A dog, a cat, an owl." "The day and the hour were appointed."

4. The article is omitted before a noun that stands for a whole species, and before the names of minerals, metals, arts, and sciences. (Repeat No. 10, page 4.)

5. The latter of two nouns, after a comparative, should have no article, when they both refer to the *same* individual; thus, "He is a better reader than writer."

REMARKS, CAUTIONS, AND EXPLANATIONS OF No. 1 OF THIS RULE.—A or an is sometimes used for each, every, or per; as, "A crown a day;" "Ten pounds per year;" that is, each day; a year.

A or an before the words few and little serve to increase the number; as, "He has gained a few friends," means he has gained some friends. The omission of the article before such words tends to diminish the number; as, "His behaviour gained few friends."

2. The is sometimes repeated before titles; as, "The worship, the Mayor. The is used before the superlative degree; as, "The happiest man." The is used before anything representing the whole of its species, when compared with another thing representing the whole of its species; as, "The dog is a more grateful animal than the cat.

3. It would be ingrammatical were J to say, "A garden and orchard," because a is used before consonants, and an before vowels; it should be, "A garden and an orchard."

4. Words used in an indefinite manner have no article before them; as, "He obtained the title of Lord." Likewise words which are pointed in their signification; as, "Government offices." (Read No. 5, page 6; also, No. 6, page 6,)

5. Great care must be taken in this portion of the rule. Were I to say, "He makes a better painter than a musician," I should mean, "He makes a better painter than a musician would." But, were I to say, "He makes a better painter than musician," I should mean, "He makes a better painter than he does a musician."

When there is a peculiarity in the manner of using the adjective, we sometimes place the article between the adjective and the noun; as, "Too careless an author."

QUESTIONS AND VIOLATIONS OF THIS RULE.

What is an article? Where is A or AN used? Where is THE used? When do you use THE?

CORRECT.—1. Write an letters. 2. A army of men. 3. A sun rises in the east. 4. The thousand soldiers. 5. I will give their abilities trial. 6. His father was attorney. 7. Purity has its seat in a heart. 8. The profligate man is seldom or never found to be the good husband, the good father, or the beneficient neighbour.

н

QUESTIONS.—Is it necessary that the article should be repeated before every noun or adjective? What do you do when a particular stress is meant? When does a become an? Before what is an article omitted?

CORRECT.—9. A house and orchard. 10. A learned and amiable youth. 11. The gold is corrupting. 12. The virtue is amiable. 13. Not only were sun, moon, and stars made by Almighty, but also animals on thousand hills. 14. The poetry, the painting, and the sculpture are the sister arts.

QUESTIONS.—How is the comparative degree formed ? When two nouns refer to one person after the comparative, what do you do

CORRECT.—15. He is a much better writer than a reader. 16. He is a better soldier than a scholar. 17. He was an abler orator than a writer.

EXERCISES ON THE REMARKS AND CAUTIONS.

QUESTIONS.—Is a or an used sometimes for each, every, or per? What have you to notice on a or an, when placed before few or little? What do you notice on the omission of a or an before few or little? Is the ever repeated before titles? Is the used before the superlative? Do words used in an indefinite manner, admit the article?

VIOLATIONS OF THE RULE AND THE REMARKS .--- 1. Has John learned the music ? 2. Have you studied the astronomy ? 3. The malt is cheap. 4. A man is mortal. 5. Absalom rode on the mule. 6. The money is scarce. 7. The fire, the air, the earth, and the water are four elements. 8. A man is noblest work of creation. 9. Wisest and best men sometimes err. 10. He has received the title of a duke. 11. He has been much censured for paying a little attention to his profession. 12. Reason was given to a man to controul his passions. 13. Dog is a more grateful animal than cat. 14. A camel is a useful animal. 15. A man and ass. 16. I like this least of any. 17. He has sailed down Thames. 18. Bushel of apples. 19. Hundred pounds year. 20. Score houses. 21. Once day. 22. He is a nervous and elegant writer. 23. He was consecrated a bishop. 24. He saw the king and the queen. 25. More I know of him more amiable does he appear. 26. The Right Reverend Lord Bishop of London. 27. Set the plums, the apples, and the pears upon the table. 28. He is an honour to name of a Christian. 29. The iron is useful. 30. A just and amiable man. 31. The lying is offensive. 32. The virtue is amiable.

RULE 54.—Interjections are joined with the objective case of the pronoun, of the *first* person, and with the *nominative* of the pronoun of the second; as, "Ah me!" "O thou fool." STUDENT.—What is the first point? Interjections. What case follows the first personal pronoun? The objective. What case follows the second? The nominative. What is an interjection? May any word be an interjection?

Interjective phraseologies occur chiefly in circumstances in which the person is supposed to be absorbed in his *own feeling*, or not to know precisely those of others.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Oh! I, what shall I do? 2. Ah, thee traitor! how hast thou deceived me? 3. Oh! happy us, surrounded with so many blessings. 4. Woe's I! for I am unclean. 5. Ah! unhappy thee.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

RULE 55.—When sentences imply *doubt, condition*, or *supposition*, the verb must be of the suppositional tense, subjunctive mood, when FUTURITY is implied; as, "If he be alone give him the letter."

But when the *past* or *present* tense denotes *uncertainty*, the subjunctive is the same as the indicative; as, "If he *speaks* as he *thinks*, he may be trusted."

EXPLANATORY REMARKS, &c.—1. Sentences containing verbs in the indicative, past tense, imply the action to have taken place, although to us it is uncertain; and in such cases we use the subjunctive form *if*, anless, &c.; as, "Ir the king was present."

2. Many writers in the perfect tense use have instead of hast and has; as, "If thou have determined;" "Unless he have learned;" should be, hast determined, has learned.

3. The past perfect and future tenses of the subjunctive are for the most part improperly used; thus, "If thou had applied;" "If thou will go; should be, hadst and wilt.

4. We sometimes see the second person singular of the past tense, in the subjunctive improperly used; as, "If thou loved him." Loved should be lovedst. (See page 51.)

STUDENT.—What is the first point? Sentences implying doubt, &c. What is the second? The verb must be of the suppositional tense, &c. When is the subjunctive the same as the indicative? When the past or present tense denotes, &c. What does the subjunctive mood imply? What does the word subjunctive signify? Read the illustrations, p. 41. How is a future uncertainty expressed? Repeat the past ense, subjunctive mood. Repeat the present. In what tense is "If it blows"—"If he was poor"—"If thou art the Son of God?" Repeat the suppositional tense. Repeat the future. Repeat the future perfect. In what tense is "If thou be"—"If I shall have been"—"If thou shalt or wilt be?" What do I mean when I say, "If thou be the Son of God?" You mean if he should at a future time be the Son of God. What should it be? If thou art, &c. Why? Because he either is or is not the Son of God. What does the suppositional tense imply? It implies not only a condition, but also futurity. How do you know when to use the subjunctive mood? By supplying the auxiliaries. (See page 40, No. 12.) How do you know what tense to use? By asking, "Has the event taken place? or is it now taking place?" (Read top of page 66.) When does the verb undergo no variation? In the future, without auxiliaries; as, "If I go;" "If thou go;" "If he go;" "If we go;" "If you go;" "If they go." (See page 40, No. 9, 10, and 12.)

"If he acquires riches."

Which is the conjunction? If. Which is the verb? Acquires. Has he acquired riches? No. Does he acquire riches? No. In what mood should the verb be? Subjunctive. Why? Because both futurity and uncertainty are implied.

VIOLATIONS.—1. Love not idleness, lest thou comest to want 2. He will be punished if he transgresses the law. 3. If thou did reject him thou wert culpable. 4. Despise not any condition, lest it happens to be thine own. 5. If he is but discreet he will succeed. 6. If he be but in health I am content. 7. If he does promise he will perform. 8. If thou live virtuously thou art happy. 9. If thou have finished. 10. Though he be high, he hath respect to the lowly. 11. If he be poor he is content. 12. Remember what thou wert, and be humble. 13. Was I to enumerate. 14. Unless thou shall see him. 15. Was he ever so great and opulent, this conduct would debase him. 16. I shall walk in the fields to day, unless it rains. 17. If thou be Christ. 18. If thy right eye offend thee. 19. Oh! that his heart was tender. 20. If he have promised he must be faithful. 21. If thou had succeeded, perhaps thou would not be the happier.

THE USE OF THE TENSES.

RULE 56.—In the use of verbs, words, and phrases which, in point of time, relate to each other, use that tense which clearly conveys the sense required; thus, instead of saying," I remember him these many years,"we should say, "I have remembered him these many years."

ILLUSTRATIONS.—"I remember him, &c." Remember ought to be, have remembered, &c., because the action implied by the verb remember was finished, and yet refers to the present time, the verb must, therefore, be in the perfect tense.

STUDENT.—What is the first point? In the use of verbs, words, and phrases, &c. What words beside verbs relate to time? Adverbs of time. Repeat No. 4, page 73. What must be observed respecting those verbs, &c., that imply time? We use that tense which clearly conveys the sense required. Read the remarks on the tenses, page 44 to 48.

VIOLATIONS.—1. The Lord hath given and the Lord hath taken away. 2. I have compassion on the multitude, because they continue with me now three days. 3. Ye will not come unto me, that ye might have life. 4. And he that was dead sat up and began to speak. 5. The next New Years Day, I shall be at school three

Digitized by Google

years. 6. It would have given me great satisfaction to relieve him from that distressed situation. 7. He has given me yesterday a valuable book, but to-day he took it from me. 8. He has lately lost an only son. 9. In the least insect, there have been muscles, nerves, joints, veins, arteries, and blood.

RULE 57.—After the past tense, the present infinitive, (and not the perfect) should be used; as, "I intend to write to my father—and not I intended to have written."

STUDENT.—What is the first point? The past tense. What should be used after the past tense? The present infinitive. What then should you do? Look for the past tense, and put the verb that follows it in the present infinitive.

VIOLATIONS.—1. They said they intended to have met us. 2. I expected to have gotten a prize this week. 3. It was then my purpose to have visited Wales. 4. We have done no more than it was our duty to have done. 5. I always intended to have rewarded my son according to his merit. 6. It was a pleasure to have received his approbation. 7. From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of letters. 8. In the natural world, it seems to have been the general ordinance of Providence, that what is remarkable for solidity and durability, should be slow in growth.

Repeat the present tense, No. 3, page 44.

CORRECT-1. We shall welcome him when he arrive. 2. He must suffer before he repent 3. As soon as he return, we will recommence grammar. 4. Let it remain till he come.

RULE 58.—To express our ideas in few words, an *ellipsis*, or *omission* of some words is frequently admitted; thus, instead of saying, "He was a learned man, he was a wise man, and he was a good man," we say, "He was a *learned*, *wise*, and *good* man."

REMARKS.—1. Where a word has been once introduced in a sentence, and can be easily understood, it should be omitted; thus, "A house and a garden." The a before garden may be omitted. (See page 144, No. 3.)

2. The auxiliaries of the compound tenses are often used alone, to avoid the repetition of the principal verb; as, "We succeeded, but they did not;" that is, "They did not succeed."

STUDENT.—What is the first point? What is an *ellipsis*? A sentence in which something is left out. What does this rule teach you? To *omit* all words that may with propriety be left out.

VIOLATIONS.—1. The laws of God and the laws of man. 2. His mes had brough thim into extreme distress and extreme perplexity. 3. He is temperate, he is disinterested, he is benevolent. 4. We often commend imprudently, as well as censure imprudently. 5. He insulted every man and every woman in the company. 6. He regards his word; but thou dost not regard it. 7. They must be punished, and they shall be punished. 8. That gown is the parson's gown. 9. The gay and the pleasing are sometimes the most instituous and the most dangerous companions.

RULE 59.—When omission of words would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or render it ungrammatical, they must be expressed; for example, "The captain had several men died in his ship," should be, "The captain had several men who died," &c.

When we wish to render the sentence emphatical, the repetition of words is necessary; thus, "Power, wisdom, goodness, shine forth in the works of creation," would be more strongly expressed by saying, "Power, and wisdom, and goodness, shine forth in the works of creation."

EXPLANATORY REMARKS AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. When several words follow each other, having the same construction in a sentence, and all defined by the same word, the defining term may be omitted without affecting the grammatical construction, or the sense; as, "He gave his library, books, and papers to his brother."

ILLUSTRATION.—Here, the words *books* and *papers*, following in the same order as *library*, renders it unnecessary to repeat the defining term *his*.

2. The ellipsis of the ABTICLE is thus used; "A man, woman, and child;" that is, "A man, a woman, and a child." (See Rule 53, No. 3.)

4. The omission of the ADJECTIVE. "A little man and woman;" that is, "A little man and a little woman."

OBSERVE.—In expressions of this kind, the adjective ought to have exactly the same signification, and be quite as proper, when joined to the latter as to the former, otherwise the ellipsis should not be admitted. The same adjective should not be applied to two nouns of different numbers; thus, "A magnificent house and gardens;" is better thus, "A magnificent house and *fine* gardens."

5. An ellipsis of the PRONOUN. "I love and fear him," that is, "I love him and I fear him." (See page 130, No. 3; also, page 134, No. 3.)

6. Of the VERB.—" He was old, sullen, and crafty;" that is, "He was old, he was sullen, and he was crafty." When we wish to point out one property above the rest, then we place that perty last, and the ellipsis is sppplied; as, "He was old, suffer and he was crafty."

7. Of the ADVERB. "He spoke and acted wisely;" that is, "He spoke wisely, and he acted wisely."

8. The ellipsis of the PREPOSITION, as well as of the verb, is seen in the following instances:—" He went into the abbeys, halls, and public buildings;" that is, " He went into the abbeys, he went into the halls, and he went into the public buildings." "He was expelled (from) his country."

9. The CONJUNCTION. "They confess the power, wisdom, goodness, and the love of their Creator;" that is, "The power and wisdom, and goodness, and love of their Creator."

10. The ellipsis of the INTERJECTION is not very common; it is, however, sometimes used; as, "Oh! pity and shame!" that is, "Oh pity! Oh shame!"

EXERCISES.—1. A horse and ass. 2. A learned and amiable young man. 3. I gladly shunned who gladly fled from the. 4. I must, however, be so candid to own I have been mistaken. 5. Why do ye that which is not lawful to do on the Sabbath day? 6. It is not only the duty, but interest of young persons to be studious and diligent.

RULE 60.—All the parts of a sentence should corrrespond to each other, and a regular and dependent construction throughout be carefully preserved. Also, a proper choice of words should be carefully attended to.

ILLUSTRATION.—" Neither has he, nor any other persons, suspected so much dissimulation." Nor any, should be, nor have any, to correspond with, neither has.

EXERCISES.—1. He is more bold and active, but not so wise and studious as his companion. 2. The first proposal was essentially different and inferior to the second. 3. Thou hearest the sound of the wind, but canst not tell whence it cometh and whither it goeth.

KEY.—1. He is more bold and active than his companion. 2. The first proposal was inferior to the second, and essentially different from it. 3. Nor whither it goeth.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON ALL THE PRECEDING RULES.

LESSON ONE.

1. Him and me went together. 2. This is well wrote. 3. Jane writes pretty. 4. That is between you and I. 5. Let him and I alone. 6. Who do you think I met. 7. Those kind of women. 8. Who spoke? Me. 9. A more superior work, 10. Extreme good. 11. He bravely fought. 12. He would not go no further. 13. He lives at London. 14. This is very different to that. 15. A egg is broke. 16. The council was not unanimous. 17. I will lay me down in peace and take my rest. 18. One or both was present. 19. One are never satisfied. 20. We know it was her. 21. This lot of pictures are sold. 22. Every one who read to others should make themselves heard by all those to whom they read. 23. The general, with all his officers, has applied for redress. 24. I and you are well. 25. Dare he venture. 26. An osten.

tations, a feeble, a harsh, or an obscure style, are always to be avoided. 27. Give me them oranges. 28. Wisest and best men sometimes commit errors. 29. I cannot think so very mean of him. 30. Who of the three was absent from duty. 31. He need not come. 32. Humility and love constitutes the essence of true religion. 33. The whole world were, about that time, in expectation of a prince out of Judea. 34. A absolute denial. 35. One or both was present. 36. England being washed by the sea, on three of its sides, are exempted from that extremes of heat and cold which some other countries are exposed to; and on these account is unfavourable to the longevity of their inhabitants. 37. The master which I saw. 38. Ours is the only country in the world where every man, rich or poor, dare have an opinion of their own. 39. Tell me which is her. 40. Neither despise or oppose what thou does not understand.

LESSON TWO.

1. Each of those two authors have their merit. Some parts of the ship and cargo were recovered; but neither the captain nor the sailors was saved. 2. These snuffers is highly finished. 3. Moral and religious advice derives its force from what men are taught to feel. 4. What a variety of objects are set before men, to gratify his heart. 5. Our ignorance of what is to come, and of what is really good or evil, check our wishes about our worldly success. 6. But thou, false promiser, never shall obtain thy purpose. 7. The thoughtless and intemperate enjoyment of pleasure, the criminal abuse of it, and the forgetfulness of our being accountable creatures, obliterates every serious thought of the proper business of life, and effaces the sense of religion and of God. 8. A more serener temper. 9. Agreeable to my promise, I now write. 10. Who should I see the other day, but my old friend. 11. Prosperity, with humility, renders its possessors truly amiable. 12. Moral and religious advice derive its force from what man are taught to feel. 13. Those which have grown old in a single state, is generally found to be morose, fretful, and captious. 14. To turn away from an accusation with supercilious silence, are equally in the power of him that are hardened by villainy, and inspirited by innocence. 15. The pair of shoes are too small. 16. Here are a fine brace of partridges. 17. These are the finest couple of fowls. 18. It is not easy to imagine a more unhappier condition than those of dependance on a peevish man. 19. Those who has nothing to give can often relieve others by imparting what they feel. 20. Every degree of guilt incurred by yielding to temptations tend to debase the mind.

LESSON THREE.

1. No one ought to consider hisself as insignificant in the sight of their Creator. 2. Every person have three pitches in their voices, the high, the low, and the middle. 3. Who do you lodge with now? 4. From whence came they? 5. The master requested

Digitized by Google

him and I to read more distinctly. 6. He was born at London, but he died in Bath. 7. Those set of books were a valuable present. 8. The troop consist of fifty men. 9. Let he and I read the next chapter. 10. Those sort of dealings are unjust. 11. Well says I, what does thou think of him now? 12. Thou, James. did deny the deed. 13. Neither good nor evil come of themselves. 14. We need not be afraid. 15. You should drink plenty of goat milk. 16. It was him who spoke first. 17. Is it me that you mean? 18. Who did you buy your grammar from? 19. If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray. 20. I am more taller than you. 21. She is the lady who sang so sweetly. 22. After the most strictest sect of our religion I lived a pharisee. 23. There was more sophists than one. 24. If this were his meaning, the prediction has failed. 25. Fidelity and truth is the foundation of all justice. 26. Thy rod and thy staff they comfort me. 27. Nothing is more lovelier nor virtue. 28. I wrote to, and cautioned the captain against it. 29. It is not me who he is in love with. 30. The girl her book is torn. 31. Strive not with a man without cause, if he have done thee no harm. 32. He which commands hisself commands the whole world. Do you like ass milk? 34. George or me is the person.

LESSON FOUR.

1. They that honour me I will honour. 2. Nothing have more retarded the advancement of learning, nor the disposition of vulgar minds to ridicule and villify what they cannot comprehend. 3. The French language is spoke in every state in Europe. 4. This is the largest tree which I ever saw. 5. It is no more but his due. 6. These trees are remarkable tall. 7. A pillar six feet high. 8. John told the same story. 9. James is one of those boys which was kept in at school for bad behaviour. 10. Thou James, did deny the deed. 11. The people happiness is the states. 12. He is taller than me, but I am stronger man honour. 13, Abuses of mercies ripen us for judgment. than him. 14. Three of them was taken into custody. 15. I who he is in love with. 16. After who is the king of Israel come out? 17. It was me, and not him that wrote it. 18. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description. 19. I had no sooner placed her at my right hand, by the fire, but she opened to me the cause of her visit. 20. He was extreme prodigal, and his property is now near exhausted. 21. Herodias Bake. 22. Righteousness sake. 23. For consciences sake. 24. He fell at his wifes feet. 25. They carefully attended to the squire's, as they called him, orders. 26. If seeing men and horses are your object. 27. Remember what thou wert and be humble. 28. The desk has been shook. 29. We have done no more than it was our duty to have done. 30. It is well wrote. 31. You were hurt seriously. 32. He liberally has rewarded man. 33. What book is that mentioned in. 34. They are resolved of doing their duty. 35. He had a taste of such studies, and persued them earnestly. 36. I was at London when this happened. 37.

н З

You and me are old friends. 38. They intend going for Dublin 39. He now resides at York. 40. Many days and even weeks passed away unimproved. 41. They that sin, rebuke before all. 42. Of all vices pride is the most universal. 43. Who calls? Me. 44. Who do you speak to. 45. They were glad you sent the books.

LESSON FIVE.

1. St. Bartholomews day. 2. St. Andrews-street. 3. St. Marys chapel. 4. That boy is known under the name of the idler. 5. There was a large enough company. 6. It is only deficient in this respect. 7. Who does he offer such language to? 8. A knowledge of languages are obtained only by steady application. 9. A duke wife is styled a duchess. 10. Misses Watson were present. 11. He was virtuous, and by those means he became respected. 12. He speaks improper. 13. Observe them four men walking. 14. Whom is there to oppose him. 15. He lives freely from care. 16. It is worse than death what I have suffered. 17. I think it by no means a fit and decent thing to vie charities. 18. It is so excellent as deserve my warmest commendation. 19. He will one day wish to have written to him sooner. 20. He went much more slower than he ought to have done. 21. I have been expecting you. 22. Discretion is wanting in all the employments of life. 23. I shall walk in the fields to day, unless it rains. 24. They that honour me, them will I honour. 25. He acted independent 26. He will have certainly finished the of foreign assistance. business. 27. We must not expect to find study agreeable always. 28. Not only he found her unemployed, but pleased and tranquil also. 29. He was last year in London; since then he has been at Liverpool. 30. You have a prejudice to my cause. 31. He could command his temper, though certainly would not. 32. He has spoken four or five times. 33. The landlord was quite unfurnished of every kind of provision. 34. These words have the same sense of those others. 35. Whom do men say that I am? 36. They that sin, rebuke before all. 37. You will arrive to London before the coach.

38. Then hasten thy return; for thee away,

Nor lustre has the sun, nor joy the day.

39. The sca appeared to be more agitated than usually. 40. It were them who acted so ungratefully; they are doubly in fault. 41. Much of the good and evil that happens to us in this world are owing to apparently undesigned and fortuitous events; but it is the supreme Being, which directs and regulates secretly all things. 42. Five and seven make twelve, and one makes thirteen

LESSON SIX.

1. To forgive injuries are the mark of a noble mind. 2. At the foot of this hill was soon built such a number of houses, that amounted to a considerable city.

3. There, all thy gifts and graces we display,

Thee, only thee, directing all our way.

4. There is no roses without a thorn. 5. Humility, and not presumption, adorn the noble mind. 6. Two and two makes four. 7. You and William are attending to their studies. 8. Neither John nor I are ready. 9 The council are determined. 10 Neither honours nor emoluments was bestowed upon him. 11. The royal society are numerous and flourishing. 12. Either avarice or the cares of life has misled him. 13. Men contend frequently for 14. Whither are you all going ? 15. He was accused with trifles. having acted unfairly. 16. Dew and hoar frost is more copious in valleys than it is in elevated situations. 17. Neither he nor I intends to write on that subject. 18. To love virtue and wisdom are highly honourable. 19. The flock forsake the glade. 20. He received education suitable to his circumstances. 21. It is a proper and excellent method. 22. You have suffered for righteousness sake. 23. What is the cause of the earth moving round the sun? 24. You will find the remark in the second or third pages. 25. Give to every one his due. 26. When I arrived, who should I see but your brother. 27. When we compare the works of nature with those of art, we find that the former has great superi-ority over the latter. 28. A serious application to the sciences and liberal arts, soften and humanize the temper, and cherish those fine emotions in which true virtue and honour consists. 29. He and they we know, but who are you? 30. It seems to have been him who conducted himself so well. 31. If he do sincerely believe the truths of religion, let him act accordingly. 32. If he speak only to display his abilities, he is unworthy of atten-33. I have been at London a year, and seen the king last tion. 34. By too eager pursuit, he run a great risk of being summer. disappointed. 35. Our friends intended to have met us. 36. He •confined all his philosophy to the suffering ills patiently. 37. By reading of books written by the last authors, his mind became highly improved. 38. It was from our misunderstanding of the direction that we lost our way.

LESSON SEVEN.

1. Every member of the body, every bone, joint, and muscle, lie exposed to many disorders; and the greatest prudence or precaution, or the deepest skill of the physician, are not sufficient to prevent them. 2. The concourse of people were so great, that with difficulty we passed through them. 3. Ignorance, or the want of light, produce sensuality, covetousness, and those violent contests with others about trifles, which occasions so much misery and crime in the world. 4. We are now reconciled with those difficulties. 5. We were apprehensive lest some accident had happened. 6. I will present it either to him myself, or direct it to be given to him. 7. Changes are almost continually taking place in manners and in men, in opinions and in customs, in private fortunes and in public conduct. 8. It requires more logic nor you possess, to make a man believe that prodigality is not a vice.

9. Oh! thou whose thunder rends the clouded air— Who in the heav'n of heav'ns has fixed thy throne!

Digitized by Google

10. Whence have there arose such a variety of opinions and tenets in religion. 11. Who is that person whom I saw you introduce and present him to the duke? 12. To know Christianity is both to understand what the Supreme Being has revealed for our greatest good, and to have ascertained what conduct we ought to pursue in order to obtain his approbation. 13. Religion, vital religion, the religion of the heart, are the most powerful auxiliaries of reason, in waging war with the passions, and promoting that sweet composure which constitutes the peace of God. 15. Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, were present at the transaction. 16. Either imprudence or indiscretions gives rise to many evils. 17. True charity is not the meteor, which occasionally glares, but the luminary, which, in its orderly and regular course, dispenses benignant influence. 18. The natural objects have been in general arranged, for purpose of the classification, under three grand divisions of the minerals-the vegetables and the animals. 20. Purity has its seat in a heart. 21. The fear of shame, and desire of approbation prevents many bad actions.

LESSON EIGHT.

The high and low, the rich and poor, will meet together.
 Oh! there is sweetness in a mountain air,

And life that bloated ease can never hope to share.

What exile from himself can flee?

To zones, though more and more remote,

Still, still persues, where'er I be,

A blight of life-a demon-thought.

3. He bought the articles at Wilson's, the druggist's. 4. Honour is virtues reward. 5. His eloquence, not his virtue, render him, popular. 6. A person may make themselves happy, though they do not possess great riches. 7. It is an unanswerable argument of a very refined age, the wonderful civilities that have passed between the notion of authors and that of readers. 8. Who are they who assisted us yesterday? 9. A man of abilities, who direct the whole vigour of his mind to one point, will seldom be finally unsuccessful. 10. The child whom we say could not walk. 11. I treat you as a boy who love to learn, and are ambitious of receiving instructions. 12. Many of the nations which visited us, were intelligent. 13. Who are you seeking? 14. He instructed and fed the crowds who surrounded him. 15. He asked me how I liked the man, who I have just mentioned. 16. They did not behave with that decorum which is the duty of any gentleman to observe. 17. Such passages as are excessive bad are committed to the margin. 18. If William desire to gain esteem and love, he does not employ the proper means. 19. He has fallen much oftener than he is accustomed to do. 20. His speech contains one of the grossest and most infamousest calumnies which ever was uttered. 21. He must have committed the fault repeatedly. 22. The science which teach a knowledge of the celestial bodies, its magnitudes, motions, distances, periods, eclipses, orders, &c., is called astronomy; the study of this have been followed with avidity in all ages, and it has now arrived at a tolerable degree of

accuracy. 23. He can never sincerely disposed to promote peace. 24. Having not known, or having not considered the measure proposed, he failed of success. 25. From hence it appears that the position is unfounded.

LESSON NINE.

1. How happy it is to know how to live at times by one's self. to have one's self in regret, to find one's self again with pleasure; the world is then less necessary for us. 2. We cannot question but that his alliance must have been a source of friendship and attachment. 3. He did neither write it, nor did they write it. 4. O piety! virtue! how insensible have I been to thy charms. 5. Reflect on the state of human life. and the society of men, as mixed with good and evil. 6. The multitude rebuked them, because they should hold their peace. 7. Who, instead of being useful members of society, they are the pests to mankind. 8. If you were here, you would find three or four in the parlour, after dinner, whom, you would say, passed their afternoon very agreeable. 9. Plutarch tells us what an infinite advantage Alexander reaped from the fine taste wherewith his preceptor, Aristotle, inspired 10. What invention, what conduct, appears in the whole him. episode. 11 Even the pretended sages among the heathens, who did not like to retain God in their knowledge, they were given up to a reprobate mind. - 12. The rise and fall of the tides, in this place, makes a difference of about twelve feet. 13. Whatever softens, refines, and embellishes human life, in a proper degree, are certainly desirable. 14. Piety, and a calm resignation to the Divine will, forms a shield of adamant against every sublunary 15. No man needs to be so burthened with life, as to have evil. squandered it in voluntary dreams of fictitious occurrences. 16. The error of resting wholly on faith or on works, is one of those seductions which most easily misleads men, under the resemblance of piety on the one hand, and of virtue on the other hand. 17. Pericles gained such an ascendancy over the minds of the Athenians, that he might be said to attain a monarchial power in Athens. 18. Much as the scholar's attainments, and the speculations of the philosopher, might elevate and enlarge the mind, and much as they may improve and adorn it, they extend not our prospects beyond the world; they bound our views within the narrow limits of human life. 19. She was about to have spoken when I entered.

LESSON TEN.

1. Be ready to succour such persons who need your assistance. 2. Those savage people seemed to have no other element but war. 3. A person may be rich by chance; but he cannot be wise or good, without the taking pains for it. 4. Be that as it will, he cannot justify his conduct. 5. For his avoiding of that precipice, he is indebted to his friend's care. 6. This was, in fact, the converting the deposit to his own use. 7. If a man brings into the solitary retreat of age, a vacant, an unimproved mind, in which

Digitized by Google

no knowledge dawns, no ideas rise, which within itself has nothing to feed upon, many a heavy and many a comfortless day he must necessarily pass. 8. Calumny and detraction are sparks, which, if you do not blow, will go out of theirselves. 9. Steady application, as well as genius and abilities, are necessary to produce eminence. 10. It is this commixture of general knowledge with particular skill, which constitute the characteristic difference between a liberal and a confined education. 11. There is no talent so useful towards success in business, or which puts men more out of the reach of accidents, than that quality generally possessed by persons of cool temper, and is, in common language, called discretion. 12. How much is real virtue and merit exposed to suffer the hardships of a stormy life. 13. Twice week. 14. Three times month. 15. I persecute this way unto the death. 16. Night bids 17. Be not afraid, it is me. 18. We know it to be us to rest. they. 19. If thou would improve in knowledge, be diligent. 20. If I know your faults, I would point them out. 21. He said that fever always produced thirst. 22. I shall speedily return, that I might be in time. 23. In tracing of his history, we discovered little that is worthy of imitation. 24. Every thing that we here enjoy, change, decay, and come to an end. 25. How sweetly the hav smells. 26. It is right said, though faith justify us, yet works must justify faith. 27. I bought a black and white cow, which cost each ten pounds. 28. Neither of these men were honourable. 29. He neglected to profit of this occurrence. 30. Be not diverted from thy duty by any idle reflections the silly world may make upon you. 31. It is surely not difficult in a colleges solitude, or in the worlds busile, to find useful studies and serious employment. 32. Not one in fifty of those who call themselves deists, understand the nature of the religion they reject.

LESSON ELEVEN.

1. Though remorse sleep sometimes during prosperity, it will awaken surely in adversity. 2. When we have once drawn the line, by intelligence and precision, between our duty and sin, that line we ought not on no occasion to transgress. 3. There was much spoke and wrote on each side of the question; but I have chose to suspend my decision. 4. Desire and wishes are the first spring of action. 5. I had no sooner placed her at my right hand, by the fire, but she opened to me the reason of her visit. 6. I am sure he dare not to do it. 7. Unless it rains, we shall set out on our journey to morrow. 8. If they believe not Moses and the prophets, neither will they believe, though one rose from the dead. 9. The Lord hath given and the Lord hath taken away. 10. The defending a bad cause is as disgraceful as the cause itself. 11. If these notions are true, I thought they might be worth publishing at this time. 12. Much depends on the scholar attending to these rules of syntax 13. The lawyers they are hypocrites. 14. Who of the family was burnt. 15. They that sin, rebuke before all. 16. Who did you enquire for? 17. I have been acquainted with him this ten years. 18. Who is that? Me. 19. Ours is the only country in the world where every man, rich and poor,

Digitized by Google

dare to have a humour of their own. 20. Some of the famousest actions have been done from the selfishest and despicablest 21. That house is the largest of the two. 22. The motives. peoples happiness is the statesmans honour. 23. Every thing that we here enjoy, change, decay, and come to an end. 24. You are much older than her. 25. She is more cunning than him. 26. There are faults in orthography which neither analogy nor pronunciation justify. 27. A man exceeding wise. 28. I wrote to my brother before I received his letter. 29. He died by a 30. This book is Thomas', that is James'. 31. Depart in fever. peace, be ye warmed and filled; notwithstanding if ye give them not those things which are needful to the body, what doth it profit. 32. These victures of the king were sent to him from Italy. 33. Not only the counsel and attorney's, but also the judge's opinion also favoured his cause. 34. This word I have only found in Spencer. 35. Thomas is not as docile as his sister. 36. The army were drawn up in haste. 37. For the poor always ye have with you.

LESSON TWELVE.

1. The receiving them duly, implies our believing and receiving the whole doctrine. 2. Thou Lord sees us in all our ways, and discerns our motives. 3. The Lord giveth and takes away. 4. An annuity of three thousand pounds were voted. 5. He, and not she, were present. 6. One added to nineteen makes twenty. 7. Not only his estate, his reputation too, have suffered by his misconduct. 8. The audience were generally composed of the meaner sort of persons. 9. An ass is frequently ill treated. 10. The high and mighty states. 11. Either it has or shall be written. 12. Among whom was Mary Magdalene, and Mary, the mother of James. 13. Thine is the kingdom, the power, and the glory. 14. Who, who has the judgment of a man, would have drawn such an inference. 15. Socrates's wisdom has been the subject of many a conversation. 16. Conversation is the business, and let every one that please add their opinion freely. 17. A very slow child will often be found to get lessons by heart as soon, nav sometimes sooner, than one who is ten times as intelligent. 18. There are many more shining qualities in the mind of man but there is none so useful as discretion. 19. No man is fit for free conversation for the inquiry after truth, if he be exceedingly reserved; if he be haughty and proud of his knowledge; if he be positive and dogmatical in his opinions; if he be one who always affects to out-hine all the company; if he be fretful and peevish; if he affect wit, and is full of puns, or quirks, or quibbles. 20. Likewise also the chief priests, mocking, said among themselves, with the scribes, he saved others, himself he cannot save. 21. Noah, for his godliness, and his family, were the only persons preserved from the flood. 22. And he said unto Gideon, every one that lappeth of the water with his tongue, as a dog lappeth, him shalt thou set by himself. 23. The first Christians of the Gentiles world made a simple and entire transition from a state as bad, if not worse, than of entire ignorance, to the Christianity of the New Testament. 24. Sir, if thou have borne him hence, tell me where thou hast laid him.

LESSON THIRTEEN.

1. The multitude rebuked them, because they should hold their peace. 2. A child of four years old was thus cruelly deserted by its parents. 3. A beautiful garden and trees were sold. 4. Groves, fields, and meadows, are, at any season of the year, beautiful to look upon, but never so much as at the opening of the spring. 5. He was ignorant, the profane historian, of the testimony which he is compelled to give. 6. James used to compare him with a cat, who always fell upon her legs. 7. There never has, nor, I believe, will be, a hope of his conversion. 8. To understand the human heart, to know human manners, laws, languages, and institutions; to be able to reflect on all these with moral and political improvement; is an attainment worthy of the greatest statesman and the wisest philosopher. 9. It is of great consequence, that a teacher believes firmly both the truth and importance of those principles which he inculcates upon others; and that he not only believes them speculatively, but has a lively and serious feeling of them. 10 When we see bad men to be honoured and prosperous in the world, it is sometimes discouragement to virtue. 11, Was there no bad men in the world, to ver and distress the good, they might appear in the light of harmless innocence, but could have no opportunity for displaying fidelity and magnanimity, patience and fortitude. 12. He never speaks severe or contemptuous. 13. Who she knew to be dead. 14. Who best can suffer best can do. 15. He has little of the scholar than the name. 16. When he has wrote the letter, so soon will he be at liberty. 17. It has been contested most nobly. 18. A too great variety of studies dissipated and weaken the mind. 19. He has drank too much. 20. He has chose to ride. 21. He has eat no bread, nor drunk no water these two days. 22. Some of our principal public schools have each a grammar of their own. 23. Great numbers were killed on either side. 24. It argued the most extreme vanity. 25. He is not only sensible and learned, but is religious too. 26. I have read Horace Art of Poetry. 27. I want a scissors. 28. The winter has not been as severe as we expected it to have been. 29. He runs as if he contends for victory. 30. He trifles as if he is destitute of sense.

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS.

1. FARTHER applies to place and distance, and FUR-THER to quantity or addition.

2. LATER OF LATTER cannot, with propriety, be used indifferently; *latter* refers to place; *later* respects time only.

3. The phrase "seldom or ever" is improper; it should be, "seldom *if* ever," or "seldom or *never*."

4. We should not say, "He lays in bed too long," (lies.)

An author says-

"I have a work laying by me," (lying.)

"Go and lay down on the bed," (lie.)

" I laid and slept an hour," (lay.)

"I was laying on the grass," (lying.)

"He has laid there a long time," (lain.)

"He has lain himself down to rest," (laid.)

5. When the nominative case has no personal tense of a verb, but is put before a participle, independent of the rest of the sentence, also when an address is made to a person, it is called the *case absolute*; as, "John, attend to your lesson." "Shame being lost, all virtue is lost."

6. Every verb, except in the infinitive mood or the participle, requires a nominative, expressed or understood; as, "Attend to advice;" that is, attend ye.

7. An objective case must never be used for the nominative absolute; as, "Him destroyed" should be, "He destroyed."

8. The phrase as follows is frequently misapplied. When the subject is singular, we use the phrase as follows; as, "His argument was as follows." But when the subject is plural, we use as follow; thus, "His words were as follow."

The word as is adequate to that which, or those which. As appears is always singular; "His arguments were, as appears, incontrovertable;" that is, as it appears.

When we say, "His arguments were such as follow," we convey the idea, that the arguments which follow are not the very same that he used, but that they are only of the same nature or kind.

9. The relative THAT is prefixed to the first of several adjectives, qualifying one noun; as, "That great and good man" means only one man; but that great and that good man, would mean two men; the one a great man, the other a good man.

That must not be used after a proper name.

PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to convey to the reader the exact sense, and assist him in the proper delivery.

The principal points are, the *Reading Pause* (,), *Comma* (,), *Semicolan* (;), *Colon* (:), and the *Period* (.). To which may be added the *Note of Intorrogation* (?), the *Exclamation* (!), and the *Dash* (—).

In reading we frequently find it necessary to make almost an unapprehended cessation of the voice, where the *comma* is inadmissable. Consequently, we consider the art of punctuation defective. This defect, therefore, I have endeavoured to remedy, by the introduction of the READING PAUSE.

READING PAUSE.

RULE 1.—A simple sentence, when it is a short one, requires only a full stop at the end; as, "God created the world."

RULE 2.—The Reading Pause should be employed when the sense of the passage requires a slight pause, and, at the same time, will not admit the comma; as, "Of all ill-habits, that of idleness is the most incorrigible."

EXAMPLES.—1. What is the difference between the old, and the new. 2. There are witnesses of the fact, which I have mentioned. 3. The mind of man should not be left without something, on which to feed. 4. He was influenced both by a just, and a generous principle.

RULE 3.—The Reading Pause must be used before an adjective, when it has other words depending on it; as, "There is a system of opinions, *peculiar* almost to every age."

RULE 4.—After the case absolute and the infinitive mood, the Reading Pause must be used; as, "To give him his due, he was an honest man,"

PUNCTUATION.

RULE 5.—When the nominative case is a phrase, the Reading Pause must be placed between the *nominative* and the *verb*; as, "*To be good*, is to be happy."

RULE 6.—When a comparison is used by the adjective like, and consists of several terms, it is separated from the rest of the sentence by the Reading Pause; as, "Generations of men glide away, *like* the rapid streams of a river.

But when the comparative member is short, the Reading Pause may be omitted; as, "Our time passes away like a shadow."

EXERCISES ON THE WHOLE RULES.

1. Live well that ye may die well. 2. To confess the truth I own I was much in fault. 3. There are witnesses of the fact which I have mentioned. 4. Peace of mind being secured we may smile at misfortunes. 5. The book of Job is a poem full of the noblest and most majestic figures. 6. The great end of all human industry is the attainment of happiness. 7. Many persons gratify their eyes and ears instead of their understanding. 8. Our intention being good we had nothing to fear. 9. The mind of man should not be left without something on which to employ its energies.

Сомма.

RULE 1.—When a simple sentence is a long one, a Comma must be inserted immediately before the verb; as, "The most acceptable sacrifice, is that of a contrite heart."

EXERCISES.—The friend of order has made half his way to virtue. To be totally indifferent to praise or censure is a real defect in character. The most acceptable sacrifice is that of a contrite and humble heart. Too many of the pretended friendships of youth are mere combinations in pleasure. The intermixture of evil in human society serves to exercise the suffering graces and virtues of the good. The good taste of the present age has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language.

RULE 2.—The simple members of a compound sentence are separated by commas; as, "He studies diligently, and makes great progress."

EXERCISES.—Crafty men contemn studies simple men admire them and wise men use them. To be humble and modest in opinion to be vigilent and attentive in conduct to distrust fair appearances and to lestrain rash desires are instructions which he darkness of our present state should strongly inculcate. If the mind sow not corn it will plant thistles. If we delay till tomorrow what ought to be done to-day we overcharge the morrow with a burden which belongs not to it.

RULE 3.— $T\dot{w}o$ words of the same part of speech, whether nouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, or adverbs, do not admit a comma between them, when connected by a conjunction; as, "George and John are good."

But when the conjunction is not expressed, a comma is inserted between the words; as, "He is a plain, honest man."

EXERCISES.—Deliberate slowly execute promptly. Benefits should be long and gratefully remembered. Some men sin deliberately and presumptuously. The vicious man is often looking round him with anxious and fearful circumspection. He and she were present. By reading and composing frequently he acquired facility of expression. Every tie every sense of honour was obliterated. This unhappy person had often been seriously and affectionately admonished.

RULE 4.—Three or more nouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, or adverbs are separated by commas; as, "The sun, moon, and stars, are the glory of nature."

When words follow in *pairs*, they are separated in *pairs* by the comma; as, "His English is *pure* and *simple*, *nervous* and *clear*."

EXERCISES.— Corn wine oil and vegetables are preferable to diamonds and rubies. He loved them because they were mild attentive and grateful. The man of virtue and honour will be trusted relied upon and esteemed. He was happy in being loved esteemed and respected. To live soberly righteously and piously comprehends the whole of our duty. Whether we eat or drink labour or sleep we should be moderate. Truth is fair and ardless simple and sincere uniform and consistent. The rose the violet the tulip the narcissus the hyacinth the gilliflower the jasamine the lily the honeysuckle the ranunculus are the delight of the sight.

RULE 5.—All phrases, emphatic words, or explanatory sentences, whether in the beginning, end, or middle of a simple sentence, are set off by the comma; as, "He was, in short, a great man."

EXERCISES.—The king approving the plan put it into execution. Paul the apostle of the Gentiles was eminent for his zeal and knowledge. I have seen the emperor as he was called. Charity like the sun brightens all its objects. Trials in this stage of being are the lot of man. Gentleness delights above all things to alleviate distress and if it cannot dry up the falling tear to sooth at least the grieving heart.

164

RULE 6.—The modifying words and phrases, against, at least, besides, finally, indeed, in fact, first, formerly, hence, however, lastly, nay, now, so, in short, therefore, wherefore, and the like, are separated by commas when considered of importance.

When, however, these words are not of importance, and, particularly in short sentences, the comma is not inserted.

EXERCISES.—I shall make some observations first on the external and next on the internal condition of man. I proceed secondly to point out the proper state of our temper with respect to one another. Here every thing is in stir and fluctuation there all is serene and orderly. Industry will undoubtedly be rewarded. He was formerly a wealthy citizen. It was indeed very culpable.

RULE 7.—Any clause containing a finite verb, and coming between a nominative case and its verb, may be separated by a comma.

EXECISES.—The man who is faithfully attached to religion may be relied on with confidence. Thou who hast been a witness of the fact canst give an account of it. The king who loves his subjects deservedly honoured. He who conquers himself is a brave man.

RULE 8.—The words used in a direct address, a short observation, and the infinitive mood *absolute*, when it is not used as a nominative case, are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

EXERCISES.—My son give me thy heart. I am obliged to you my friends for your favours. I remain Sir your obedient Servant. Plutarch calls lying the vice of slaves. I thank you madam. To say the least they have betrayed great want of prudence. Come then companion of my toils let us take fresh courage.

RULE 9.—A comma is inserted between the two parts of a sentence, which have their natural order inverted; as, "Him that is weak in the faith, receive ye."

EXEBCISES.—In youth the habits of industry are most easily acquired. What is the right path few take the trouble of inquiring. To God nothing is impossible. By threads innumerable our interests are interwoven.

RULE 10.—When several words come between the relative and its antecedent, a comma must be inserted; but not in other cases; as, "There is no *charm* in the female sex, *which* can supply the place of virtue." "It is *labour* only *which* gives the relish to pleasure." EXERCISES.—The first beauty of style is propriety without which all ornament is puerile and superfluous. Blind must the man be who discerns not the most striking marks of divine government exercised over the world. Many of the evils which occasion our complaints of the world are wholly imaginary.

RULE 11.—The verb to be, followed by an adjective or a verb in the infinitive, which, by transposition, might be made the nominative to it, the former is generally separated from the latter verb by a comma; as, "To be diligently employed in the performance of real duty, is honourable." "It is honourable, to be diligently employed in the performance of real duty."

EXERCISES.—The greatest misery is to be condemned by our own hearts. One of the noblest of the Christian virtues is to love our enemics. The best preservative of health is to be temperate in all our gratifications.

RULE 12.—When a verb is understood, a comma must be inserted, and particularly before *not*, *but*, and *though*; as, "Reading makes a full man; conference, a ready man; and writing, an exact man."

EXERCISES.—He was a great poet but a bad man. The sun is up though he is not visible. A man ought to obey reason not appetite. As a companion he was severe and satirical; as a friend captious and dangerous; in a domestic sphere harsh jealous and irrascible.

RULE 13.—Any remarkable expression resembling a quotation, command, or emphatic phrase, is separated by a comma.

EXERCISES.—I say unto all watch. Against thee thee only have I sinned. Turn ye turn ye why will ye die? There is much truth in the proverb without pains no gains.

RULE 14.—Adjectives and participles, when something depends on them, are generally separated from the rest of the sentence, by commas.

EXAMPLES.—The king approving the plan, put it into erecution.

Let graceful memory, from her purest cell,

Lead forth a goodly train of virtues fair,

Cherished in earliest youth.

.

Human affairs are in continual motion and fluctuation, altering their appearance every moment, and passing into some new forms.

RULE 15.—The word *that*, used as a conjunction, is preceded by a comma; as, "Be virtuous, *that* ye may be happy."

EXERCISES.—Be diligent that you may become learned. Search the scriptures that ye may become wise to salvation.

RULE 16.—Words in what is called opposition, must, when other words accompany them, be separated from the rest of the sentence, by the comma; as, "Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal."

EXERCISES.—The island of Mona now Anglesea was the chief seat of the Druids. Augustus the Roman emperor was a patron of the fine arts.

RULE 17.—Simple members of *long* sentences, connected by comparatives, and phrases placed in opposition to each other, are separated by commas; as, "As thy day, so shall thy strength be."

EXERCISES.—As the hart panteth after the water brooks so panteth my soul after thee. The more a man speaks of himself the less he likes to hear another talked of. The friendships of the world can subsist no longer than interest coments them.

> Though deep yet clear though gentle yet not dull Strong without rage without overflowing full.

RULE 18.—When a conjunction is divided, by a phrase or sentence, from the verb to which it belongs, such intervening phrase has generally a comma at each extremity; as, "They set out early, and, before the close of the day, arrived at the destined place."

OF THE SEMICOLON,

Containing insertions of the Semicolon and the Comma.

The semicolon is used to separate the parts of a sentence, which are less dependent on each other than those separated by the comma.

RULE 1.—When a sentence consists of two parts, the one containing a complete proposition, and the other added as an inference, or to give some explanation, the two parts are separated by a semicolon; as, "Economy is no disgrace; for it is better to live on a little, than to outlive a great deal."

EXERCISES.—When you have received a favour remember it when you have granted one forget it. Modesty is one of the chief ornaments of youth and it has ever been esteemed a presage of rising merit. The passions are the chief destroyers of our peace the storms and tempest of the moral world. RULE 2.—When there is some comparison or contrast in the sentence, a semicolon should be used; as, "Heaven is the region of gentleness and friendship; Hell of fierceness and animosity."

EXERCISES.—The path of truth is a plain and safe path that of falsehood a perplexing maze. As a roaring lion and a raging bear so is a wicked ruler over the poor people. He that loveth pleasure shall be a poor man he that loveth wine and oil shall not be rich.

RULE 3.—When several short sentences follow each other, having merely a slight connexion in idea, though in other respects independent of the former, they may be separated; as, "Everything grows old; everything passes away; everything disappears."

EXERCISES.—Wisdom hath builded her house she hath hewn out her seven pillars she hath killed her beasts she hath mingled her wine she hath also furnished her table. The pride of weath is contemptable the pride of learning is pitiable the pride of dignity is ridiculous and the pride of bigotry is insupportable. In the prospect of poverty there is nothing but gloom and melancholy the mind and body suffer together its miseries bring no alleviation it is a state in which every virtue is obscured and in which no conduct can avoid reproach. The epic poem recites the exploits of a hero tragedy represents a disasterous event comedy ridicules the vices and follies of mankind pastoral poetry describes rural life and elegy displays the tender emotions of the heart.

OF THE COLON.

RULE 1.—The Colon is used when the member of a sentence is complete in itself, both in sense and construction; but is followed by some supplemental remark or illustration, depending upon it in sense, though not in syntax.

EXAMPLE.—Nature felt her inability to extricate herself from the consequences of guilt: the Gospel reveals the plan of divine interposition and aid.

EXERCISES—containing also application of the Comma and the Semicolon.—Do not suffer life to stagnate it will grow muddy for want of motion commit yourself again to the current of the world. To sail on the tranquil surface of an unruffled lake and to steer a safe course through a troubled and stormy ocean require different talents and alas human life oftener resembles the stormy ocean than the unruffled lake. Happy would the poor man think himself if he could enter on all the treasures of the rich and happy for a short time he might be but before he had long contemplated and admired his state his possessions would seem to lessen and his cares would grow. RULE 2.—When a long sentence contains several complete members separated by the semicolon, the concluding member requires a colon before it.

EXAMPLE.--By doing, or at least endeavouring to do, our duty to Ged and man, by acquiring an humble trust in the mercy and favour of God, through Jesus Christ; by cultivating our minds, and properly employing our time and thoughts; by correcting all unreasonable expectations from the world, and from men; and, in the midst of worldly business, habituating ourselves to calm and serious recollection : by such means as these, it may be hoped that, through the Divine blessing, our days shall flow in a stream as unruffled as the human state admits.

RULE 3.—A colon is generally used when a quotation or speech is introduced.

EXAMPLES.—He was often heard to say: I have done with the world, and I am willing to leave it. The scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: God is love.

RULE 4.—A colon is used where the sense is complete in the first clause, and the next begins with a conjunction *understood*; as, "Apply yourself to learning: it will redound to your honour."

But when the conjunction is *expressed*, the semicolon must be inserted; as, "Apply yourself to learning; for it will redound to your honour."

OF THE PERIOD.

RULE 1.—When a sentence is complete, in construction and sense, it is marked with a period; as, "God made the world." The period must be used after all abreviations; as, A.D., M.M.S., Fol.

A period is sometimes inserted between sentences which are connected by conjunctions; as, "And he arose and came to his father. But when he was a great way off," &c.

Interrogation (?) is used when a question is asked.

Exclamation (!) is used after all interjections, sudden emotion, joy, terror, surprise. (See page 81; also 93.)

Other characters are likewise used in composition.

A parenthesis () includes a clause inserted in the body of a sentence, containing some useful remark, which may be taken out without injuring the sense of that which encloses it.

An apostrophe (') marks the possessive noun, or a contraction; as, ne'er for never.

I

The marks for acclamation and measure are the *acute* accent (') which is used to denote a short syllable. Grave accent (`) denotes a long syllable.

An hyphen (-) is used at the end of the line, to show that the rest of the word is at the beginning of the next line. It also connects compound words; as, lap-dog.

An *index* (\mathbf{k}) is used to point out some remarkable passage

An asterisk (*), an obelisk (+), a double dagger (+), and parallels (||) with small letters and figures, refer to some note on the margin, or at the bottom of the page.

A section (\S) is used to divide a discourse or chapter into portious.

(***) Two or three asterisks denote the omission of some letters in a word, or some bold and indelicate expression, or some defect in the manuscript.

A paragraph (\P) is used to denote the beginning of some new subject; it is never used but in the Old and the New Testaments.

Crotchets [] or brackets are used to enclose a word which is to be explained in a note, or the explanation itself; to correct some mistake, or supply some deficiency.

A brace } is used to connect words which have one common term, or three lines in poetry having the same rhyme, called a triplet.

An ellipsis (——) is used when some letters in a word are omitted; as, k——g, for king.

A caret (^) is used to show that either some word is • omitted or interlined; as, "You are, man."

Turned commas ("") are used to show that the words so marked at the beginning and the end, are a *quotation* from some author.

A diaeresis () is used to divide a dipthong into two syllables; as, aerial.

DIRECTIONS WITH RESPECT TO CAPITALS.

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

170

Digitized by Google

2. The first word after a period, and the answer to a question; the first word of every line in poetry; also, the first word after an exclamation, when the preceding sentence is complete.

3. The pronoun I and the interjection O; as, "I am; 0 dear!"

4. The appellations of the Deity; as, God, Most High, &c.

5. The proper names of persons, seas, rivers, streets, ships, mountains, and all adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, Thomas, Grecian, &c.

6. The first word of an example or quotation, when it follows a colon or semicolon in a direct form; as, "Know thyself."

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

Divide into Sentences, and Point the following Exercises:

Whatever be thy fear if thou knowest the truth the truth shall give thee relief have the terrors of guilt taken hold of thee behold the redeemer hath borne thy sins in his own body on the tree and if thou art willing to forsake them, thou knowest with certainty that they shall not be remembered in the judgment against thee hast thou with weeping eyes committed to the grave the child of thy affections the virtuous friend of thy youth or the beloved partner whose tender attachment lightened the road of life behold they are not dead thou knowest that they live in a better region with their Saviour and their God, that still thou holdest thy place in their memory and that thou shalt soon meet them again to part no more dost thou look forward with trembling to the days of darkness that are to fall on thyself when thou shalt be on the bed of sickness when thy pulse shall have become low when the cold damps are gathered on thy brow, and the mournful looks of thy stendants have told thee that the hour of thy departure is come to the mere natural man this scene is awful and alarming but if thou art a Christian if thou knowest and obeyest the truth thou needest fear no evil the shadows which hang over the valley of death shall retire at thy approach and thou shalt see beyond it the spirits of the just and an innumerable company of angels the future com-^{companions} of thy bliss bending from their thrones to cheer thy departed soul and to welcome thee into everlasting habitations.

PROSODY.

Prosody, from $\pi \rho o \varsigma$ (to,) and $\omega \delta \eta$, (song).

PROSODY, is that part of grammar which teaches the true pronunciation of words, and the measure of verses.

Pronunciation comprises accent, quantity, emphasis, pause, and tone.

Accent, is a particular stress of the voice on one syllable of a word, that it may be better heard than the rest in the same word; as, date in the word sedate.

Quantity means the length of time necessary for the proper utterance of each syllable. Quantity is either long or short; as, "Consume."

A syllable is short when the accent is laid on the consonant; and long when the accent is on the vowel. (See Walker's Pronouncing Dictionary.) A syllable is accented or unaccented according as stress of the voice is placed upon it in pronunciation.

Emphasis, is a stronger and fuller sound of the voice, by which we day a greater stress on some particular word or words, in order to mark their superior importance in the sentence; as, "Grammar is a useful science."

On the right management of the emphasis depends the life and spirit of every discourse; without it, not only is the discourse rendered heavy and lifeless, but the meaning is ambiguous; if the emphasis is placed wrong, we completely pervert and confound the meaning.

For the proper management of Emphasis.—Study to attain a just conception, force, and spirit of those sentiments you are about a utter; mark well the emphatical words; but beware of multiply ing them unnecessarily.

A Pause or rest is a total cessation of the voice in order that the speaker may breath.

Pauses are of two kinds, emphatical pauses, and such as mark the distinction of sense.

Emphatical pauses are made after something of importance hat been said, on which we wish to fix the hearer's attention. Be careful never to use such pauses too often.

VERSIFICATION.

Panses which mark the distinction of sense.—The distinction of sense is one of the nicest and most difficult points in public speaking, the voice should be relieved at every stop; a breathing slightly at a reading pause, longer at a comma, a little longer at a semicolon, still longer at a colon, and completely at a period.

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

It is chiefly in the proper use of tones, that the life, spirit, beauty, and harmony of delivery consist. As every man when earnestly speaking in common discourse, on some subject which interests him, has an eloquent and persuasive tone and manner, a judicious imitation of this in public speaking will be the best guide.

Anger, must be expressed by a strong, powerful, and elevated voice; *love*, by a soft, smooth, and languishing voice; *sorrow*, by a low, flexable, and interupted voice; *joy*, by a quick, clear, and smooth voice; *courage*, by a bold, full, and loud voice.

VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the arrangement of a certain number of syllables, according to particular rules.

A particular number of connected syllables are called *feet*, or measure of paces.

A foot is part of a verse, and consists of two or three syllables.

A verse is a certain number of connecting feet, forming one line.

A hemistich is half a verse.

A distich or couplet is two verses.

A stanza or stave is a combination of several verses, varying in number, and forming a division of a song or of a poem.

Rhyme is the name by which we distinguish verses that end with syllables of similar sound.

In blank verse, the syllables do not rhyme.

Metre consists in the number of syllables in a verse, and the position of the accent.

Scanning is the measuring or the dividing of a verse into the several feet of which it is composed.

All feet consist of either two or three syllables, and are of eight different kinds, four of two syllables, and four of three syllables.

The (-) marks the long or accented syllable, and the breve (-) indicates short or unaccented syllables.

DISSYLLABLES. A trochee. An iambus. A spondee. A pyrrhic. TRISSYLLABLES. A dactyle. An amphibrach. An anapaest. A tribrach.

Dissyllabaic feet, or feet of two syllables.

A TROCHEE (-`) has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented; as, "Lovely, hateful." An IAMBUS (`) has the first syllable unaccented, and the last

accented; as, "Betray, become."

A SPONDEE (- -) has both the words or syllables accented; as, " The pale moon."

A PYBRHIC (") has both the words or syllables unaccented; as. " On the tree.

Trissyllable feet, or feet of three syllables.

A DACTYLE (- ".") has the first syllable accented, and the two latter unaccented; as, "Probably." An Amphibrach (".") has the first and last syllable unaccented,

and the middle one accented; as, "Domestic."

An ANAPARST (**) has the first syllables unaccented, and the last accented; as, "Intërcëde." A TRIBRACH (***) has all its syllables unaccented; as,

"Numěráblě."

Verses are distinguished by various names, according to the feet that prevail in them; as, Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapaestic.

The two most common kind of verses are the Iambic and Trochaic.

IAMBIC MEASURE.

Iambic measure has the weak percussion first, and the It is the most dignified, and is adapted to loud last. serious subjects, and consists of verses of several kinds; as,

> 1. Of four syllables, or two feet; thus, " Unheard, unknown, Hē mākes hīs mōan."

2. Of three Iambic feet, or six syllables; thus, "Thŏu lōv'st-tŏ līe-ănd hēar The roar-of wa-ters near."

3. Of Iambic of four feet, or eight syllables; thus, " And māy—ăt lāst—mÿ wēa—rÿ āge Find out-the peace-ful her-mittage."

> Hypermeter, with double rhyme. "Exulting, trembling, raging, faint-ing, Possess'd beyond the muses' paint-ing.

4. Iambic of five feet, or ten syllables ; called our heroic, hexameter, or tragic verse; as,

"The seas-shall waste, the skies-in smoke-decay; Rocks fall-to dust-and moun-tains melt-away; But fix'd-his word,-his sav-ing pow'r-remains; Thy realm-for ev-er lasts ;- thy own-Messi-ah reigns." OBSERVE.—The last line contains six Iambic feet, or twelve syllables; this metre is called the *Alexandrine* verse.

5. Of verses containing seven feet, or fourteen syllables; as,

"Let saints-below,-with sweet accord, || unite-with those above."

These are generally written in two lines in our psalms and hymns; the second line beginning with the word unite.

TROCHAIC MEASURE.

Trockaic verse has the loud percussion first, and the weak last. This measure is quick and lively, and comprises verse,

1. Of ONE Trochee and a long syllable; as,

"Tūmŭlt—cēase Sink to—peace."

2. Of Two Trochees, with an additional syliable; as,

" In thë—dāys öf öld, Stōriës—plāinlÿ—tōld."

3. Of THREE Trochees; as,

"Whēn our-hēarts are mourning."

OBSERVE.—This form has frequently an additional syllable; as,

"Vītāl-spārk ŏf-hēav'nlÿ-flāme!"

- 4. Of FOUR Trochees, or eight syllables; as, "Now the-dreadful-thunder's-roaring!"
- 5. Of SIX Trochees, or twelve syllables; as,

"On ă—mountaĭn,—strētch'd bē—nēath ă—hoarў—willöw, Lāy ă—shēphērd—swāin, ănd—viēwed thē—roaring—billöw."

ANAPAESTIC MEASURE.

In Anapaestic verse, the interval between the accented syllables is double, and the percussion falls on every third syllable.

1. The first form consists of TWO Anapaests; as,

" In mỹ rāge—shǎll bẽ sẽēn Thẽ rëvēnge—ŏf ǎ quēēn."

Sometimes, this form assumes an additional short syllable; as,

"But his cou—rage gan fail | him, For no arts—could avail | him."

 The second species, much used both in solemn and cheerful subjects, consists of THREE Anapaests; as, "Who are they—that now bid—us be slaves? They are foes—to the good—and the free."

Sometimes, a syllable is retrenched from the first foot; as,

"Yē shēphērds,—sö chēērfūl—and gay, Whöse flöcks nē-vēr careless | lý rōam."

3. The third kind contains FOUR Anapaests, or twelw syllables ; as,

" From the knaves—and the fools—and the fops—of the time; From the drudg—es in prose—and the tri—flers in rhyme."

This form sometimes contains an additional syllable; as,

"Tis the voice—of the slug—gard; I hear—him complain—ing"

The preceding are the different kinds of the *principal* feet, in their simple forms. They are capable of numerous variations, by mixing them with one another, and by the admission of the secondary feet, the following ore specimens:

The Pyrrhic mixed with the lambic.

The Spondee with the Iambic.

"Forbear, --- | great man-in arms,--- forbear."

The Trochee with the Iambic.

" Tyrant | and slave,-those names-of hate-and fear."

The secondary feet promiscuously blended.

Tö thë | thick woods | the wool—ly flocks—retreat. Fröm thë—väin con—vërse öf—thë world—rëtir'd. And ä | rich knäve's | a li—bël on | the laws. Whën you | the dull | ëst öf—dull things | have said. And tö | a life | more hap | py ånd—refined.

THE CÆSURA.

A Cæsura is a cessation of the voice and occurs immediately after the *fourth*, *fifth*, or *sixth* syllable; it also occasionally takes place, without disadvantage, after the *third* or *seventh*.

The dumb shall sing, | the lame his crutch forego, And leap, exulting, | like the bounding roe. Exalt thy tow'ry head, | and lift thy eyes. Exploring | till they find their native sleep. Within that mystic circle | safety seek.

Sometimes, the line requires or admits two pauses.

His cooks, | through long disuse, | their trade forgot. Cæsar, | the world's great master, | and his own. Or pierc'd, | with half so painful grief, | your breast.

DIVISION OF POETRY.

Poetry may be divided into different species :---the epigram-epitaph-sonnet-pastoral --didactic-- satirical --descriptive--elegiac-lyric---dramatic---and epic, or heroic.

1. An *Epigram* is a short and witty poem, the point or humour of which is expressed in the latter lines.

2. The *Epitaph* means, literally, an inscription on a tomb, which serves to attract the notice of the passenger.

3. The Sonnet is borrowed from the Italian, and means a little song consisting only of *fourteen* lines.

4. Pastoral poetry is very ancient, and is a description of rural objects. Pastorals are in different forms; sometimes in that of a simple ballad or popular song, which is indeed the most natural.

This species of poetry has, at all times, allured many readers, and excited many writers. The Pastoral Ballad of Shenstone is considered to be the best poem in the English language. E. Elliott, of Sheffield, has composed some excellent pastoral verses.

5. Didactic poetry teaches morals, philosophy, or the arts, in versification.

6. Satiric poetry is intended to ridicule vices and vicious characters. Satire is divided into the jocose and ludicrous, and the serious or declamatory. The poem of Hudibras is a specimen of the former, and Pope's Dunciad of the latter kind.

7. Descriptive poetry enters into every kind of poetical composition, and is generally introduced as an embellishment.

8. *Elegy* was first employed in lamentation for the decease of great persons, or those who were particularly dear to the writer; it was afterwards extended to express the misery of disappointed love, and has sometimes been made the vehicle of moral sentiment.

9. Lyric poetry is such as is sung or set to music.

10. Dramatic poetry is a play in blank verse.

11. An *Epic poem* is an historical representation or description of some important action.

Poetry has many peculiarities with regard to-its grammatical construction; it yields to no Syntactical arrangement. Poetry admits words and phrases, which, in prose, are considered obsa-

lete. Some words are lengthened by a syllable, and others abbreviated. Poetry uses nouns as adjectives, runs two syllables into one, and verbs, nouns, and prepositions are omitted at the fancy of the Poet.

EXERCISES ON PROSODY.

Scan the following verses.

Mention or write out and divide each line into feet, and distinguish the quantity of each syllable as in the following Iambic:

> Běgin | mỹ lõrd, | ĭn eār | ly yoūth. Tŏ sūf | fĕr, nāy, | ĕncŏu | răge trūth.

- Alas! thou know'st not winter drear, In snowy vest, will soon appear. Each heart, in suffring virtue's cause, Shall swell, amid the loud applause.
- 2. Earth to earth, and dust to dust! Here the evil and the just, Here the youthful and the old, Here the fearful and the bold, Here the maiton and the maid, In one silent bed are laid.
- Not a drum was heard, nor a funeral note, As his corpse to the ramparts we hurried, Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot O'er the grave where our hero was buried.
- 4. The fiery courser, when he hears from far The sprightly trumpets and the shouts of war, Pricks up his ears, and, trembling with delight, Shifts place, and paws, and hopes the promised fight.
- 5. "On, Orpheus! on, Orpheus! he works on the crowd, He sways them with harmony merry and loud."

EXERCISES IN VERSIFICATION.

Pure Iambics to be versified : each line forming one verse : scan them ; also, point them according to the preceeding rules of punctuation.

- 1. The fleecy mothers stray'd below And their sportive lambkins play'd around
- 2. And while I feel thy gracious gifts My song shall reveal all thy praise
- 3. Observant eyes confess her ways Pursuing praises bless her steps
- 4. Is run fathers our brothers course! And thy weary son we bring home No more he weeps no more he toils And because he sleeps shall we mourn
- 5. Still'd let the humble storm be Lord Let the million mouths be filled Lord To toil in vain let labour cease Again let England be herself

POETRY.

- 6. The search shall teach thee to prize life And make thee good wise and grateful
- 7. Thousands bend where'er she passes And thousands attend where she moves
- 8. Earth resumes all her verdure And its splendour illumes heav'n
- 9. The voice the dance obey thee To thy warbled lay temper'd
- 10. Content and joy are now field from our dwellings And instead disease and want are our inmates
- 11. The hotter the fight we still grow the fiercer So we conquer the foe the loss we heed not
- 12. Adieu to the woodlands where gay and sportive The cattle play so frolicsome light bounding
- 13. A mother may forsake her son But I will ne'er break my covenant
- 14. We can spy faults in other men And blame the mote that dims their eye Find each little speck and blemish Blind to our own stronger errors
- 15. Their board is crown'd with flow'rs by thee Their walks resound with songs by thee Their sprightly mornings shine by thee And ev'ning hours decline in peace
- 16. Oh man degen'rate man no more offend Go learn of brutes to adore thy Maker Shall these through ev'ry scene own hie bounty Of all his works thou alone ungrateful When the tuneful voice of mercy cries deaf And when sov'reign goodness charms the eyes blind
- 17. Adieu to the woodlands where I have rov'd oft And with the friend that I lov'd convers'd sweetly
- 18. While I thus prolong my stay here The silent night steals along swift
- 19. O gracious God wise and omnipotent Ruler of the skies and unerring Lord All condescending to my feeble heart Impart one beam of thy celestial light I seek not glittring power nor sordid wealth O grant me wisdom and no more I ask
- 20. While night invests the pole in solemn shade And calm reflection sooths the soul pensive While undisturbed reason asserts her sway And fade away life's deceitful golours ' I devote to thee all conscious prefince This peaceful interval of sober thought Here confine all my better faculties And be thine this hour of sacred silence
- 21. Leander bow'd to Hero's eyes Her cheek glow'd with yielding blushes

STYLE,

RHETORIC, AND COMPOSITION.

1. Style is the peculiar manner in which a speaker or writer expresses his ideas to others. All that is necessary in the study of style may be arranged under two heads, *Perspicuity* and *Ornament*.

2. *Perspicuity* signifies the conveying of our ideas to the minds of others, so that they may understand us without the least difficulty.

The study of perspicuity requires attention, first, to single words and phrases, and next, to the construction of sentences.

Perspicuity considered with respect to Words & Phrases.

Perspicuity, considered with respect to words and phrases, requires—PURITY, PROPRIETY, and PRECISION.

Purity of style consists in the use of such words and phrases as properly belong to the idiom of the language in which we write or speak; avoiding the adoption of foreign, obsolete, new-coined, or ungrammatical terms.

RULE 1.—All foreign words, unless where necessity requires them, should never be admitted into our composition. Never use either Latin, French, or any other words to express your meaning, when there are English words of the same import. Avoid such as politesse, hauteur, for politeness, haughtiness.

RULE 2.—Obsolete words must be avoided; such as, behest, quoth he, behoof.

RULE 3.—Avoid new-coined words; such as martyrised, for martyred, encumberment, for encumberance, &c.

RULE 4.—All ungrammatical expressions must be avoided. A violation of any grammatical rule is called a solecism.

Rule 5.—Never abbreviate your pollysyllables; as, extra, for extraordinary.

STYLE.

STUDENT.—What is style? What does perspicuity signify? What does perspicuity, with regard to words and phrases, require? In what does purity of style consist? Repeat the first rule under purity of style. Repeat the second. Repeat the third. Repeat the fourth. What is a *solecism*? Repeat the fifth rule under purity of style.

VIOLATIONS-1. It behoofed him to go. 2. I would as lief have one as the other. 3. Wherewithall shall a young man cleanse his way. 4. I wot not what to do. 5. Quoth he 1 was in haste. 6. Thy speech berayeth thee, for thou art a Gallilean. 7. He was an extra genius, and attracted much attraction. 8. For want of employment, he stroamed idly about the fields. 9. I wist not what I said. 10. It is difficult to discover the spirit and intendment of some laws. 11. They have manifested great candidness in all the transactions. 12. Methinks I am mistaken in my opinion. 13. The disquietness of his mind was visible. 14. He gained great rep by his discoveries.

PROPRIETY.

Propriety of language, is the selection of such words as the best usage has appropriated to those ideas which we mean to express by them, in opposition to vulgarisms, or words and phrases which are either ill-chosen, or not fully expressive of the ideas we mean to convey.

OBSERVE.—Style may be purely English without vulgarisms, or ungrammatical, irregular expressions; and may, nevertheless, be deficient in propriety; for the words may be ill-chosen to convey the intended meaning.

RULE 1.—Avoid low or vulgar expressions; such as, topsy turvy, pell mell, pro and con, hurley burley, pop out.

EXERCISES.—1. They were all hurley burley in battle. 2. By dint of assurance. 3. I heard pro and con. 4. He betrays great weakness by bragging of his abilities. 5. He is not a whit better than she. 6. William turned them topsy turry. 7. He was dancing attendance. 8. I thought him long winded. 9. When they arrived, they fell to work. 10. I began to smell out his motives. 11. I can see it with half an eye. 12. It is handed down to us.

RULE 2.—Supply words that are wanting; as, "Death is the common lot of all; of good men and bad;" it should be, of good men and of bad.

OBSERVE.- Study the observations under Rule 53, page 145.

EXERCISES.—1. He is engaged in a treatise on the interest of the soul and body. 2. The French tongue, in its purity, was never spoken in England. 3. He is impressed with a true sense of that function, when chosen from a regard to the interests of piety and virtue. RULE 3.—Be careful not to use the same word too frequently, and in different senses in the same sentence.

EXAMPLE.—" They were summoned occasionally by their kings, when compelled, by their wants and by their fears, to have recourse to their aid." This sentence would be properly expressed thus; "They were summoned occasionally by their kings, who had recourse to their aid, whenever want or fear rendered it necessary."

EXERCISES. -1. Gregory favoured the undertaking, for no other reason than this, that the manager, in countenance, favoured his friend. 2. True wit is nature dressed to advantage, and yet some works have more wit than does them good.

RULE 4.—Avoid equivocal words; that is, such words as convey a different meaning from the sense you intend to be conveyed.

EXAMPLE.—"Lisias promised to his father, never to abandon his friends." The second his is ambiguous; the his may refer either to his own friends or to his father's. On the first supposition, say, "Lisias, speaking of his friends, promised his father never to abandon them;" on the second supposition, say, "Lisias, speaking of his father's friends, promised his father never to abandon them."

EXERCISES.—1. The eagle killed the hen, and eat her in her own nest. 2. It has been said, that not only Jesuits can equivocate. 3. Solomon, the son of David, who was persecuted by Saul, was the richest monarch that reigned over the Jewish people. 4. It may be justly said, that no laws are better than the English.

RULE 5.—Avoid the injudicious use of technical terms.

REMARK.—Technical phrases, not being in current use, and the peculiar dialect only of a particular class, we should never use them but when we know that they will be understood. Sailors use peculiar phrases, which can be understood only among themselves.

This rule cannot be furnished with exercises of the technical terms used among all classes.

RULE 6.—Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent words and phrases; such as, tip him the wink; currying favour. These expressions are not only nonsensical, but vulgar.

CAUTIONS.—1. To prevent unintelligible composition, acquire a clear and distinct conception of the things on which you write. 2. Never affect excellence. 3. Never use synonymous terms the meaning of which you do not understand.

RULE 7.—Avoid all those words and phrases, which are not adapted to the ideas which we mean to communicate, or which are *less* significant of those ideas than others; as, "He feels any sorrow that can *arrive at* man;" it should be, "that can *happen to* man." **REMARK.**—One great cause of impropriety of expression is the injudicious use of synonymous words; as, "To abdicate, renounce, resign." These are termed synonymous words, but donot express the identical idea. To abdicate the throne, renounce an error, resign an office.

Such words as the following are frequently misapplied; as, "Doctrines, precepts, principles." Doctrine is that which constitutes our faith; precept is that which directs to practise; a principle is the beginning of a thing. We believe in doctrines, obey precepts, imbibe or hold principles.

VIOLATIONS.—1. He remembered m3 of that subject. 2. A fop is a risible character. 3. No less than ten were there. 4. Sha is ashamed when spoken to. 5. James, close the door. 6. It lays on the table. 7. I had rather not. 8. It is apparent to me. 9. He proposes to buy an estate. 10. A novel fashion. 11. An oldish lady. 12. He begins to make rich. 13. The house is a cold one, for it has a north exposition. 14. They shall flee as an eagle, which hasteneth to eat. 15. He died with violence; for he was killed by a sword.

RULE 8.—Avoid provincial expressions, and strictly adhere to the language used by the best writers.

STUDENT.—Explain propriety. What do you mean by best usage? To employ language that is reputable, national, and present. What do you mean by reputable? We mean whatever modes of speech are authorised as good, by the writers of a great number of celebrated works. What do you mean by national? A language that is intelligible throughout the nation. Repeat the first rule for Propriety. What word is preferable to the phrase shunned? to brag? cry up? their betters? pitch upon? stirred up? Repeat the second rule; the third; the fourth; the fifth; the sixth; the seventh; the eighth.

PRECISION.

Precision is the art of expressing, *fully* and *properly*, our ideas; but if we wish to be *precise* we must avoid using those words, which serve merely to *repeat* the same idea, or some thing more than that which is intended.

RULE 1.—Avoid *tautology*, or the repeating of a word or idea that has been fully expressed or implied; as, "He returned *again*." The word *again* is superfluous, for *return* implies *come again*.

EXERCISES.—1. Before I do that I must first finish this. 2. The latter end of that man shall be peace. 3. Learn from hence to study the Scriptures diligently. 4. I leave town in the latter end of July. 5. Give me both of them books. 6. Lift up your book. 7. Smoke ascends up into the clouds. 8. We were mutually friendly to each other. 9. We must do this last of all. 10. I never fail to read whenever I can get a book. 11. The reason why be acted in the manner he did, was not fully explained. 12. Those two boys appear to be both equal in capacity. 13. It is six months ago, since I paid a visit to my relations. 14. I hope this is the last time that I shall ever act so imprudently. 15. This measure may afford some profit, and furnish some amusement.

RULE 2.—Avoid that loose kind of style which abounds with circumlocution and a multitude of words; for every word that does not *add* to the meaning of a sentence, must injure it. The admission of superfluous and synonymous words is called *Pleonasm*.

EXAMPLES.—" I went home full of a great many serious reflections." The words a great many add nothing to the sense, they should therefore be omitted.

A crowd of useless words is brought together by some authors, who, being afraid of expressing themselves in an ordinary manner, and allured by an appearance of splendour, introduce a certain copious loquacity. The following sentence contains the introduction of an additional idea. When an author speaks of his hero's courage in battle, the expression is precise, and clearly understood; but if he praise his courage and fortitude, precision is destroyed, for courage resists danger; fortitude supports pain: fortitude should be omitted.

The following common expressions are violations of this rule: obvious and manifest; bounds and limits; copious and full; intents and purpose. Here, as the same idea is implied in the same term, you must omit the words which are printed in italics.

1

VIOLATIONS.-1. She treated her inferiors with haughtiness and disdain. 2. He died with great courage and fortitude. 3. If I mistake not, I think he is improved both in knowledge and behaviour. 4. He abhorred and detested being in debt. 5. He was a man of so much pride and vanity, that he dispised the sentiments of others. 6. He delights to worship and adore his maker. 7. Poverty induces and cherishes dependence; and dependence strengthens and increases corruption. 8. He behaved with great prudence and wisdom. 9. His whole time was entirely taken up in chat. 10. Such equivocal and ambiguous expressions, mark a formed intention to deceive and abuse us.

NOTICE.—In some particular occasions, too great attention to precision, is apt to betray us into a dry and barren style; to unite copiousness and precision, to be flowing and graceful, and at the same time correct and precise in the choice of words, is one of the highest and the most difficult attainments in composition. In our language there are scarcely two words that convey precisely the same idea. Some words are like different shades of the same colour: an accurate writer can employ them to great advantage, by using them so as to heighten and complete the object which he presents to us. He supplies, by one, what was wanted in the other, to the force, or to the lustre of the image which he means to exhibit. But, with a view to accomplish this, he must be attentive to the choice which he makes of them. When we wish to express an earnestness of affirmation on an interesting subject, we may admit superfluous words; as, "We have seen with our eyes; and we have heard with our cars."

STUDENT.—What is meant by precision ? Repeat the first rule. Repeat the second.

OF THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

Sentences, in general, should be neither very long nor very short. Long sentences, unless constructed with care, require close attention to make us clearly perceive the connexion of the several parts; and short ones are apt to break the sense, and weaken the connexion of thought.

EXAMPLES.—" If you look about you, and consider the lives of others as well as your own; if you think how few are born with honour, and how many die without name or children; how little beauty we see, and how few friends we hear of; how much poverty, and how many diseases there are in the world; you will fall down upon your knees, and instead of repining at one affliction, will admire so many blessings which you have received from the Divine hand." Here the sense is not clear till towards the close of the sentence; the following construction will remove this defect. " If you look about you and see how little beauty there is in the world, and think how few are born with honour, and how many die without children or a name; how much poverty, and how few friends; and how many diseases exist: then consider your own life with that of others; and instead of repining at one affliction you will fall down upon your knees and adore the Divine Being from whom you have received so many blessings."

The following is an example of one in which the sense is formed into short, independent propositions, each complete within itself. "I confess, it was want of consideration that made me an author. I wrote because it amused me. I corrected because it was as pleasant to me to correct as to write. I published because I was told I might please such as it was a credit to please."

A train either of long or short sentences should be avoided; so must also sentences similarly constructed, and having the same number of members; for the ear tires with a perpetual uniformity. On the contrary, by a proper mixture of long and short sentences, and of those variously constructed, not only is the ear gratified; but also animation and force are given to our style.

The properties most essential to form a perfect sentence, are, 1st. Clearness or Perspicuity; 2nd. Unity; 3rd. Energy; 4th. Harmony.

OF THE CLEARNESS OR PERSPICUITY OF A SENTENCE.

1. Clearness, respects our ideas; Perspicuity, the mode of expressing those ideas.

2. To avoid errors, we must strictly attend to the grammatical arrangement of the sentence. But as syntactical rules do not comprehend every case, an ambiguous arrangement of words may frequently be observed, when we can discover no transgression of any syntactical rule.

RULE 1.—Obscurity is frequently occasioned by misplacing the adverb and especially the word only.

EXAMPLES.—" I only bought three books." As the word only stands in the sentence, it implies that something else should have been done with the books besides buying them; on the contrary it alludes to the number, and should have been expressed thus, " I bought only three books."

I have fully explained the position of the adverb under Rule 27, page 119; also, Rules 1 and 2, page 120; to which you must now turn.

RULE 2.—Ambiguity is frequently made by misplacing some circumstance, or particular member in the middle of the sentence; this should be avoided.

EXAMPLE.—Are these designs which any man who is born a Briton, in any circumstance, in any situation, ought to be ashamed or afraid to avow." Observe, the circumstantial or particular member is in italics. We are left at a loss to know what the author intends to be understood; yet we presume the sentence should be "Are these designs, of which any man who is born a Briton ought to be ashamed or afraid, in any circumstances, in any situation, to avow."

EXERCISES.—1. The embarrassments of the artificers, rendered the progress very slow of the work. 2. They are now engaged in a study, of which they have long wished to know the usefulness. 3. The emperor refused to convert at once, the truce into a definitive treaty. 4. However the miserable remains were, in the night, taken down. 5. He was a man of the greatest prudence, virtue, justice, and modesty. 6. His labours to acquire knowledge have been productive of great satisfaction and success.

RULE 3.—Ambiguity is frequently created by the improper position of the relative pronouns, who, which, what, that, and whose. See Syntax, Rule 37, page 129.

The following sentence will tend to illustrate this rule. " It is a 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." This construction implies that it is *treasure*, and not the accidents of life; from which no mortal can protect himself by his own exertions. The sentence should have been thus:—" It is folly to pretend, by heaping up treasures, to arm ourselves against the accidents of life, against which nothing, &c." **EXERCISES.**—1. They attacked Northumberland's house, whom they put to death. 2. They are the master's rules who must be obeyed. 3. It is true what he says, but it is not applicable to the point. 4. He was taking a view, from a window, of the Cathedral in Lichefield, where a party of the royalists had fortified themselves.

RULB 3.—Circumstantial clauses, however, should not be crowded together, but be interspersed in different parts of the sentence, and joined with the principal words on which they depend.

EXAMPLE.—What I had the opportunity of mentioning to my friend, sometime ago, in conversation, was not a new thought." The following arrangement is preferable; "What I had an opportunity, sometime ago, of mentioning to my friend, in conversation, was not a new thought."

RULE 5.—Never place a circumstantial clause, by way of simile, between two principal members of a period.

EXAMPLE.—" The minister of state, who grows less by his elevation, like a little statue on a mighty pedestal, will always have his jealousy strong about him."

OBSERVE.—The words in italics are the circumstantial clause introduced by way of simile, but it is doubtful whether it relates to what goes before, or to what follows. We presume the sentence ought to be constructed thus; "The minister of state who, *kike a little statue placed on a mighty pedestal*, grows less by his elevation, will always, &c."

RULE 6.—When the sense admits it, the botter the circumstantial clause is introduced the better, that the more important words may possess the last place.

EXAMPLE.—" The emperor was so intent on the establishment of his absolute power in hungary, that he exposed the empire doubly to desolation and ruin for the sake of it." This sentence is faulty; better thus, according to rule: "The emperor was so intent on the establishment of his absolute power in Hungary, that, for the sake of it, he exposed the empire doubly to desolation and ruin."

RULE 7.—When different things have an obvious relation to one another, with respect to the order of time, place, cause, and effect, a corresponding order should be regarded, in assigning them their positions in the sentence.

EXAMPLE.—"Ambition creates seditions, wars, discords, hatred, and shiness." We should say, "Ambition creates hatred, shiness, discords, seditions, and wars."

RULE 8.—Considerable obscurity arises from the too frequent use of the pronouns who, they, them, and theirs,

Digitized by Google

especially when we have to speak of different persons. This should be avoided by substituting appropriate words.

OF THE UNITY OF A SENTENCE.

By unity is meant that connexion of the several parts with one proposition, object, or design which is found in every sentence.

OBSERVE.—A sentence implies one proposition; it may consist of parts, but these must be so intimately connected, as to make the impression on the mind, of but one principal subject.

RULB 1.—Never crowd into one sentence objects that have so little connexion, that they could bear to be divided into two or more sentences.

EXAMPLE.—" The march of the Greeks was through an uncultivated part or the country, whose savage inhabitants fared hardly, having no other than a breed of lean sheep, whose flesh was rank and unsavoury, by reason of their continual feeding upon seafish." Here, the change of the scene is frequent. The march of the Greeks, the description of the inhabitants through whose country they travelled, the account of their sheep, and the cause of their sheep being ill-tasted food, form a jumble of objects difficult to be comprehended under one view.

RULE 2.—Never insert parentheses in the middle of a sentence, when it can be avoided. When the parentheses are very short, and serve as necessary explanations, they may be admitted; but generally they may be transferred to the following sentence:—

EXAMPLES.—1. A parenthesis is introduced in its proper place;

"And was the ransom paid ! It was; and paid (What can exalt the bounty more?) for thee."

2. "If your hearts secretly reproach you for the wrong choice you have made, (as there is time for repentance; and a return to wisdom is always honourable) bethink yourself that the evil is not irreparable." It would be much better to put the parenthesis into a separate sentence; thus, "If your hearts secretly reproach you for the wrong choice you have made, bethink yourselves that 'the evil is not irreparable. Still there is time for repentance; and a return to wisdom is always honourable."

RULE 3.—Let your sentence be complete and brought to its natural close, but not extended beyond it; for appendages are destructive both to strength and unity.

EXAMPLE.—The following sentence is improper in this respect. "With these writings young divines are more conversant than with those of Demosthenes, who by many degrees excelled the other, at least as an orator." The natural close of the sentence

STYLE.

is at these words, "excelled the other." The sentence is better thus; "With these writings young divines are more conversant than with those of Demosthenes, who, by many degrees, as an orator at least, excelled the other."

RULE 4.—During the course of the sentence, the scene should be changed as little as possible.

EXAMPLE.—"After we came to anchor, they put me ashore where I was welcomed by all my friends, who received me with the greatest kindness." The fault is, in shifting so often both the place and the person, we and they, I and who; the sense is weakened, and the unity of the sentence is impared. Correct thus, "Having come to an anchor, I was put on shore, where I was welcomed by all my friends, and received with the greatest kindness."

OF THE STRENGTH OR ENERGY OF A SENTENCE.

Strength or energy comprehends everything that conduces to stimulate attention, to impress strongly on the mind the arguments adduced, to excite the imagination, and to arouse the feelings.

RULE 1.—Care must be taken to avoid a redundancy of words and members.

EXAMPLES.—1. On a redundancy of words. "They returned back again to the same city from whence they came forth." The five words, back, again, same, from, and forth, are superfluous. 2. On a redundancy of members. "The very discovery of beauty strikes the mind with inward joy, and spreads delight through all its faculties." Here the second member is little more than an echo of the first.

RULE 2.—Attend to the use of relatives, copulatives, prepositions, and all the particles employed for transition and connexion. (See Rules 34, 43, and 46.)

EXAMPLES.—" There is nothing which disgusts us sooner than the empty pomp of language." Had, " there is," and, "which" been cmitted, the strength of the sentence would have been greatly increased.

RULE 3.—Let the members or propositions of the sentence go on rising and growing as they approach the end. (See climax, in Rhetoric.)

EXAMPLE.—Charity breaths habitual kindness towards friends, courtesy towards strangers, long suffering to enemies.

N.B.—When a sentence consists of two members, the longe should generally be the concluding one.

RULE 4.—Never conclude a sentence either with an adverb, a preposition, or any inconsiderable word. (See Rules 27 and 43.)

RULE 5.—In the members of a sentence where either resemblance or contrast is designed, some resemblance in the *language* and *construction* should be preserved.

EXAMPLE.—" The wise man is happy when he gains his own approbation: the fool when he recommends himself to the applause of those about him." The sentence should have been expressed thus; " The wise man is happy when he gains his own approbation, the fool when he gains that of others."

OBSERVE.—Such sentences when constructed with propriety and not too frequently introduced, have a sensible beauty. But when such construction as this is uniformly aimed at, our composition becomes tedious to the ear, and the hearer plainly discovers affectation.

RULE 6.—Dispose of the principal or most important words in that situation of a sentence in which they will make the fullest impression. Whatever is intended to strike the attention, should be placed at the *beginning* of a sentence.

EXAMPLE.—" The cripple who sat begging at the beautiful gate of the temple, earnestly looked on Peter and John, expecting to receive something; Peter said to him, 'Silver and gold have I none, but such as I have, give I thee; in the name of Jesus of Nazareth, rise up and walk."

Sometimes when we intend to give weight to a sentence, the important clause should be preserved till the conclusion; as, "On whatever side we contemplate Homer, what principally strikes us, is his wonderful invention."

THE HARMONY OF A SENTENCE.

Harmony implies an agreeable and smooth flow of words in respect of the sound of the sentence, as well as, that agreeable sound or modulation of the voice which pleases the ear. Noble and pleasing ideas, strong and forcible reasoning, conveyed in harmonious language, produce a deeper impression on the mind than if transmitted by means of harsh and disagreeable language.

RULE 1.—Avoid words which are difficult of pronunciation, for they are generally harsh and painful to the ear.

RULE 2.—To produce an agreeable sound or melody, such words must be chosen as are composed of smooth and liquid sounds, with a just proportion of vowels and consonants. OBSERVE.—Long words are commonly more agreeable to the ear than monosyllables. They please by the composition or succession of sounds which they present to the ear.

RULE 3.—Avoid those words which are composed of words already compounded, the several parts of which are not well united; as, "Tenderheartedness, shamefacedness," &c.

RULE 4.—Avoid such words as have the syllables which immediately follow the accented syllable, crowded with consonants that do not easily coalesce; as, "Questionless, conventiclers," &c.

RULE 5.—Avoid such words as have too many syllables following the accented syllable; as, "Curiosity, peremptoriness."

RULE 6.—You must not use such words as have a recurrance of the same, or of similar syllables; as, "Holily, sillily.

OBSERVE. -- It is necessary, in order to render the sentence harmonious, not only that the words should be well chosen and well sounding, but also, that they should be properly arranged. The following sentence is remarkably harmonious: "We shall conduct you to a hill-side, laborious, indeed, at the first ascent; but else, so smooth, so green, so full of goodly prospects and melodious sounds on every side, that the karp of Orpheus was not more charming."

The words in this sentence are, well-chosen; full of liquids and soft sounds; *laborious*, *smooth*, *goodly*, *melodious*, *charming*; and these words so artfully arranged, that were we to alter the collocation of any of them, the melody would be injured.

RULE 8.—To promote the harmonious arrangement of words, when the preceding word ends with a vowel, let the following begin with a consonant; and the contrary; thus, "a *true friend*, a *cruel enemy*," are smoother and easier to the voice, than, "a *true union*, a *cruel destroyer*."

RULE 9.—In general, a number of long or short words near one another should be avoided.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Disappointment in our expectations is wretchedness." It should be, "disappointed *hope* is *misery*." 2. "No course of joy can please us long." It is better to say, "no course of *enjoyment* can please us long."

RULE 10.—Avoid a succession of words which have the same quantity in the accented syllable.

EXAMPLES.—" They could not be happy; for he was silly, pettish, and sullen;" better say, " They could not be happy, for he was simple, peevish, and gloomy."

2. "James was needy, feeble and fearful :" better say, "James was timid, fearful, and destitute."

RULE 11.—In general words beginning alike, or ending alike, must not come together; and the last syllable of the preceding word should not be the same as the first syllable of the following one.

EXAMPLES.—1. "This is a convenient contrivance;" it is more harmonious to say, "This is a *us-ful* contrivance." 2. "She behaves with uniform formality;" to say, "She behaves with unvaried formality," is more harmonious.

RULE 12.—The members of a sentence should not be too long, nor disproportionate to each other; but the rests should be distributed so as to make the course of breathing easy, and, should fall at such distances as to bear a musical proportion. They should also go on increasing in importance and length to the close of the sentence.

EXAMPLES.— 1. The following sentence is a breach of this rule. "This discourse concerning the easiness of the Divine commands does, all along, suppose and acknowledge the difficulties of the first entrance upon a religious course; except only in those persons who have had the happiness to be trained up to religion by the easy and sensible degrees of a pious and virtuous education." The fault of this sentence is owing to the great length of the two members into which the sentence is divided; as there is but one considerable pause, there is too great a stress of the breath in pronouncing it.

2. The following is an example in which the different members are proportionately arranged. "But his pride is greater than his ignorance, and what he wants in knowledge, he supplies by sufficiency. When he has looked about him, as far as he can, he concludes, there is no more to be seen; his own reason he holds to be the certain measure of truth; and his own knowledge, of what is possible in nature." (Rcad Habakkuk, 3 c. 17 and 18 v.)

RULE 13.—Let there be nothing harsh or abrupt in the close of a sentence; the longest members of the period, and the fullest and most sonorous words must be reserved for the conclusion.

EXAMPLES. - 1. The following is a breach of this rule :---" The doctrine of the Trinity is a mystery which we firmly believe the truth of, and humbly adore the depth of." This might have been rendered harmonious, by this transposition :--- "The doctrine of the Trinity is a mystery of which we firmly believe the truth, and the depth of which we humbly adore." (See Rule 43; also, remark 1, page 134.)

RHETORIC.

RHETORIC OR FIGURATIVE STYLE.

RHETORIC is considered to be a study of the highest importance; while Greece and Rome were free, it was almost the only passport to distinction and power; and in modern times, the knowledge of its rules is essential to every one who wishes to become eminent, either in the pulpit, on the platform, in the senate, or at the bar.

It is a study which exercises our reason without fatiguing it. It strews flowers in the path of science, forms a pleasing relief to the more toilsome labours to which the mind must submit in the acquirement of erudition or the investigation of truth.

When we employ words that describe things by their own names, our language is said to be *plain* or *literal*; but, when we introduce others, that are substituted instead of these names, our language is then denominated *figurative*. Thus, when we say, "A person has a fine *taste in wines*," the word, *taste*, has its *plain* or *literal* signification; but, when we say, "He has a fine *taste* for *painting*, *poetry*, or *music*," we employ it *figuratively*.

Figures are the most natural and the most common method of uttering our sentiments; they are part of that language which nature dectates, and are frequently used by the illiterate and vulgar, as well as by the learned and refined.

Figures are generally divided into two great classes; figures of words and figures of thought; the former are usually called Tropes, the latter simply Figures.

A Trope consists in a word's being employed to signify something that is different from its original meaning, so that if we alter the word we destroy the figure. Thus, "Light ariseth to the upright in darkness," the Trope consists in "light and darkness" not being meant literally, but substituted for comfort and for *adversity*, on account of some resemblance or analogy which light and darkness are supposed to bear to these conditions in life.

Tropes and Figures enrich language, and render it more copions; they bestow dignity upon style; and impart to us the pleasure of viewing two objects at once without confusion; lastly, they frequently give us a much clearer and more striking view of the principal object, than if it were expressed in simple terms, and divested of its figurative dress.

RHETORICAL TROPES.

The principal Tropes (from $\tau\rho\sigma\sigma\sigma\sigma$, a turning) are seven; 1. Metaphor; 2. Allegory: 3. Metonymy; 4. Synecdoche; 5. Irony; 6. Hyperbole; 7. Catachresis.

1. A Metaphor (Merapopa, a transferring) is founded on the resemblance which one object is supposed to bear in some particuthar respect to another.

Digitized by Google

EXAMPLE.—" Thy word is a *lamp* to my feet." The word *lamp* is the metaphor employed to express the *enlightening influence* of the Word of God upon the *human mind*; for as a lamp directs us on our way in the dark, so does the Divine Word of God instruct us in the course of conduct which we are to pursue. (See Psalm 18-2. Duter. 32-13.

OBSENCE. -1. Metaphors must be suited to the nature of the subject of which we treat, neither too elevated nor too mean for it, that we may neither attempt to force the subject to a degree of elevation which is not consistant with it, nor on the other hand, allow it to sink below its proper dignity.

2. The resemblance between two objects and the idea intended to be conveyed, must be perspicuous, neither far-fetched nor difficult to discover.

3. Never intermix metaphorical and plain language.

4. Different metaphors ought never to be employed in describing the same subject. The violation of this rule is called a *mixed* metaphor.

5. Metaphors must never be *pursued too far*. When we dwell too long upon the resemblance on which the figure is founded, and carry it into all its minute circumstances, we fatigue the hearer with this play of fancy, and render our discourse obscure. This is called *straining* a metaphor.

2. An Allegory $(\Lambda\lambda\lambda\eta\gamma\rho\rho\iota\alpha, speaking otherwise)$, is a continuation of several metaphors, so connected in sense, as to form a kind of parable or fable.

EXAMPLE. - Psalm 80, v. 8 to 17. Ezekiel, 17 c. 22-24 v.

3. Metonymy ($M\epsilon\tau\omega\nu\nu\mu\iota\alpha$, change of name,) is a change of name, or putting the cause for the effect, or the effect for the cause, the container for the thing contained, the sign for the thing signified; as when we say, "I am reading Virgil," that is, his works. "Grey hairs should be respected;" that is, old age. "The kettle boils;" means the water. "He assumes the sceptre;" that is, He assumes the source:

4. Synecdoche ($\Sigma v \nu \epsilon \kappa \tilde{c} \alpha \chi \eta$, a taking tegether,) is when the whole is put for a part, or a part for the whole; as, "The waves for the sea;" "the head for the person;" "ten thousand for a great number."

5. Irony ($Ei\rho\omega\nu\iotaa$, *Dissimulation*) is frequently used by way of jest, and banter, insult or derision. Irony is intended to convey a contrary idea to that which the words import; as, "O wise and valuant hero!" means, "O foolish coward."

N.B. If you meet with a person who frequently speaks ironically, abandon his company, for he is a lying and deceifful person, as the word originally implies.

6. An Hyperbole $(\Upsilon \pi \epsilon \rho \beta o \lambda \eta, Excess.)$ is a figure which goes beyond the truth, and represents things greater or smaller, better or worse, than they are; thus, "He runs swifter than the wind," for very swift.

RHETORIC.

7. Catachresis (Kara $\chi_0\eta\sigma_{15}$, abuse) borrows the name of one thing to express another, which has either no name of its own, or, if it has, the borrowed name is more agreeable; as, " And there was set there six water-pois of stone."

FIGURES OF THOUGHT.

Figures of *thought*, or simply figures, are those which lie wholly in the thought, the words being taken in their proper and literal sense, and the figure consists in the turn of the sentiment.

The principal figures of thought are,

1. The Parabole, or Simile $(\Pi \alpha \rho \alpha \beta \alpha \lambda \eta, SIMILIS, resemblance$ or comparison) of some one particular thing, between two objects which are in themselves dissimilar and belonging to different species; thus, we can say of a man, "He is as firm as a rock."

The comparison is generally expressed by such words as, like, as, so, thus, such, compared with, §c.

2. Antithesis ($A\nu r\iota\theta\epsilon\sigma\iota_c$, Opposition,) contrast or opposition of two objects of the same species. Contrast always makes things appear to greater advantage; as, "The wicked *fiee* when no man *pursueth*, but the righteous are *bold* as a *lion*."

3. Prosopopaia ($\Pi \rho \sigma \sigma \omega \pi \sigma \sigma ua$, Feigning a person, or personification,) is the figure by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, "The sea saw it and fied."

This is one of the boldest and the finest figures: you must never attempt it, unless prompted by strong passion, and do not continue it when that passion begins to flag. Never personify any object that has not some dignity in itself, and cannot make a proper figure in the elevation to which you wish to raise it.

4. Climax ($K\lambda\iota\mu\alpha\xi$, a ladder,) or amplification, rises by regular steps, from one circumstance to another, till the thoughts cannot be carried to a greater elevation.

EXAMPLE. -- What a piece of work is man! how noble in reason! how infinite in faculties! in form and moving, how express and admirable! in action, how like an angel; in apprehension how like a god. (Read Rom. 8 c. 38 and 39 v.)

5. Apostrophe ($A\pi\sigma\sigma\tau\rho\phi\eta$, a turning away,) consists in addressing persons that are either dead or absent, or even inanimate things, as if they were endowed with sense and reason; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory: O death, where is thy sting?" Read 1 Cor. 15 c. 54 and 55 v. Luke 13 c. 34 v.

6. Erotesis ($E\rho\omega\tau\eta\sigma\iota\varsigma$, interrogation or questioning) is a figure by which we express the emotion of our mind, and infuses an ardour and energy into our discourse, by proposing questions.

EXAMPLE.—" Hath the Lord said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it? and shall he not make it good?"

7. Ecphonesis ($Er\phi\omega\nu\eta\sigma\iota\varsigma$, *Exclamation*,) is a figure which shews that the mind labours with agitated feelings, admiration, wonder, surprise, anger, joy, or some vehement passion.

Digitized by Google

EXAMPLE.—" O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and the knowledge of God! How unsearchable are his judgments, and his ways past finding out!"

8. Oxymoron (Ožvµµµov, a witty, foolish saying,) or seeming contradiction, is a figure which expresses an idea which at first appears absurd: as, "Affected simplicity; proud humility."

9. Periphrasis ($\Pi \epsilon \rho_i \phi \rho_i \sigma \sigma_i c_i$, Circumlocution,) is the using of a number of words to express one idea.

EXAMPLE.—"And now the distant villages smoke, and the shadows fall larger from the lofty mountains;" in brief language, it was sunset.

10. Epanaphora ($E\pi a\nu a\phi o\rho a$, Repetition,) or words frequently repeated; as, "Though fall n on evil days,

On evil days though fall'n, and evil tongues."

11. Anasthrophe ($Ava\sigma\tau\rhoo\phi\eta$, *Inversion*,) is a figure by which we alter the natural order of a sentence, placing that last which should be first; as, "Arms and the man I sing;" instead of, "I sing of arms and the man."

12. Hypotyposis ($\Upsilon \pi \sigma \tau i \pi \omega \sigma i \varsigma$, Representation,) or a description of things in such vivid colours, as to make them seem present to the imagination; as, "He stood erect on tiptoe, and fearless stretched his arms on high to the Gods."

13. Asyndeton $(\Delta \sigma \nu \nu \delta \epsilon \tau \sigma \nu$, no copulative,) is the omission of copulative conjunctions, and it expresses energy and urgent haste; as, "Bring flaming brands quickly, spread your sails, impel your oars." Read Gal. 5 c. 19 23 v.)

14. Polysyndeton ($\Pi o \lambda v \sigma v v \delta \epsilon \tau o v$, many copulative.) is a figure by which we join or dis-join a long train of nouns. For example read Romans, 8 c. 35 v. to the end.

15. Aposiopesis ($A \pi \sigma \sigma \iota \omega \pi \eta \sigma \iota c$, a ceasing to speak, or pause) is a sudden breaking off in the middle of a sentence; such a pause is often eloquent; as, "Whom I—— but first it is proper to compose the swelling waves."

16. Prolepsis ($\Pi\rhoo\lambda\eta\psi_{1c}$, Anticipation) is a figure by which a speaker anticipates objections that may be raised and answers them; as, "Perhaps some will say if the sun is not fire he cannot be the dispenser of heat; to this I answer," &c. Read 1 Cor. 15 c. 35 to 38 v.

17.—Epanorthosis ($E\pi a \nu o \rho \theta \omega \sigma \iota_c$, correct) or recall what we have spoken, for the purpose of substituting something stronger or more suitable; as, "I have an only son, a young man. Ah! what have I said? I have a son? Not so, I had."

EXAMPLE.—" What is it, then, can give men the heart and courage—but I recall that word, because it is not true courage, but foolhardiness, to outbrave the judgment of God?"

18. Apophasis ($A\pi o\phi a\sigma_{1C}$, omission) is a figure by which the speaker pretends to conceal and omit what he is really declaring and strongly enforcing; as, "I say nothing of your drunkenness and debauchery, I pass over your riotous conduct."

RHETORIC.

19. Synchoresis ($\Sigma \nu \nu \chi \omega \rho \eta \sigma \iota \varsigma$, concession) a yielding up something in order to gain some more weighty or important point; as, "I grant that he is a sacrilegious robber, and the chief in every kind of wickedness, yet he is a good commander."

20. Anacænosis (Avakouvwoug, communication).

21. Epiphonema ($E\pi\iota\phi\omega\nu\eta\rho a$, acclamation) is a sentence containing some lively remark; as, "Dwells such wrath in celestial minds."

22. Antonomasia ($A\nu\tau\sigma\nu\rho\mu\sigma\sigma\iotaa$, instead of a name) imparts proper names from country, kindred, or epethets; as, "The mighty *Stagirite* first left the shore." This means Aristotle, born at Stagira.

RHETORICAL TURNS OR REPETITION.

Beside Tropes or Figures, there are many Rhetorical Turns or Repetitions, which add greatly to elegance of diction and to the beauty of composition.

Repetitions, or fine turns, are such as gracefully repeat either the same words; or, the same sound in different words. The following are the principal:—

1. Anaphora ($A\nu a\phi o \rho a$, *Rehearsal*) or the commencing of several clauses with the same words.

EXAMPLE.—By foreign hands thy dying-eyes were clos'd; By foreign hands thy decent limbs compos'd; By foreign hands thy humble grave adorn'd; By strangers honour'd, and by strangers mourn'd.

2. Epistrophe ($E\pi i \sigma \tau \rho o \phi \eta$, a turning to) is a closing of sentences with the same word either in verse or prose.

EXAMPLE .- We do pray for mercy ;

And that same prayer doth teach us all to render The deeds of *mercy*.

3. Symploce $(\Sigma \nu \rho \pi \lambda 0 \kappa \eta, a \text{ complication})$ is the connexion both of Anaphora and Epistrophe.

EXAMPLE.—" Sing praises to God, sing praises; sing praises unto our king, sing praises."

4. Epizeuxis (' $E\pi\iota\zeta \epsilon \upsilon \xi \iota \varsigma$, a joining together) repeats immediately the same words; as, " In a dying, dying fall."

5. Anadiplosis ($A\nu a \delta i \pi \lambda \omega \sigma i \varsigma$, Reduplication) is when the second line begins with the same word as that which ended the first; as, "Love God, God is worthy to be loved."

6. Epanalepsis ($E\pi\alpha\nu\alpha\lambda\eta\psi_{1C}$, Repetition) is when the same word or phrase begins and ends a line **:____s**,

Reft of thy sons, amid thy foes forlorn, Mourn, widow'd queen, forgotten Sion, mourn 7. Epanodos ($E\pi a \nu o \delta o \varsigma$, Regression) is a figure which when it has arrived at the middle of a phrase, retraces its steps to the beginning; as, "Woe unto them that call evil good, and good evil."

8. Polyptoton ($\Pi o \lambda v \pi \tau \omega \tau o \nu$, many cases) is a figure which signifies a change of cases, number, &c.; as, "Vanity of vanitics, all is vanity."

9. Antanaclasis ($A \nu \tau a \nu a \kappa \lambda a \sigma v_c$, Reciprocation) is the using of a word to express more meanings than one; as, "Let the dead bury their dead." Here the former dead has a different meaning from the latter. When this figure is used as a species of wit it is called a Pun.

10. Paronomasia (Παρονομασια, Agnomination, likeness of words, is the using of words alike in sound, but different in sense; as, "Thou art Peter, and upon this Petra (rock) I will build my church."

Note.—In this figure, is included *Alliteration*, or the commencing of several words with the same letter; as, "And be by, blessing, beauty, blest."—Johnson.

11. Homoioteleuton ($O\mu olore\lambda \epsilon v \tau o \nu$, a like ending) is a figure which makes two members of a sentence rhyme with each other; \mathbf{s}^{ν} ,

Now under hanging mountains, Besides the falling fountains, Or where Hebrus wanders, Rolling in meanders.

Tædet quotidianarum harum formarum.

Terence.

۰.

COMPOSITION.

Composition means, the art of putting together words to express ideas in such a manner as to be clearly apprehensive to the minds of others.

In the following rules the pupil is gradually led, by the most gentle and easy gradations, from the writing of *names* to subjects, requiring "the full employment of highly cultivated faculties."

DIRECTIONS.---1. The Teacher must allow each pupil to exchange and correct his neighbour's bad spelling, &c.

2. The teacher should ask questions on disputed points, and explain those points to the disputants.

3. Two pupils sitting together must not be allowed to write one and the same sentence, this is no better than copying, and often the blind lead the blind; if this should not be the case, very little intellectual discrimination is employed.

RULE 1.—Write different names of twenty persons and the name of something they possess. Pay attention to the apostrophe and s; as, John's hat. Ann's bonnet.

RULE 2.—Write twenty phrases with an adjective in each, and draw a stroke under each adjective; as, A *large* desk. A *hot* fire.

RULE 3.—Write twelve nouns with *two* qualities or adjectives to each; as, A *cold*, *frosty* night. Draw a line under each word of quality.

RULE 4.—Write twelve nouns with *three* qualities to each name; as, A *little*, *ragged*, *old* beggar.

EXAMPLE.--l. Cow, day, dunce, cat, bees, box, fire. 2. Dog, fox, frog, stag, sheep, night, wolf, pen, slate.

RULE 5.—Write the *adjectives* that are the best adapted to the following nouns; as, A —— day; a —— tree. A —— room.

ILLUSTRATION .- A fine day. A tall tree. A clean room.

EXERCISES.-1. Corn, ducks, the sun, knife, eyes, him. 2. Races, horses, pig, fox, clock, fire, sky, milk.

RULE 6.—Write nouns having two qualities, the second to have a higher quality than the first; as, A long street, a longer street.

OBSERVE.—You must not have two different nouns with the same adjective; thus, A strong boy, a stronger man. A strong horse, a stronger lion.

EXEBCISES.—Pen, knife, book, boy, eye, sheep, city, stag, ship. For more examples, see the nouns page 16.

RULE 7.—Write sentences with the following adjectives, in *three* degrees, each adjective with a different noun; as, "John is *young*, Thomas *younger*, George the *youngest*."

EXERCISES.—New, great, late, high, fresh, heavy, strong. For more exercises on the adjective, see page 21, lesson 2nd.

RULE 8.—Mention the words which have a contrary signification to the following.

EXERCISES.—Light, dark, truth, full, hilly, day, silence, high, muddy, vulgar, joy, good, smooth, few, strength, hard, cool, storm, pure, merry, want, proud, etcrnity, poverty, absent, young, refuse, debase, remote, blessed, virtue, knowledge.

RULE 9.—Write the names of one, two, or more objects, and add qualities that can be said of them; as, The music is sweet. Glass and ice are smooth.

OBSERVE.—Be careful not to violate Rule 4, page 102.

EXERCISES.—Gold, paper, sun and moon, roses, silk and velvet, pens, lambs, school, hail and snow, lead, copper, iron, tin, marble, flannel, coal, college, gas, stars, theatre, grapes.

RULE 10,—Write in the singular the names of things and what they do; as, The bird *flies*. The bee *hums*. The horse *runs*.

RULE 11.—Write in the *plural* the names of things and what they do; as, Birds *fly*. Bees *hum*. Horses *run*.

EXERCISES on Rules 10 and 11.—Ducks, the sun, the nose, the pig, the cow. tigers, the wolves, the swallows, the cow, the ass, the feet, the sheep, linnets, cats, straw, the tongue.

RULE 12.—Write the names of objects neuter gender, and what they are said to do; as, Snow melts. Water flows. Silver shines.

EXERCISES.—Thunder, mist, hail, steel, gas, coals, glass, trees, diamonds, vapour, the wind, roses, rain, keys, &c.

200

Digitized by Google

RULE 13.—Write sentences of three or four words with different verbs *past tense*; as, "Jane wrote the letter. He opened the door."

RULE 14.—Write sentences of five or six words with different *past participles*; as, "Mary has written the letter. James has been there."

RULE 15.—Write sentences indicative, past perfect of all the persons of the verb To Be; as, "Many had been there often. Thou hadst been in the school."

RULE 16.—Write short sentences plural number, perfect tense of the verb To be; as, "Many books have been lost. Cities have been destroyed."

RULE 17.—Write sentences of six or eight words of the *future tense*; as, "Many will be there. She shall see the queen."

RULE 18.—Write six or eight words of the potential mood, perfect tense; as, "James may or can have it. Thou mayst or canst have it to-morrow."

RULE 19.—Write sentences of six or eight words, with one or two *personal* pronouns in each sentence; as, "Tell *them* that I shall see *them* very soon." O! how it freezes." (See p. 26, No. 14.)

RULE 20.—Write sentences with one or two *interro*gative pronouns; as, "Who lives here? Which is my hat?"

RULE 21.—Write sentences with *demonstrative* adjectives in them; as, "I saw *that* man and *those* boys stealing apples."

RULE 22.—Write sentences with *possessive* pronouns in each sentence; as, "*His* memory is strong. *Mine* is weak."

RULE 23.—Write sentences of six or eight words with one or two *relative* pronouns in each; as, "The boy *who* has lost his hat. The dog *that* bit the man is mine."

RULE 24.—Write sentences with adverbs of time and of manner in each sentence; as, "He wrote his copy badly to-day. I never saw him before." RULE 25.—Write sentences with adverbs of *place* and of *quantity*; as, "I should be *exceedingly* glad was he *here*. He talks *too much* when he is *there*."

RULE 26.—Write sentences with adverbs of affirmation and adverbs of doubt; as, " May I go? Yes. Will you go? Perhaps I shall."

RULE 27.—Write sentences with verbs in the present, past, and future tenses with an adverb annexed; as, "Jane writes correctly; Jane wrote correctly; Jane will write correctly again."

The following are a few inductive exercises, the teacher must supply more as he finds it necessary.

1. The bird flies. 2. The horse runs. 3. James reads. 4. They who seek wisdom find her. 5. The sun shines. 6. Religion brings consolation to the afflicted.

RULE 28.—Write sentences of six or eight words containg, 1. the name of the actor; 2. the quality of the actor; 3. the action; 4. the name of the object; 5. the quality of the object.

EXAMPLES.—The good boy is a pleasing object. That idle boy is a great dence.

RULE 29.—Write sentences of eight or ten words each, containing one or more prepositions.

EXAMPLE.—" For we brought nothing into this world, and it is certain we can carry nothing out."

RULE 30.—Join two or three nouns in one sentence; as, "Herschel, Saturn, and Jupiter are the remotest planets."

RULE 31.—Write sentences joining two or three verbs used with the same noun; as, "The tides *ebb and flow*. John draws, paints, sings, and dances."

RULE 32.—Write sentences containing one or two of these words :— Also, but, if, therefore, and, both, else, since, then, although.

EXAMPLE.—" Then came to him the disciples of John, saying, Why do we and the Pharisees fast oft, but thy disciples fast not."

RULE 33.—Write sentences containing one or two of these words:—Neither, nor, unless, until, yet, seeing, or, except, as, so, whether, either.

EXAMPLE. -- "Neither one nor the other, except, he or his brother come."

RULE 34.—Write sentences containing one or two interjections in each; as, "Oh ! what a sight. Alas ! I tremble !"

PART Two consists of easy exercises on *objects* which are to be described by the senses. This mode of procedure is calculated to excite and promote a habit of observation, and prepares the pupil for *original* composition.

RULE 35.—Place any object before you, examine it carefully by the sense of sight, then write what you have learned by sight.

EXAMPLE.—The School-Room.

This school-room is about ten yards long, eight yards broad, and three and a half yards high. Light is admitted through eight windows, each window contains thirty panes of glass, and each pane measures about eighteen inches long, and fourteen inches broad. The room is very commodious, and in which about one hundred scholars are taught.

EXERCISES.—1. Inkstand. 2. Desk. 3. Penknife. 4. Day. 5. Slate. 6. India Rubber. 7. Blotting paper. 8. Sponge. 9. Sealing wax.

RULE 36.—Taste the object; then write what you have learned by the sense of taste.

EXAMPLE.—A Cup of Tea.

The substance in this cup is an infusion of the leaves of a plant called tea. It has rather a bitter taste, but the sugar prevents it from being disagreeable. The flavour is aromatic and agreeable.

EXERCISES.—1. Coffee. 2. Bread. 3. Cheese. 4. Apples. 5. Potatoe. 6. Orange. 7. Vinegar. 8. Onion. 9. Cherries.

RULE 37.—Describe the size, shape, taste, colour, and *smell* of the following :—1. Orange. 2. A pencil. 3. A penny. 4. An apple. 5. A full-blown rose.

EXAMPLE.—An Orange.

This orange is about three inches diameter. It is globular, flat at the poles, like the earth; and its taste is fine and sweet. Its colour is of a deep yellow, its scent is delicious and fragrant, and its perfume fills the room.

RULE 38.—Tell the size, shape, taste, colour, smell, and *texture* of the following things :—1. A piece of sealing wax. 2. Paper. 3. Soap. 4. Silk. 5. Book. 6. An egg.

EXAMPLE .- A Piece of Sealing Wax.

This piece of sealing wax is about six inches long, half an inch broad, and a quarter of an inch in thickness. It has a disagreeable taste. It is of a bright red colour, and stamped with the name of the manufacturer. Its smell is rather pleasant to many individuals. The surface is smooth and shines like glass. RULE 39.—Tell the size, shape, colour, and sound of the following:—1. Hail. 2. Trees. 3. A harp. 4. A bell. 5. A watch. 6. Boiling kettle.

RULE 40.—Tell, from examination, the *parts, quality,* and *uses* of—1. A pin. 2. A candle. 3. A cup. 4. A penknife. 5. A chair. 6. A book. 7. A thimble. 8. A door. 9. A spoon.

RULE 41.—Tell the form, colour, use, habits, food of the—1. Cow. 2. Dog. 3. Cat. 4. Sheep. 5. Horse. 6. Ass. 7. Pig. 8. Lion. 9. Hen. 10. Rabbit. 11. Goat. 12. Ducks. 13. Geese.

RULE 42.—Tell from examination, by your senses in turn. Then write down the information which each organ has given you. Finish what you have learned from one sense, before you proceed to the next. Then make *experiments*, and write down the result.

Tell, I. Size. 2. Shape. 3. Colour. 4. Weight. 5. Heat. 6. Hardness. 7. Smell. 8. Taste. 9. Experiments.

EXENCISES.—1. Small piece of glass. 2. A sheet of paper. 3. Gold. 4. Salt. 5. Coal. 6. A piece of India rubber.

DIRECTIONS ON LETTER WRITING.

1. Before you commence writing a letter, acquire a clear and distinct conception of those things on which you are about to write.

2. Strictly adhere to the rules of grammar, and express the same sentiments that you would if conversing with the person to whom you are writing.

3. Begin the letter on the top, at the right hand; write the name of the place in which you live, the day of the month, and the year.

4. Then a little below, at the left hand, write Sir, or Madam, if the person whom you are addressing is a stranger; but Dear Sir, or Dear Madam, if a friend.

5. Reserve a space for the seal, that no part of the writing may be torn when the letter is opened. Fold, direct, and seal your letter neatly and properly.

1. Write to your father; inform him of your safe arrival at school; give an account of your journey; the state of the weather; express your regret at leaving all your friends; also, your determination, while at school, of pursuing your studies with diligence; give an account of the situation; add also duty, love, and respect, separately, to all branches of the family at home. 2. Write to an old school-fellow a description of your school; how situated; of the country round it; the size of the playground; the number of masters and scholars; describe the various walks round your school, their beauties; and your preference of particular ones.

3. Write to your mother, requesting she will send you a bible; mention the mode of conveyance; give an account of an accident that had nearly befallen yourself or one of your school fellows; desire also that she will enclose some books or clothes that you have omitted to bring.

4. Write to your uncle; inform him of the manner in which you employ your time at school; mention what are your hours of study, and what for recreation; describe the order of business for every day in the week, mention the study of which you are particularly fond, and how much you have been impressed with the necessity of close application.

5. Write to your grandmother, and in answer to her enquiries, give her an account of the way in which you pass your Sunday, describe the church or chapel, and the clergyman; and mention the text and the heads and objects of his sermon.

6. Write to your father; name the authors you read in Latin, Greek, or French, mention the number of your class, and your place in it, inform him of your progress in arithmetic; tell him the rule you find the greatest pleasure in working.

7. Write to your mother; thank her for the present you lately received from her; describe your progress in dancing, music, French, or Italian; give an account of the weather; express the pleasure you shall feel on meeting her and your friends at the holidays.

8. Write to your mother; inform her when the dancing master has fixed for his ball; mention the dances in which you are to take a part, request some new dress, shoes, gloves, &c., for the occasion; ask for her and your father's company, and other friends.

9. Write to your father, inform him when the vacation commences, and also when the school will be re-opened; mention the opinion that your master entertains of you, as to your diligence; and state the progress you have made in your learning during the half year; give an account of the breaking up that is about to take place, and express the pleasure you anticipate from it.

10. Write to your teacher on the importance of remembering your Creator. Mention some reason why you should worship God: because he created you, preserves you, gives you kind friends and relations, that he sees you wherever you are.

11. Write to your teacher on the folly of irregular attendance to school and duty; shew how important it is to be cautious of beginnings, prove that a truant is really a thief, by robbing his parents of the money which they expend in his education. 12. Write to your teacher; express the state of your feelings towards him for his constant attention to your best interests. Give some reasons why you should at all times be dutiful to your teachers. Mention some instances of boys who have been remarkable for their attachment to their teachers, and their application to their studies.

RULE.—Select from those words that are between parentheses, that word which is most suitable to express the idea intended.

EXERCISES .- " Logic, in the most extensive sense which the (name appellation) can with (justness propriety) be made to bear, may be (thought considered) as the (science principle,) and also the It (investigates examines) the (principles docart of reasoning. trines) on which argumentation is conducted, and (furnishes supplies) rules to (procure secure) the mind from (wrong error) in its deductions. Its most (judicious appropriate) office, however, is that of (making instituting) an analysis of the process of the mind in (arguing reasoning;) and in this (light point of view,) it is, as has been (stated said,) strictly completely) a science : while considered in (reference respect) to the practical rules above mentioned, it may be (denominated called) the art of reasoning. On the utility of logic, many writers have said (much a great deal) with which I cannot (coincide agree with,) and which has (tended been a means) to bring the study into unmerited disrepute. Βv (honouring respecting) logic as (furnishing supplying) the (sole whole) instrument for the (discovery inventing) of truth in all subjects, and as (instructing teaching) the use of the intellectual faculties (generally in general,) they raised (desires expectations) which could not be realized, and which naturally led to a reaction. The (complete whole) system, whose (unfounded ungrounded) (intentions pretensions) had been thus blazoned (abroad forth,) has come to be (generally commonly) regarded as utterly futile and empty; like (many several) of our most valuable medicines, which, when first (issued introduced) were proclaimed (each every one) as a panacea, infallible in the most (diametrically opposite) disorders; and which, consequently, in many instances, fell for a time into (complete total) disuse; (though, although,) after a long interval, they were (established instituted) in their just estimation, and employed conformably to their real properties."

CLASSIFICATION.

RULE 1.—Arrange into the same class all those objects that have a resemblance to each other, or that have any connexion. Select out of the 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th,

COMPOSITION.

14th, 15th, 16th, 19th, and 20th chapters of Proverbs all similar passages; that is, let such as relate to *similar* characters, sentiments, vices, virtues, prosperity, adversity, conditions of life, and such subjects, be reduced under their proper heads.

EXAMPLE of the 10th chapter. Read the chapter in the following order :---

Head first : read verses 2, 3, 11, 16, 21, 25, 27, 28, 30, and 32. Head second : 8, 10, 18, 21, and 23. Head third : 6, 7, 20, 21, and 22. Head fourth : 1 and 5. Head fifth : 4 and 26. General heads : 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, and 29.

RULE 2.—Transpose the following sentences, in the clearest and most forcible arrangement.

EXAMPLE.—" Under the care of the Almighty, our education is now going on, from a mortal to an immortal state." Better expressed thus:—" Our education is now going on, under the care of the Almighty, from a mortal to an immortal state."

EXERCISES.—Be careful to place as near together as possible, those subjects which are intimately connected in sense.

1. Grammar is necessary in the most important questions concerning religion, and is absolutely necessary in the search after philosophical truth and civil society. The true foundation upon which all literature, properly so called, ought to be raised, is a competent knowledge of our own language.

2. My fields you may set on fire, and my children give to the sword: myself you may drive forth a houseless, childless beggar, or load with fetters of slavery; but the hatred I feel to your oppression never can you conquer.

3. Though fickle be our climate, and deformed with dripping rains our seasons, yet our sullen skies and fields without a flower, I would not exchange for warmer France with all her vines.

4. On came the evening. There was over all the land deep silence; and though the sun in murky clouds went down, yet, that he would not rise at morning dawn in wonted brilliancy, none drea.ned. But not long were men kept in suspense. Before midnight, were heard over all the district, unusual noises. The ocean became agitated without any apparent cause; down fell the rain in torrents—a perfect deluge! The ground heaved; the houses and trees shook; up sprang a tremendous hurricane; quick darted the lightening. And with pale lips, men whispered, "An earthquake! an earthquake!" The earthquake it was: and that night the city of Peruvians ceased to be!

RULE 3.—Express the same sentiment in various ways; this will enable the pupil to deliver his sentiments with clearness and propriety.

EXAMPLE.—A wolf let into the sheepfold, will devour the sheep. A wolf will devour the sheep, when let into the sheepfold. Let a wolf into the sheepfold, and it will devour the sheep. **EXERCISES.**—1. For all that you think, and speak, and do, you must at the last day account. 2. A boy who is attentive to his studies is sure to excel. 3. Self-denial and devotedness to God is the soul of real religion. 4. The sacrifices that virtue makes will not only be rewarded hereafter, but also recompensed even here. 5. Without love to God, the enjoyment of him is unattainable.

DESCRIPTIVE SUBJECTS.

RULE 1. Describe the following *persons*; detail first, their general appearance; second, character; third, manner; fourth, all other properties.

EXERCISES.—1. Give a description of your father. 2. Of your mother. 3. Of your teacher. 4. Of the queen. 5. Of the Londoners. 6. Of the ancient Britons. 7. Of the character and disposition of some particular friend.

RULE 2.—Give a description of the following *places*: mention first, the extent; second climate; third, productions; fourth, curiosities; and fifth, other circumstances connected with them.

EXERCISES.—1. Of the scenery of your own home. 2. Of the extent, soil, and productions of any district. 3. Of the manufactory, commerce, and climate of Sheffield. 4. Of Leeds. 5. Of Hull.

RULE 3.—Describe *things*: detail first, the nature; second, properties; third, causes; fourth, consequences; and fifth, other circumstances connected with them.

EXEERCISES.—1. Any remarkable edifice. 2. The sun-rise and set. 3. The revolution of the year. 4. Of the starry heavens. 5. Of a thunder storm. 6. Of a morning or an evening in the country.

Before attempting any of the above examples, allow the pupil to read some book treating on those particular classes of *persons*, *places*, and *things*; then let him write what he can from memory, and, after, let a comparison be made between his own composition and the original.

THEMES.

The import of the word *Theme*, is a "subject on which one speaks or writes; the original word whence others are derived."

SIMPLE THEMES.

A Simple Theme is generally divided into

1. The *definition*, by which we explain the nature or meaning of the subject.

2. The *cause*, by which we shew the origin of the subject; that is, from what it proceeds.

3. Antiquity or novelty, under which we shew what it was in the ancient, and what it is in modern times.

4. Universality or locality, under which we shew whether the subject relates to the whole world, or only to a particular part of it.

5. Effects, by which we shew whether the influence of the subject has been injurious or beneficial.

6. The conclusion, in which we make such observations as may be suggested by a careful investigation of the whole subject.

EXAMPLE OF A SIMPLE THEME (from Walker.)

DEFINITION.—Education may be properly defined to be the culture of the human mind.

CAUSE.—As every parent knows how much the happiness of his child depends upon its proper education, it is no wonder that he bestows so much care and attention upon this important subject.

ANTIQUITY.—The Greeks and Romans, among whom were produced such prodigies of excellence in every kind of writing, and in every department of civil and military life, were remarkably attentive to the education of their children; so much so, that they began their education almost at their birth.

NOVELTY.—Various are the modes of education which have been adopted among the moderns; but most, if not all of them, seem to be greatly inferior to the strict discipline and methodical instruction of the ancients.

UNIVERSALITY.—All nations pay attention to this essential duty of parents; even the savage takes care to instruct his child in hunting, fishing, and those branches of knowledge which are necessary for him.

LOCALITY.—But in no part of the world has education been brought to such .perfection as in civilized countries; here, its importance is properly estimated; and in no part of science has the human mind been more exerted than in the improvement of education. Men of the greatest attainments have not thought it unworthy of their attention.

ADVANTAGES.—Nothing can shew the advantages of a good education in a stronger light, than a contrast with the disadvantages of a bad one. A person of good education has his mind and body so cultivated and improved, that his natural defects are removed, and the beauties of both placed in so fine a light, that they strike with double force. But he who has had the misfortune of a bad education, has all his natural imperfections remaining, with the addition of artificial ones, arising from bad habits, or from persuing improper studies. The former engages the attention of those with whom he converses, by the good sense he shews on every subject, and the agreeable manner in which he conveys it. The other disgusts every company into which he enters, either by his total silence and stupidity, or by the ignorance and impertinence of his observations. The one raises himself to the notice of his superiors, and advances himself to a higher rank in life: the other is obliged to act an inferior part among his equals in fortune, and is sometimes forced to conceal his ignorance by associating with the lowest orders of mankind.

OBSERVE.—The first thing the pupil must do in *theme* writing, is to know the exact meaning of the term which is the subject of the theme. He must ask the questions—What is <u>exact</u>? 2. What is its *cause*? 3. What is its *novelty* and *antiquity*? 4. What is its *extent*? 5. What is its *advantages*? Answers to these questions will supply him with an idea of arrangement.

RULE 1.—In *explaining* a term avoid using the same word as that which stands for the thing to be explained.

Most of our Lexicographers have violated this rule.

VIOLATIONS.—Abdication is the act of abdicating. Resumption the act of resuming. Retortion the act of retorting.

The above will be sufficient to shew the pupil what I mean. They are taken from "Walker's Dictionary," from which hundreds may be selected.

RULE 2.—Avoid verbiage in argument. (See Precision.)

VIOLATIONS.--1. Lose this, and all is lost and forfeited. 2. That is the wooful and solemn hour, when deceit and hypocrisy drop their mask, and when borrowed virtues vanish and disappear. 3. When the world was in a state of comparative barbarism, the art of printing, like the sun, emerged from the darkened horizon of our world, and pursued its triumphant course through the heavens: at its approach, ignorance and barbarism fled away; its benignant and vivifying influence dispelled the clouds of ignorance which enveloped our sublunary world; its genial rays enlivened the universe, whilst its beams brought to light the stores of knowledge.

RULE 3.—Give a definition, state the cause, shew the antiquity, describe the advantages and disadvantages of the following.

 Writing. 2. History. 3. Printing. 4. Music. 5. War.
 6. Peace. 7. Astronomy. 8. Grammar. 9. Commerce. 10. Manufactures. 11. Christianity. 12. Redemption. 13. Agriculture. 14. Society.

Write on the miseries of war. On eternity. On slavery. On freedom. On your youthful days. On the orphan. On home. On the power of God. On confidence in God. Make a contrast between vice and virtue. Why should we be industrious? Shew the ill consequences of irregular attendance at school. State the nature, the cause, and effects of envy.

Digitized by Google

COMPLEX THEMES.

Complex Themes express a judgment which admits of

proof and illustration. These generally divided into-1. The proposition, in which we define the subject of the theme, or the extent of the affirmation or negation.

2. The reason, containing the arguments which we employ to prove the truth of them.

3. The confirmation of the proposition by suitable arguments.

4. The simile is something in nature or art similar to what is affirmed in our theme, and introduced for the purpose of illustrating the truth.

5. The example is an instance drawn from history or experience, to corroborate what has been advanced.

6. The testimony or quotation consists of some passage from good authors to shew that others entertain the same opinion of the subject.

7. In the conclusion we sum up the whole, and demonstrate the practical use of the theme, by concluding with some appropriate observations.

AN EXAMPLE OF A COMPLEX THEME (from R. Hiley)

The importance of checking the first approach of vice.

PROPOSITION .- Nothing is more important in the moral conduct of life, than to watch the beginnings of evil and to check them as soon as possible.

REASON .- Evil propensities are easily conquered at first, and require only a small share of resolution to resist them; but if we suffer them to become habitual, by flattering ourselves that we can resist them when we please, we shall, in all probability, fall a sacrifice to them.

CONFIRMATION .- For, as it is the nature of evil habits to gather strength, and grow stronger every day, so the power of resisting them becomes proportionably weaker, till at last we are completely enslaved by them.

SIMILE .--- Nothing is more inculored by judicious physicians than the necessity of attending to diseases in their infancy, so nothing is more pressed upon us by moralists, than the necessity of attending to the beginnings of vice, which may be justly styled the diseases of the mind.

EXAMPLE.—The danger of not correcting the beginnings of evil is finely exemplified in the character of Macbeth, who, though a man of great virtue and honour, was, by attending to fortunetellers, and yielding to the ambitious counsels of his wife, transferred by degrees into a murderer of his king, and a tyrant to his subjects.

TESTIMONY.—One of the most common observations of the ancient moralists was, that no man became bad all at once, and that the greatest offences against virtue have arisen from the smallest beginnings of vice.

CONCLUSION.—How justly, therefore, may we conclude, that we cannot be too much on our guard against the first temptations to evil; as every vicious inclination contains an egg, which by being cherished, will be hatched into a serpent.

THE PROPOSITION.

RULE.—The meaning of the subject must be accurately fixed, and the proposition stated in the most intelligible manner.

In general, the proposition should be placed before the argument, but when it is not familiar to the audience, then let the argument precede.

ARGUMENT.

RULE 1.—First, have a clear and accurate conception of the subject in all its bearings. Then, consider what are the most suitable arguments to prove the proposition in question.

RULE 2.—Argument must never be allowed for a proof of the question, which is in fact the question itself.

EXAMPLE.—" The human soul extends through all the parts of the body, *because it resides in every member.*" The latter part of this sentence is no proof of the former, but merely the same thing in other words.

VIOLATIONS.--1. Prudence conduces to safety, because they who are prudent can never be injured. 2. He that is extravagant will quickly become poor, because extravagance begets poverty.

RULE 3.—Never wander from the proposition, into reflections that have no intimate connexion with the real subject.

VIOLATIONS.—Necessity is the mother of invention; the truth of this may be seen in binds, which, before their young ones are fledged carefully provide them with food, but the moment they can fly, turn them out to provide for themselves.

RULE 4.—Never fall *short of* the proposition, consider and explain it in every point of view.

EXAMPLE.—Charity, must not be confined to alms giving alone, this is *fulling short* of the proposition. Charity must be considered in its proper acceptation, namely, *universal love*.

RULE 5.—Never discourse wide of the proposition, avoid employing arguments which can be applied to other subjects as well as to that on which you are arguing. Were I to be speaking on *lying*, if I use arguments equally applicable to vice in general, I should argue wide of the proposition.

RULE 6.—Never use arguments that prove too little; but let them be such as to warrant the conclusion.

Were I to say, "That man will suffer some great temporal punishment, because he is cruel and oppressive;" my argument would prove too little, for great tyrants have enjoyed great affluance, and as much goodfortune and happiness, as this world is capable of affording.

RULE 7.—Avoid making those terms general which will apply with truth only in particular cases.

Were I to say, "Philosophy is adverse to Christianity, because Voltaire, Diderot, and several other philosphers, were infidels," I should be said to *prove nothing to the purpose*. It is not true that *all* philosophers are infidels, for philosopers are generally the best Christians.

RULE 8.—Let your arguments be in such order, that those which precede shall throw a light on those which follow, and thus form such a connexion, that the agreement or disagreement expressed in the proposition shall be made manifest.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. When *objections* are made to your conclusions, mind and state them fully.

2. In the *refutation*, give an answer to some specific arguments advanced in favour of the opposite conclusion, either by denying one of the premises, or by objecting to the conclusiveness of the reasoning.

3. For directions on simile, see page 195.

4. The whole theme may sometimes be concluded with a recapitulation of the principal arguments that have been advanced.

EXERCISES.—1. Write on the importality of the soul. 2. On nature always beautiful. 3. On the attributes of the Almighty. 4. On the Divinity of Christ. 5. On the powers of the Deity always active. 6. Instruction and delight from the works of God.

DIVISIONS OF A DISCOURSE.

Rhetorical disposition or arrangement, is placing of the arguments, or the parts of a discourse, oration, or composition, in the most suitable and impressive order. An Oration consists of six parts: 1. The exordium. 2. Narration or explication. 3. The state and division of the points to be established. 4. The confirmation of them by arguments. 5. The refutation. 6. The peroration or conclusion.

This method of divisions is not invariable, in every public discourse. Sometimes there are only *five* divisions, and all discourses are not divided in the order in which I have here placed them.

1. In the *exordium* or *introduction* of a discourse, the writer or speaker gives some intimation of his subject, and solicits favour and attention, in order that they may forward and aid the purpose which he has in view.

In the *coordium*, the speaker ought to attempt to conciliate the good will of his readers or hearers, by representing the subject as being closely connected with their interest; to rouse their at tention by giving some hints of its importance, dignity, or novelty; and to render them open to persuasion, by endeavouring to remove prejudices or preposessions they may have entertained against **H**.

In this part the speaker must be perspicious and modest; and whatever is trivial, tedious, and prolix must be avoided. He must be calm and dispassionate, so that the emotions of the persons addressed may rise as the discourse advances.

The introduction must be proportioned to what is to follow. In order to do this, it is well to meditate upon the substance of the discourse.

2. The *narration* or *explication* of the subject, is a brief recital of the facts connected with the case.

This part ought to be clear, distinct, complete, and succinct that it may be understood: probable and consistent, that it may be believed. A fact or single circumstance, omitted or left in obscurity, may destroy the effect of all the reasoning and arguments afterwards employed.

3. In the *proposition* is given the true state of the whole discourse, specifying the points maintained, and those in which the speaker differs from his adversarie's.

In this the several heads of which we treat should be distinctly and concisely enumerated; which is commonly done in pulpit orations. It is not recommondable for a speaker to conceal his method of dividing a subject.

Take care, that the several parts into which the subject is divided be really distinct from one another; that you follow the order of nature, beginning with the simplest points that the several members include all that the subject will admit; that each member be as concise as is consistent with the rules of perspicuity; that you avoid using too many subdivisions; these are generally unnecessary and they fatigue the memory. 4. The confirmation or argumentative part of a discourse, assembles all the proofs and arguments which can be adduced.

Place your arguments in that order which seems the best calculated to give them the greatest effect. Avoid blending arguments confusedly together; commence with the weakest and proceed as in the figure of Climax. Do not extend your arguments; a few brief and well-chosen, will carry a greater weight of conviction than a great number of weak, extended arguments can possibly do.

5. In the *refutation* of objections, the speaker endeavours to refute anything which appears to oppose his former arguments, or by shewing those of his opponent's to be absurd, false, triffing, irrelevant, or inconsistent.

Care must be taken that no important argument be passed with a slight notice, as it will not be considered to arise from inattention, but from inability to reply to it.

This part of the discourse generally admits an appeal to the passions, called the pathetic part; but this must en: rely depend on the nature of the subject. The exact time when to introduce the pathetic must be left to good sense. The following directions must be attended to.

1. Bring over the understanding and judgment of the hearers on your side, before you attempt to interest the passions.

2. Never set apart a head of a discourse in *form* for raising any passions; never suffer your hearers to perceive your intention of moving their affections, as this is almost always sure to defeat your object.

3. You must *yourself feel* that passion or emotion which you attempt to awaken in others. This adds a pathos to your words, your looks, your gestures, which exerts apower almost irresistible over your hearers.

4. Attend to the language of the passions; it must be strong and energetic, but not ornamental and flowery. Observe in what manner a person expresses himself who is under the influence of a real and strong passion, and we shall find his language unaffected and simple.

5. Beware of all digressions and wanderings from the subject. Let nothing interrupt or turn aside the natural course of the passion, when it begins to rise and swell.

6. Never attempt to prolong the pathetic too much. Warm emotions are too violent to be lasting. Know where to stop: stop at the proper point; for if you attempt to carry your hearers farther in passion than they will follow you, this destroys your whole design, and exposes yourself to ridicule and contempt.

6. In the *peroration* or *conclusion*, the speaker endeavours to enforce what has preceded, and apply it to the feelings of the hearers. Sometimes the pathetic part of the discourse serves for the peroration; but when the discourse has been argumentative, the peroration should be recapitulated, or sum up the strongest of those arguments, that a strong impression of the truth of them may be left on the mind of the hearers.

In all discourses, it is essentially necessary to know the precise time for concluding, neither ending abruptly, nor disappointing the expectation of the hearers when they look for the close. If you continue to hover round the conclusion, your hearers will become tired of you, and loose every favourable impression they may before have received. Endeavour to conclude with dignity and epirit, that you may dismiss your hearers will warm minds, and enthusiastic impressions of the subject.

EXAMPLE OF AN ORATION DIVIDED INTO PARTS.

(From 26th chapter of Acts; translated from the Latin Vulgate, by W. J. Simmonite.)

Exordium.

King Agrippa, I think myself happy that I am permitted to defend myself this day before thee, touching all the things of which I am accused by the Jews: above all *because I know* that thou art abounding in knowledge of all customs and questions which are among the Jews: therefore, I beseech thee, to hear me with patience.

NARRATION.

My manner of life from the commencement of my youth, which was at first among my own nation in Jerusalem, know all the Jews, which knew me from the beginning (if they would bear testimony) that, after the strictest sect of our religion I lived a Pharisee. And now I stand and am judged, for the hope of the promise made by God unto our fathers: unto the accomplishment of which *promise* our twelve tribes, who instantly serving *God* night and day, hope to come: for this hope's sake king Agrippa, I am accused by the Jews.

PROPOSITION.

Why should it be thought a thing incredible with you, that God should raise the dead ?

CONFIRMATION.

I verily thought with myself, that I ought to do many things contrary to Jesus of Nazareth. Which things I also did in Jerusalem: and many of the saints did I shut up in prison, having received authority from the chief priests; and when they were put to death, I gave my voice against them. And I punished them often in every synagogue, and compelled *them* to blaspheme; and being exceedingly mad against them, I persecuted them even unto strange cities. Whereupon as I went to Damascus with authority and commission from the chief priest, at mid-day, O king! I saw in the way a light from heaven, above the brightness of the sun, shining round about me, and them that journeyed with me. And when we were all fallen to the earth, I heard a voice speaking unto me, and saying, in the Hebrew tongue, Saul, Saul, why persecutest thou me? it is hard for thee to kick against the goard. And I said, Who art thou Lord? And he said, I am Jesus, whom thou persecutest. But rise, and stand upon thy feet; for I have appeared unto thee for this purpose, to make thee a minister and a witness both of these things which thou hast seen, and of those things in which I will appear unto thee; delivering thee from the people, and from the Gentiles, unto whom I now send thee, to open their eyes, and to turn them from darkness to light, and from the power of Satan unto God, that they may receive forgiveness of sins, and inheritance among them who are sanctified through that faith which is in me. Whereupon, O King Agrippa, I was not disobedient to the heavenly vision; but shewed, first unto them of Damascus, and afterwards to those in Jerusalem, and through all the country of Judea, and then to the Gentiles, that they should repent of their sins, and turn to God, performing deeds worthy of that repentance which they profess.

REFUTATION.

For these causes, the Jews caught me in the temple, and went about to kill me with their own hands Having therefore obtained help of God, I continue unto this day, witnessing both to small and to great; saying none other things than those which the prophets and Moses have declared should be: that Christ should suffer, and that he should be the first that should rise from the dead, and should shew light unto the people, and to the Gentiles.

PERORATION.

I am not mad, most noble Festus; but speak forth the words of truth and soberness. For the king knoweth of these things, before whom also I freely speak; for I am persuaded that none of these things are hidden from him; for this thing was not done in a corner—King Agrippa, believest thou the prophets? I know that thou believest.—I would to God that not only thou, but also all that hear me this day, were both almost, and altogether such as I am, except these bonds.

In the oration of the learned and eloquent Apostle is found strict adherence to the preceding rules and directions.

1. In the Exordium he politely solicits favour from the king. "I think myself happy." As if he had said, "This is a peculiar fortunate circumstance in my favour, that I am called upon to make my defence before so intelligent a judge, so well acquainted with the laws and customs of our country."

2. In the Narration, he has briefly and perspicuously stated the facts connected with his life.

3. The *Proposition* is a pointed and forcible appeal to the profession of Agrippa.

4. His Arguments are clear, strong, and pathetic.

5. His Refutation is in accordance with rule.

6. His Conclusion is affecting; attended with both spirit and dignity. While his heart glowed with affection for his accusers, he expressed his wish that they might enjoy all his blessings, if possible, without being obliged to bear any cross on the account. His gesture, no doubt, would accord with the warmth of his pas-When he uttered "except these bonds," he would doubtless sion. hold up his chains, which were now detached from the arms of the soldier, the sight of which, together with his energetic expression, would have a powerful impression on the minds of his audience. Indeed, it appears they could bear the scene no longer; the king was overwhelmed, and rose up instantly, and so did the rest of the council, and went immediately aside; and after a very short conference among themselves, they unanimously pronounced him innocent; and his last word, $\delta\epsilon\sigma\mu\omega\nu$, BONDS ! so deeply impressed their hearts, that they concluded their judgment with that identical word, δεσμων, BONDS! "This man hath done nothing worthy of death or of BONDS."

It would be well if every pulpit orator would follow this mode of persuasive and argumentative arrangement.

METHOD IN LOGIC.

As the grand object of composition is to state or ascertain the truth, it is indispensibly necessary that the pupil become acquainted with the principal terms and distinctions which belong to the argumentative part of Logic.

I shall here introduce a few extracts from my "Manuscript of Logic," of some of the useful terms used in discourses.

"All arguments are termed either metaphysical, physical, political, moral, mechanical, or theological, according to the science or subject from which they are drawn."

218

1. "The argumentum ad judicum, is an address to the reason of man."

Arguments from reason are either artificial or inartificial. Artificial arguments are those invented by the ingenuity of the orator. Inartificial arguments are such as do not arise immediately from the subject, but from things of a different nature.

2. "The argumentum ad fidem, is an appeal to our faith."

3. "The argumentum ad hominem, is an address to the professed principles of the adversary."

4. "The argumentum ad populum, is an appeal to the people."

5. "The argumentum ad passionæs, is an address to our passions."

"A speaker who wishes to affect the passions, should understand the frame of the human mind, that he may be enabled to move those secret springs of all our actions."

"The passion, anger, is excited by the speaker placing the supposed offence in the strongest point of view, and describing it in the liveliest colours imaginable; he carefully collects and expatiates upon every circumstance which contributes to the aggravation of the crime; he is indignant against the spiritless tranquility which can patiently endure such insults, and attributes a reluctance to take revenge to mean cowardly motives."

"The speaker endeavours to excite horror by assembling together every circumstance which is calculated to alarm, and by presenting to the imagination dangers in their most terrific form. He excites compassion by expatiating on the wretched state of the sufferer, his fears, his apprehensions, his penitence. He paliates his faults, extols his good qualities, and thus collects, in one point of view all his claims on commiseration."

6. "The argumentum ex concesso, proves a proposition on which it was agreed to rest the original question."

7. "Argumentum a fortiori, proves a less probable supposition upon which it depends, and, consequently, the original proposition is true, because it is more probable."

DEFINITION.

1. "Definition, is such a description of things as exactly describes the thing, and only that thing."

"There are two kinds of definitions; the definition of words, and the definition of things."

2. "Definition of a word, is an explanation in what sense the word is used, or what idea or object we mean by it;" as, "Light is that medium by which we see the colour and shape of things." 3. "Definition of a thing, is the explanation of its general nature, and those specific properties which distinguish it from every other thing."

CERTAINTY OR TRUTH.

1. " Certainty or truth, is of several kinds according to the sources whence it is derived."

2. "A mathematical certainty, which is of the highest kind and admits demonstration."

3 "A moral certainty, which is derived from testimony and the obligation of the laws."

4. "A physical certainty, is derived from the evidence of the senses and of the course of nature."

5. "A theological certainty, is founded on the language and doctrines of the Holy Scriptures."

EVIDENCE.

1. "Evidence is of different kinds; as, the evidence of sense, founded on the perceptions of our senses."

2. "The *intuitive evidence*, is founded on the self-evident axioms, (or truths on which others are founded) as, that the whole is greater than a part, or, every effect is produced by some cause."

3. "The evidence of reasoning arises when one truth is inferred or drawn from others by natural and just methods of agreement."

4. "The evidence of faith deduced from the testimony of others."

5. "A demonstration a priori, is when the effect is proved by referring to the cause."

6. "A demonstration a posteriori, infers the cause from its necessary effect."

SOPHISMS.

1. "Sophisms are fallacious arguments by which falshood is made to assume the appearance of truth."

2. "Sophistry is reasoning founded on false premises, or, on an ambiguity of terms, or on some erroneous mode of stating the argument."

3. "A sophism of composition, is when we infer that anything in an aggregate or compound sense, which is only true in a divided sense."

4. "A sophism of division, is when we infer anything in a divided sense which is only true in a compounded sense."

5. "A sophism of equivocation, is when we use words of an ambigious or double sense, and draw inferences in one sense, of which the proposition is capable only in the other."

6. "A Petitio principii, or begging the question, is when the very thing is taken for granted, or a supposed proof, by stating the question in other words."

7. "The Reductio ad absurdum, proves the conclusion, by demonstrating the absurdity of the contradictory proposition."

8. "The Fallacia accidentis, is arguing from what is merely accidental to that which is essential."

9. "The ignorantic elenci, or a mistake of the question, is when one thing is proved instead of another."

10. "A false induction, is when general deductions are made from a limited number of experiments or facts."

11. "Arguing in a circle, is when the premises are proved by the conclusion, and the conclusion by the premises."

12. "A dicto secundum quid, ad dictum simpliciter, is when we argue from that which is true in particular circumstances to prove that the same thing is true absolutely, and in all circumstances."

CAUSE OF ERROR.

Error in arguing and judging generally arises from some of the following causes.

 From want of diligence also from not having patience or industry to investigate a subject, and in consequence forms a hasty or rash judgment.

2. From the judging of things by their external appearances.

3. From not properly separating the good and bad qualities that pervade the same thing, and basing our decision on that which happens to make the first impression.

4. From the viewing of things relative to our own situation in life, or to the manner in which they affect us.

5. From associating an idea, with something disagreeable, and foreign to it or the contrary; and by prejudices formed in our infancy, the foundation of which we have taken no pains to investigate.

6. From the influences of custom which reconciles us to innumerable errors, and none are more difficult against which to guard ourselves than those which arise from the practices and habits of the society in which we were educated.

7. From our giving credit to the assertions or misrepresentations of others, with whose object, motives, ignorance, or prejudices, we are unacquainted.

A KEY

TO THE PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES OF SYNTAX.

OBSERVE.—The small figures at the end of the corrections, refer to the number of the Rule of Syntax by which those sentences are corrected, which Rule must be repeated at each correction. The figures at the beginning of a sentence refer to the number of the sentence on each respective lesson. Where you meet with *three* figures on the top of the line, as in No. 37, thus 31_{-2} the last refer to the division of the rule.

LESSON ONE.

SENTENCE.—1 He and I.¹ 2 Written.⁵¹ 3 Prettily.²⁵ 4 Me.⁴ 5 Me.³⁹ 6 Whom.³⁹ 7 This.¹⁹ 8 I.³⁸ 9 A superior.²³ 10 Extremely.²⁵ 11 He fought.²⁷ 12 He would go.²⁸ 13 In London.¹⁴ 14 Different from.⁴ 15 Broken.⁵¹ 16 Council were.¹³ 17 Will lie. 18 Both were.¹⁰ 19 One is.⁹ 20 Was she.¹ 21 Is sold.⁹ 22 Rea.⁴s.⁹ 23 Have applied.⁵ 24 You are¹⁷ and I am well.¹¹ 25 Dares.⁴ 26 Style is.⁹ 27 Those.¹⁵ 28 The wisest and the best.⁵³ 29 Meanly.⁵⁵ 30 Which.²⁴ 31 Needs.⁴ 32 Constitute.⁵ 33 World was.¹⁵ 31 An absolute.³³ 35 Both were.¹⁹ 36 Is exempt ⁴ this account;¹⁵ to which;⁴³ its inhabitants.⁴ 37 Master whom.³¹—² 38 Dares have⁹ his own.⁹ 39 Is she.¹ 40 Despise nor;⁴⁷ thou dost.⁴

LESSON TWO.

SENTENCE—1 Has his,⁹ sailors were.¹⁰ 2 Snuffers are.⁴ 3 Derive their.⁵ 4 Is set.⁴ 5 Checks.⁴ 6 Shalt.⁴ 7 Of them.⁵ 8 Serene.²² 9 Agreeably.²⁵ 10 Whom.³⁹ 11 Render their.⁶ 12 Derive their.⁵ 13. Those who.³⁴ 14 Is equally.⁴ 14 That is.⁴ 15 This pair.¹⁵ 16 Here is.⁴ 17 This is.¹³ 18 More unhappy.²² 18 Than that.¹⁴ 19 Who have.⁴ 20 Tends to.⁹

LESSON THREE.

LESSON FOUR.

SENTENCE-1 Those.¹⁵ 2 Nothing has;⁴ learning than.²⁹ 3 Is spoken.⁵¹ 4 Tree that.³⁴-3 5 More than.²¹ 6 Remarkably.²⁵ 9 Boys who.³⁴-1 10 James didst.⁴ 11 People's;²⁹ statesman's.³⁰ 12 Than I.² 13 The abuses.⁴⁹ 14 Were taken.⁴ 15 Me with whom. 16 After whom.⁴³ 17 Was I;¹ not he.¹ 18 Read it ⁹ 19 Fire than.⁴¹ 20 Extremely;²⁵ nearly.²⁵ 21 The sake of Herodias.³³—¹ 22 Sake of righteousness.³³—1</sup> 23 Conscience's.³³ 24 Wife's feet.³³ 25 Squire's orders.²⁹ 26 Horses is.⁴ 27. Thou wast.⁵⁵ 28 Shaken,⁵¹ 29 Duty to do.⁵⁶ 30 Written.⁵¹ 31 Seriously hurt.²⁵ 32 Has liberally.²⁵ 33 In what.⁴³ 34 Resolved on⁴⁵ 35 Taste for.⁴⁵ 36 In London.⁴⁴ 37 You and I.¹ 38 Going to.⁴⁴ 39 Resides in.⁴⁴ 40 Days and weeks.⁵⁶ 41 They who ³⁴ 42 Most extensive.²³ 43 I.³³ 44 To whom.⁴³ 45 Sent to them.⁴⁰

LESSON FIVE.

SENTENCE—1 Bartholomew's.²⁹ 2 Andrew's.²⁹ 3. Mary's.²⁹ 4 Known by.⁴⁵ 5 A company large.²⁷—² 6 Deficient only.²⁷—1 7 To whom.⁴³ 8 Languages is.⁴ 9 Duke's wife.²⁹ 10 The Misses.²⁹—3 11 This means.²⁰ 12 Improperly.²⁷ 13 Observe those.¹⁵ 14 Who.³⁴—1 15 Free.²⁵ 16 That which I.³⁵ 17 Vie with.⁴⁵ 18 As to deserve.⁴² 19 Wish he hal.⁵⁷ 20 Much slower.²² 21 Have expected.⁵⁵ 22 Is wanted.⁵² 23 It rain.⁵⁵ 24 Me will I.¹⁸ 25 Independently.²⁷ 26 Certainly have.²⁷ 27 Always agreeable.³⁷ 28 Her not only employed.³⁷—1 but also.⁴⁷ 29 In Liverpool.⁴⁴ 30 Prejudice against.⁴⁵ 31 Could have;³⁶ did not.⁵⁶ 32 He spoke.⁵⁶ 33 Unfurnished with.⁴⁵ 34 Sense as.⁴⁵ 35 Who do.³⁴—1 36 In London.⁴⁴ 37. Neitner lustre.⁴⁷ 38 Usual.²⁵ 39 They.¹ 40 Happen;⁴ apparent;²⁷ being who.³⁴—1</sup> 42 Make thirteen.⁵

LESSON SIX.

SENTENCE—1 Is the.⁴ 2 Houses as.⁴⁷ 3 Thou only thou.¹ 4 There are.⁴ 5 Adorns.⁶ 6 Make.⁵ 7 To your.⁸ 8 Neither John is nor I am.¹¹ 9 Council is.¹³ 10 Emoluments were.¹⁰ 11 Society is.⁴ 12 Life have.¹⁰ 13 Men frequently.²⁷ 14 Are you going.⁵⁸ 15 Accused of.⁴⁵ 16 Are more.⁵ 17 He intends,¹¹ I intend.¹¹ 18 Wisdom is.⁴ 19 Forsakes ¹³ 20 An education.²⁰ 21 And an.⁵⁰ 22 For the sake of righteousness.³¹ ⁻¹ 23 Earth's moving.⁵⁰ 24 Page.⁹ 26 Whom should.³⁰ 27 Former have.⁴ 28 Softens,⁴ humanizes,⁴ consist.⁵ 29 Him and them.³³ 30 Been he.¹ 31 He does.⁵³ 32 He speaks.⁵⁵ 33 In London,⁴⁴ and saw the king.⁵⁶ 34 He ran.⁵² 35 To meet us.⁵⁶ 36 The suffering of ills.⁴⁹ 37 By the reading.⁴⁹ 38 Misunderstanding the.⁵⁰

LESSON SEVEN.

SENTENCE—1 Lies;⁹ is not;⁹ prevent it.⁹ 2 People was; through it.¹³ 3 Produces;⁹ occasion.⁵ 4 Reconciled to.⁴⁵ 5 That some.³¹—³ 6 Either myself;⁴⁰ 7 Are continually;⁵⁵ manners in;⁵⁶ opinions in.⁵⁸ 8 Than you.²¹ 9 Hast fixed.⁴ 10 Whence has⁴ arisen.⁵¹ 11 Which is.⁵⁴—1 12 To ascertain.⁵⁵ 13 Heart is.⁴ 15 Least was.⁹ 16 Give.¹⁰ 17 Not a meteor.⁵³ 18 For the purpose;⁵³ of classification.⁵³ 20 In the heart.⁵³ 21 And the desire;⁵³ prevent.¹⁵

LESSON EIGHT.

SENTENCE-1 And the low⁵³ and the poor⁵³ meet.⁵⁶ **2** Mountain's,²⁹ **3**. Druggist.³³ **4** Virtue's.²⁹ **5** Renders.⁶ **6** Make himself;⁴ though he does.⁴ **7** The wonderful civilities that have passed between the notion of authors, and that of readers,¹²-⁶⁰ is an unanswerable argument of a very refined age. 8 Which are.³⁴...¹ 9 Directs.³⁷ 10 Child which.³⁴...⁶ 11 Who loves³⁷ and is⁴ 12 Nations that.³⁴...³ 13 Whom.⁴⁸ 14 Crowds which.³⁴...⁵ 15 Man whom.³⁹ 16 Of gentlemen.⁵³ and ¹⁵ 17 Excessively.³⁷ 18 Desires.⁵⁵ 19 Accustomed.⁵⁸...² 20 Most infamous.³⁹ was ever.³⁷ 21 He has committed.⁵⁶ 22 Teaches⁴ the knowledge⁵³...³ this has.⁹ 23 Never be.⁵⁹ 24 Not having.³⁷...⁵ 25 Hence it.³⁶

LESSON NINE.

SENTENCE—1 Ourselves. 2 His alliance has been.⁶⁶ 3 Neither did he.⁶⁰ 4. O virtue⁵ your charms.⁵ 5 And on the society³⁰ as being mixed.⁵⁹ 6 And they rebuked the multitude that⁶⁰ 7 Which instead³⁴—5 are pests.⁵³—4 8 Very agreeably.³⁷ 9 Plutarch has told.⁵⁶ 10 Appear.⁵ 11 Knowledge were.¹⁸ 12 Make.⁵ 13 Degree is.⁴ 14 Form.⁴ 15 Needs be.⁴² 17 Such ascendancy³⁰ to have attained.⁵⁶ 18 May elevate.⁵⁶ 19 To speak.⁵⁶

LESSON TEN.

SENTENCE-1 As need.⁴⁷ 2 Than war.⁴⁷ 3 Be either wise;⁴⁷ without taking.⁵⁰ 4 As it may.⁵⁶ 5 The avoiding of.⁴⁹ 6 The converting of.⁴⁹ 7 Bring;⁵⁵ dawn;⁵⁵ upon which to feed;⁴¹ 3⁷...³ many a heavy and comfortless.⁵⁸ 8 Themselves.¹⁴ 9 Is necessary.⁴ 10 Constitutes.⁴ 11 As that.⁴⁷ 12 Much are.⁵ 13 Twice a.⁵³ 14 Times a⁵³ 15 Unto death.⁵³ 16 Us rest.⁴² 17 Is I.¹ 18 Be them.³⁹ 19 Wouldst.⁵⁵ 20 I knew.⁵⁶ 22 I may.⁵⁶ 23 In the tracing.⁴⁹ 24 Changes;⁹ decays;⁹ comes.⁹ 25 Sweet.³⁵ 26 Is rightly.²⁷ 27 And a white.⁵³ 28 Men was.⁹ 29 Profit by.⁴⁵ 30 Upon thee.⁴¹ 31 College's;³⁹ world's.³⁹ 32 Understands;⁹ he rejects.⁹

LESSON ELEVEN.

SENTENCE—1 Sleeps;⁵⁵ surely awaken.⁵⁷ 2 On any.³⁸ 3 Spoken;⁵⁶ written;⁵¹ chosen.⁵¹ 4 Springs;⁵ 5 Than she;²¹ 6 He dares do it.⁴⁷ 7 Rain.⁵³ 8 One should rise.⁵⁶ 9 Lord gave.⁵⁶ 10 Defending of.⁴⁹ 11 think they are worth.⁵⁶ 12 Scholar's.⁴⁰ 13 Lawyers are.¹⁸ 14 Which.³¹—5 15 Those that.¹⁸ 16 For whom.⁴³ 17 These ten.¹⁵ 18 I.²⁸ 19 World in which;³⁶ dares⁹ hare;⁴⁰ of his.⁹ 20 The famous;²² from selfish and despicable.²³ 21 Larger.¹⁹ 22 People's;²³ statesman's.³⁹ 23 Changes;⁹ decays;⁹ comes.⁹ 24 Than she;² 25 Than he;² 26 Justifies,⁹ 27 Exceedingly.⁴⁷ 28 I had written.⁵⁶ 29 Died of.⁴⁵ 30 Thomas's;³⁹ James's.³⁹ 31 Be thou;¹⁴ give him.¹⁴ 32 Of the king's.³³—3 33 Council's.³¹ 34 Found only.⁴⁷—1 35 Not so.⁴⁷ 36 Army was.¹³ 37 Poor ye have always.⁴⁷

LESSON TWELVE.

SENTENCE—1 The receiving of.⁴⁹ 2 Lord seest.;⁴ discernest. 3 And teketh.³⁷—³ 4 Was voted.¹³ 5 Not she was.⁶ 6 Make.⁴ 7 But also⁴⁷ his reputation has.⁴ 8 Audience was.¹³ 9 The ass.⁵³ 10 And the mighty.⁵³—³ 11 Has been written or shall be.⁴⁵ 12 Whom were.⁵ 13 Thine are the.⁵ 14 Who that;³⁴—³ would draw.⁵⁶ 15 The wisdom of Socrates.³³—1</sup> 16 Pleases add his.⁹ 17 As soon as⁶⁰ one who is ten times as intelligent nay.⁶⁰ 18 In the mind of man there are many more shining qualities than discretion, but.⁶⁰ 19 If he is;⁵³ he is;⁵⁵ he is positive;⁵⁶ he is one;⁵⁶

224

he is fretful;⁵⁵ affects.⁵⁵ 20 Priests with the scribes.⁶⁰ 21 Noah and his family, on account of their godliness.⁶⁰ 22 Lappeth shalt.¹⁸ 23 Gentile; bad as that of entire ignorance, if not worse.⁶⁰ 24 Thou hast.⁵⁵

LESSON THIRTEEN.

SENTENCE-1 Them that they.⁶⁰ 2 Child four;⁶⁰ was cruelly.⁶⁰ 3 And fine trees.⁶⁰ 4 But more so at the opening.⁶⁰ 5 The profane historian was ignorant of.⁶⁰ 6 Compared him to; which.⁶⁰ 7 Never was,⁵⁶ and I believe never will be.⁶⁰ 8 Are attainments.⁵ 9 Teacher firmly believes;²⁷ only speculatively believes;³⁷ but has also⁴⁷ a serious and lively feeling.²⁷ 10 Men honoured.⁴⁰ 11 Were there;⁴ for the displaying of.⁴⁹ 12 Severely or contemptuously.²⁷ 13 Whom.³⁰ 14 The best.⁵³-2 15 Little moré.³⁰ 16 Has written;⁵¹ then he will.⁴⁷ 17 Most nobly contested.²⁷ 18 Dissipates and weakens.⁴ 19 Drunk.⁵¹ 20 Chosen.⁵¹ 21 Has eaten;⁵¹ any water.²⁸ 22 Of its own.⁹ 23 On each side.²⁷-7 24 Argued extreme.²² 25 But also.⁵⁷ 26 Horace's.²⁹ 27 The scissors.⁵³ 28 So severe.⁵ 29 Contended.⁵⁰ 30 He was destitute.⁵⁵

PERSPICUITY.

1 Behoofed, say his duty. 2 As soon. 3 With what. 4 I know. 5 Said he. 6 Betrayeth. 7 An extraordinary. 8 He walked idly. 9 I know. 10 Intent. 11 Candour. 12 I think that. 13 The inquietude. 14 Great reputation.

PROPRIETY.

RULE 1 All confusion. 2 By force. 3 Heard both sides. 4 By boasting. 5 Not in any degree. 6 William upset them. 7 Was waiting in. 8 A long time. 9 They began. 10 To discover. 11 See it easily. 12 Is transmitted.

RULE 2.—1 And of the body. 2 Was never spoken in its, &o. S Sense of the importance of that function.

RULE 3.—1 Resembled his friend. 2 But some—more ornament. RULE 4.—1 The hen being in her nest, was killed and eaten there by the eagle. 2 Jesuits are not the only persons who can equivocate. 3 Solomon whose father David. 4 That there are no laws preferable to those of England.

RULE 7.-1 He reminded. 2 A ridiculous. 3 No fewer. 4 Is abashed. 5 Shut. 6 Lies. 7 I would. 8 Is obvious. 9 Purposes. 10 New. 11 Elderly. 12 Grow. 13 Exposure. 14 Fly. 15 Died by-killed with.

PRECISION.

Omit the following words. RULE 1.—1 First. 2 Latter. 3 From. 4 Latter. 5 Of. 6 Up. 7 Up. 8 Mutually. 9 Of, all. 10 Whenever should be when. 11 Why. 12 Both. 13 Ago. 14 Ever. 15 Some.

Omit in RULE 2.—1 Haughtiness. 2 Courage. 3 If I mistake not. 4 And detested. 5 And variety. 6 And adore. 7 Strengthens and. 8 And wisdom. 9 Entirely. 10 And abuse us

CLEARNESS AND PERSPICUITY.

RULE 2.—1 Progress of the work. 2 Study, the usefulness of. 3 Truce at once into. 4 In the night, however. 5 Modesty and virtue. 6 Great success and.

RULE 3.—1 They attacked the house of. 2 The rules of the. 3 What he says is true. 4 He was at a window in Lichfield taking a view of the Cathedral, where a party, &c.

BAD ARRANGEMENT.

The following errors are from the Grammar written by Mr. W. COBBETT, who is considered to be the most able, correct, perspicuous, and forcible writer of the present time.

Omit those words which are placed between crotchets, for they are violations of Rule 2nd, page 184, of this Grammar.

PAGE 13.—" For you could have thrown about seeds and stuck in plants of some sort [or other] in some way [or other]."

PAGE 13.—" For without a [pretty] perfect knowledge relative to [these same] nouns and verbs."

PAGE 17.—⁴ If in writing my lesson [down] on a [loose] sheet of paper, I committed one [single] error."

PAGE 34.—" The object or end of some act or of some improvement [of some kind or other;] Richard strikes Peter."

PAGE 149.-[" Every part of] the letter ought to be carefully read.

DEDICATION.—" When, in the month of August, 1817, you were shut up," &c. " While you were thus suffering," &c. While should be when. (See Rule 7, page 182.)

DEDICATION.—" If the bars of your dungeon will afford you light" It is not the nature of bars of iron to afford light. Better say, " If the bars of your dungeon will admit light." R. 7, p. 182.

DEDICATION.—"You may perhaps, close your eyes for ever without knowing of what I now address to you." It should be "Without knowing what," &c. Rule 50, p. 142.

PAGE 7.—" The respect due to the profession of the surgeon or physician, is, however, of an order inferior to that which is due to the profession of the law." It should be, "of the *lawyer.*" The omission of *the*, before "physician" implies that surgeon and physician are convertable appellations, which is by no means the case. *Rule 53*, p. 145.

PAGE 8.—" To ignorant pretenders to surgery and medicine we award our contempt [and scorn;] on time serving or treacherous counsellors, and on cruel or partial judges, we inflict our detestation; [and abhorrence] while, on rapacious, corrupt, perfidious, or tyrannical statesmen and legislators, the voice of human nature, cries aloud for [execution and] vengence." See Rule 2, r 184; also Rule 7, p. 182.

PAGE 9.—" By which these sacred laws have, [from time to time,] been defended." Rule 7, p. 182.

PAGE 10.—" [Though] I have [now] so id [what, 1 am sure, will be more than] sufficient to make you," &c. 'Rule 7, p. 182.

PAGE 10.—"You ought to proceed in your study, not only with diligence, but with patience." "Not only" require but also. Rule 47, p. 139.

ţ

PAGE 13.—" Grammar [as I observed to you before,] teaches us how to make use of words, [that is to say, it teaches us how to make use of them] in a proper manuer."

PAGE 18 "The spelling and employing of words is varied." It should be are varied. Rule 5, p. 103.

PAGE 31.—" Some words which are too irregular in [the] forming their plural." Rule 50, p. 142.

PAGE 31.—" I have thought it—best to follow," &c. Read it the best. Rule 53, No. 2, p. 145. This rule Mr. C. frequently, violates.

PAGE 33.—"You may be prepared *well* for the use of the terms." The "well" is improperly placed. *Rule* 27, p. 119.

PAGE 99.—"We, at last, hardly know whom or what the writer is talking about." About should be placed immediately before "whom." Rule 43, p. 134; also, Rule 4, p. 189.

PAGE 92.—"We have here a [pretty] good proof." R. 7, p. 182. PAGE 93.—"That the pronoun relate clearly," &c. Rule 27, page 119.

PAGE 95.—" We cannot say that we are certain whose life or whose death he is speaking of." The of should be placed immediately before "whose." Rule 43, p. 134. Mr. Cobbett frequently violates this rule-

PAGE 174.—" The persons, who settle upon what shall be the topic of these speeches, [the king's speeches] and who draw the speeches up, are a Lord High Chancellor, a First Lord of the Treasury," &c. It should be, " The Lord High Chancellor, the First Lord of the Treasury," &c. There are not two Lords High Chancellors, two First Lords of the Treasury, &c. Mr. C's., language, however, intimates that there are. Rule 53, p. 145.

PAGE 181.—" If you should ever hear them there, stammering and repeating, and putting forth their nonsense." It should be "stammering and putting forth and repeating their nonsense." A thing cannot be repeated before it is put forth. Rule 7, p. 182.

BAD ARRANGEMENT, FROM DR. WATTS' LOGIC.

INTRODUCTION TO THE LOGIC.—" It is the drawing a conclusion which was before either unknown or dark." It should be, the drawing of a conclusion. Rule 48, p. 142.

INTRODUCTION.—" Reason, as to the power and principles of *it*, is the common gift of God to man." This is very ambiguous, the *it* may relate to *power* as well as to *reason*. It is better to say, " Reason as to *its* power and principles." See top of page 186.

INTRODUCTION.—" All the prudence that any man exerts in his common concerns of life." "Any man" means men in general, and "concerns" means the concerns common to men in general, therefore, we should use the instead of his. Rule 53, p. 145.

INTRODUCTION.—" Reason is the glory of human nature, and one of the chief eminences whereby we are raised above our fellow creatures, the brutes, in this lower world." The words " in this lower world," are unnecessary and they do harm; first, they imply that there are brutes in the higher world; second, they imply a doubt whether we are raised above those brutes. Rule 2, p. 184.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

LOGIC, PART 3.—" Follow solid argument wherever it leads you." It should be, "lead you." Rule 55, p. 147.

LOGIC, PART 3.—" In searching out matters of fact, in times past or in distant places, in which case moral evidence is sufficient, and moral certainty is the utmost that can be attained, here we derive a greater assurance of the truth of it by a number of persons, or multitude of circumstances concurring to bear witness to it." It should be, " In the searching out of matters." Rule 49, page 142. The adverb "here," is unnecessary. If " matters of fact," is the antecedent, the " of it," and the " to it," should be, " of them," and " to them." Rule 14, p. 110. If " evidence," is the antecedent, we have circumstances bearing witness to evidence. Rule 2, top of page 186. If " certainty" is the antecedent, we have the traff of certainty. Rule 2, p. 184.

BAD ARRANGEMENT, FROM DR. JOHNSON'S RAMBLER.

FROM THE RAMBLER, No. 1.—" We are not compelled to toil through half a folio to be convinced that the author has broke his promise." Broke, should be broken. Rule 51, p, 143.

No. 3. - " The muses when they sung before the throne of Jupiter." " Sung" should be sang. Rule 51, p. 143.

No. 4.—" To cull from the mass of manhind those individuals npon which," &c. " Which should be whom. Rule 5, p. 127.

No. 120.—" My purpose was, after ten months more spent in commerce, to have withdrawn my wealth to a safer country." " Wus" should be is; and "to have withdrawn" should be, to withdraw. Rule 56, p. 148.

No. 34.—"I invited her to spend a day in viewing a seat and gardens." It should be, "A seat and its gardens." *Rule* 53, p. 145.

No. 160.—" He will be welcomed with ardour, unless he destroys those recommendations." It should be, destroy. Rule 55, p. 147.

No. 1.—"I purpose to endeavour the entertainment of my countrymen." The intransitive verb, "endeavour the entertainment" should be, endeavour to entertain.

These specimens of bad arrangement are only a few sentences of what may be selected from the above authors. They are introduced to shew the necessity of studying correct composition, as well as to convince the reader that constant care must be exercised, to prevent him from making similar errors. Notwithstanding these gentlemen's knowledge of the learned languages, they were not exempt from writing bad English, which is one proof that the best of writers are not without faults.



J. H. GREAVES, PRINTER, ANGEL-STREET, SHEVPIELD.