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SWETT'S GRAMMAR.

AN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

COMPREHENDING

THE PRINCIPLES AND RULES

OF THE

LANGUAGE,

ILLUSTRATED BY APPROPRIATE EXERCISES:

ON THE BASIS OF MURRAY.

BY J. SWETT, JR., A. M.,

IMPROVED EDITION.

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PREFACE.

The ENGLISH GRAMMAR of Lindley Murray* has ever been regarded as a work of distinguished merit. For more than forty years has it had a reputation and circulation, unequalled in the history of grammars. These it has justly enjoyed. For a work compiled from the grammars and grammatical studies of Harris, Johnson, Lowth, Priestley, Beattie, Sheridan, Walker, Coote, Blair, Campbell and Webster—all men of sound erudition, and intimately versed in the principles and structure of the English language—by a person so well prepared for the undertaking as Mr. Murray, so well read, and so competent for selection, arrangement, or even composition; such a work, it is affirmed, could not well fail to embrace the true principles of the language, and to possess far more than ordinary excellence.

Mr. Murray regarded himself, as may be seen by his Prefaces, as a Compiler only.—The language of his work is, in a great measure, the language of Lowth and the other grammarians named above, for which no more than general credit is given in the front part of the volume. As Murray made no scruples in copying from the works of others; so more modern compilers have made no scruples in copying from his work. The language of his grammar seems, indeed, to have been regarded, and not without reason, as common property, and all have used it, altered or amended it, as if it were their own. Nor is there, since the true authors are unknown, any injustice in this course. There may be an advantage; for, if the language be clear, precise and correct, it is better that it continue still to be used, than that it be exchanged for that less definite, and less perfect.

From the foregoing remarks may be gathered the reasons for constructing the following volume on the basis of Murray's Grammar, as it purports to be on the title page. Though the chief part of it has been re-written, and the whole prepared with much care and labor, the subscriber lays no claim to its being considered an original work; but was unwilling to alter it, in any enlarged sense, as but a revision of Murray's full work in two volumes, and himself as having made those changes only which necessity and experience dictated, and which Mr. Murray himself would sanction, were he alive to witness them. Every teacher of any experience, though conscious of the excellencies of Murray's ever every other English grammar, has nevertheless, seen in it and admitted great faults; and though he has done it reluctantly, these have compelled him, in some instances, to lay it aside, and adopt others of less merit, but of greater accuracy in some of their essential parts.

The reason for entering upon the preparation of this work, is found in the fact of there being no grammar extant, adapted to the use of teachers and students—none without great and radical errors, and in some instances, an entire want of fitness for school instruction. This fact is proved, not only by an examination of the grammars extant themselves, though it is cheerfully confessed that some of them have much merit; but also from the almost universal complaint of teachers on the subject: and to those just complaints, the compiler can add his own testimony, based on ten years' experience as a teacher, that he has been able, during that time, to find no grammar suited to his wants, or fitted to make its study pleasant and successful to the student. His own wants were perhaps the more immediate cause of the undertaking.

The object had in view in the compilation of this volume, were to embrace the true principles of the English language in a form, not too concise as to fail of imparting a

* Mr. Murray was a native of this country. He was born in New Jersey, where he spent the early part of his life.
† These are the men from whose works Mr. Murray says his own was compiled.
full and explicit understanding of them, nor so extended as to weary and confuse—to express them in language clear, precise and definite, without any effort to simplify; for this has been the bane of many school books, and a sufficient objection against them—to illustrate and enforce them by appropriate remarks and well chosen exercises—to give the work a logical and clear arrangement; and finally, to make the whole a complete and correct system of English Grammar, perfectly adapted to the use of schools and homes. How far these objects have been accomplished, it is for the public to judge. Other less general objects have been aimed at and attained; one of these was to make its orthography and etymology harmonize with those of the standard dictionary of our language; to wit, Webster's. In this attempt, the compiler feels conscious he has succeeded so far as success is desirable, and it will be regarded by all, he believes, as a most valuable improvement.

A fuller view of the work, compared with the one on which it is based, will be gained from the following brief particulars:

1. The whole work is divided into distinct sections, each having in general its appropriate head, both for a more logical arrangement, and for convenience of reference.

2. Those parts of grammar designed for reference, or for the study of pupils somewhat advanced in the science, as the rules of orthography, derivation, &c., are separated from the body of the work and placed in an Appendix by themselves.

3. The Article is not allowed as a part of speech, but the words of this class are placed among the adjectives, from which they should never have been separated.

4. A section is added on the limitations of nouns and the neuter gender is discarded as having no warrant, in the English language, for the distinction by which it is alluded.

5. The verbs are more naturally and logically classified; the neuter is called the inactive; some incongruous terms in the tenses are changed for others more clear and expressive; the conjugations are more distinctly laid down, and forms given for the conjunction of verbs interrogatively, negatively, and interrogatively and negatively combined.

6. A new chapter (chap. 1) is added on Syntax, on a new and greatly improved plan; which, in connection with Chapter II. embracing all of Murray's, (including the exercises in false Syntax, contained in his second octavo volume,) thoroughly revised, forms, it is believed, a more complete and better system of Syntax than has ever before been offered to the public.

7. Murray's article on Versification, always deemed defective and obscure, has been exchanged for another, at once complete and intelligible, drawn up by that most accurate and critical scholar in this department of grammatical knowledge, the late Judge Trumbull, of Connecticut.

8. The Appendix contains three sections on the Prefixes and Suffixes of the English language, prepared with great care from the best sources. It is believed they will be found greatly to enhance the value of the work.

9. Lastly, a Glossary of grammatical technical terms is added at the end of the volume. This is regarded as a valuable appendage; inasmuch as a correct and full understanding of the technical terms of any science is of the highest importance towards attaining a knowledge of that science. It should be frequently and carefully consulted.

By means of several kinds of type a large amount of matter has been embraced in this volume, without inordinately swelling its size. No part of Grammar is omitted, and yet every part is full.

No questions have been introduced into the work for the examination of pupils—none were deemed requisite. Written questions for text books are believed to be injurious on several accounts. First, they tend to promote a partial and consequently superficial examination of the text; inasmuch as the student searches often rather to find the answers to such questions, than to obtain a correct, thorough and connected view of the whole subject. Secondly, they tend to foster habits of indolence on the part of teachers, who having questions ready made for their use, neglect to study the text themselves, and are thus often incapable of being, in any degree, beneficial to the pupil. Thirdly, they tend to make lessons monotonous and tiresome, by depriving them of novelty and leaving them devoid of interest; and fourthly, they have the effect to narrow the mind by confining it to set and limited trains of thought, whereas its free expansion should be encouraged by eliciting thought in various channels running from the subject, by extemporary questions and verbal remarks. Besides all this, every intelligent teacher feels that he is quite as well able to adapt questions to his pupils of various ages, and every variety of attainment and understanding, as the author or compiler of a book, sitting in his study; and he can but feel, and often does, that an insult is offered to his intelligence and judgment, when a book is put into his hands for use, with a large portion of every page occupied by questions, often most ill prepared for any class of students.

Neither has any key to the exercises in false Syntax been appended to the work. For, if the pupil studies under a teacher, as he most likely will do, he will find in him,
PREFACE.

IF intelligent, his best key; and if he has sufficient maturity of mind to pursue grammar without the teacher's aid, he will be able, by proper diligence and exertion, to understand the corrections which are to be made in the sentences of false construction, from the rules and observations immediately preceding them. A key for the use of teachers, is not far from being a burlesque on their intellectual capacities and common sense, and is well calculated to dwarf the mind, by removing from it the occasion, as well as the necessity, for mental exertion.

In preparing this volume, a variety of grammars has been consulted. From only one or two, however, has anything valuable been drawn. Three or four short extracts have been made from the grammar of Dr. N. Webster, for which credit is given in its proper place. The Rules for Spelling, embraced in the Appendix, are also from his pen. The analysis of sentences contained in chapter first on Syntax, is chiefly from the Latin Grammar of Andrews and Stoddard. In this connection the undersigned embraces with pleasure the opportunity to express his acknowledgments to the Rev. W. D. Wilson, from whom he has derived some valuable suggestions, in various parts of the volume.

That this volume may be the instrument of advancing and cheering the progress of the student in his efforts for the attainment of a science, at once deeply intellectual, extensively practical, and when rightly pursued, highly interesting, is the earnest desire of the compiler; and he will only add the request, in justice to himself, that those into whose hands it may fall, will suspend their prejudices and judgment till they have carefully examined its pages.

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New England Seminary.
Windsor, Vermont.

PREFACE TO THE IMPROVED EDITION.

A demand having been made for another edition of this work, I have devoted to the improvement of it, all that time and attention, which my other engagements would permit. Considerable new matter has been added, particularly in the department of Etymology; whereas a few paragraphs, that appeared in the former edition, have been struck out. Many verbal alterations have been made, some sentences transposed, and others materially changed in their whole structure. In short, I have not omitted to make any alterations which I deemed might, in any measure, enhance the value of the volume for the purposes intended. Some few typographical errors, owing to circumstances which could not be controlled, appeared in the first edition. These have been corrected, and it is hoped that the present edition may be free from errors of the kind.

The experience of a year in teaching from the work, has but served to confirm my belief in the correctness of the principles, some of which are new, advanced therein; and to confirm my convictions of its adaptation to the wants and purposes of public instruction, and of the general advantages of its plan. My opinion remains unchanged in
respect to the use of written questions, and none, therefore, are presented. If the teacher is intelligent, he will have no occasion for them; and if he is not intelligent, he would be unfit, in any case, to give instruction in the science of Grammar. That written questions afford the student a very false aid, and do him serious injury, I have long been compelled to admit.

To those literary gentlemen who have spoken in so flattering terms of the merits of my humble performance, I would embrace this occasion to express my obligations; and especially to those, who have favored me with their critical remarks and suggestions, would I present my sincere acknowledgements.

In conclusion, I will remark, that I have spared no pains to render the work as perfect as human imperfection will allow. That it is not, or will not be, capable of improvement, I do not profess. Grammar is still in a state of advancement, and many important truths remain to be discovered. Much more might have been added; indeed, the volume could easily have been swelled to double its present size: but, in an elementary work, there is nothing gained, (on the contrary, much is lost,) in expanding every principle to its utmost limit; in naming every trivial exception, and in giving prolix examples for illustration; nor yet, still farther, in prolonged discussions on doubtful or disputed points. Nothing has been embraced in the volume deemed unimportant, nor left out, thought to be essential. Such as the work is, I now, for the second time, present it to the public, grateful for the favor they have already testified in its behalf, and in the hope that it may be found to have still higher claims to their confidence, and to answer all that can reasonably be demanded in a work of the kind.

J. SWETT, JR.

New-England Seminary,
January, 1844.
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§ 1. Grammar* is both the science and art of Language.

As a science, grammar treats of the connection between ideas and words, and the principles of language. As an art, it is the practice of speaking or writing language, in accordance with its true principles and correct usage.

English Grammar treats of the principles of the English Language, and teaches the art of speaking and writing it correctly.

When grammar treats of those laws or principles, which are common to all languages, it is called General or Universal; when of those principles which pertain to any one language, or of the application of general principles to a particular language, it receives a corresponding designation; as, Greek Grammar, Latin Grammar, French Grammar, &c.

Language, in the proper sense of the word as applied to man, consists of those signs, whether they be written words or articulate sounds, by which he expresses his thoughts and feelings.

The power of speech is one of the distinguishing characteristics of our nature; none of the inferior animals being in any degree possessed of it: for we must not call by the name of speech that imitation of the

* For the derivation, and literal and technical meaning of this and all other grammatical terms in this work, the pupil is referred to the Glossary at the end of the volume.
human articulate voice, of which parrots and some other birds are capable.

That some inferior animals should be able to mimic human articulation, will not seem wonderful, when we recollect that even by machines the sounds of certain words have been expressed. But that the parrot should annex thought to the word he utters, is scarcely more probable than that the machine should do so. *Rogue* and *knave* are in every parrot's mouth; but the ideas they stand for are incomprehensible by any other beings than those endowed with reason and a moral sense.

It is probable that there is among irrational animals something, which, by *figure*, we may call *language*, as the instinctive, economy of bees is figuratively called *government*. But animal voices have no analogy with human speech. For, first, men speak by art and imitation; whereas the voices in question are wholly instinctive. Secondly, the voices of brute animals are not resolvable into distinct elementary sounds, like those of men; nor are they susceptible of that variety which would be necessary for the communication of a very few sentiments; and furthermore, the young of beasts, previous to instruction, comprehend their meaning, as well as the old ones. Thirdly, these voices seem intended by nature to express, not distinct ideas, or trains of thought, but certain feelings only; in which, as in all other respects, they are analogous, not to our speaking, but to our weeping, laughing, groaning, screaming, and the like.

The number of living languages and dialects is about two thousand.

Grammar is divided into four parts, namely: **Orthography, Etymology, Syntax** and **Prosody**.

- **Orthography** treats of the form and sound of letters, the combination of letters into syllables, and syllables into words.

- **Etymology** treats of the different classes of words, of their various modifications, and their derivations.

- **Syntax** treats of the government, agreement and right order of words in the formation of a sentence, and of punctuation.

- **Prosody** treats of the just pronunciation of words, and the poetical construction of sentences.
PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

§2. Orthography treats of the form and sound of letters, the combination of letters into syllables, and of syllables into words.

CHAPTER I.

OF LETTERS.

§3. A letter is a character used in writing or printing, to represent an articulate sound. It is the first principle or least part of a word.

Letters, we are told, were first introduced into Greece, 1493 years before the Christian era, by Cadmus, a Phœnician. How long they had been used in Phœncia previous to that time, is not known. The alphabet of Cadmus consisted of 16 letters: the Greeks afterwards added 8 others.

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

Some languages have a less, and others a greater number of letters than the English. The Hebrew alphabet contains but twenty-two; the Greek and Latin have each twenty-four; the French has twenty-five; the German twenty-six, and the Arabic twenty-eight.

A perfect alphabet of the English, or of any other language, would contain a number of letters precisely equal to the number of simple articulate sounds belonging to the language. Every distinct sound would have its distinct character; and that character be the representative of no other sound. But this is far from being the state of the English alphabet. The language has more elementary sounds, than distinct significant characters; and, consequently, some of the letters-
ORTHOGRAPHY.

are made to represent, not one sound alone, but several sounds. This
will appear by reflecting that the sounds, signified by the united
letters, *th, sh, ng*, are elementary, and yet have no simple appropriate
characters; and that the letters *a* and *u* represent the different sounds
heard in *fute, hat, father, water*; and in *nut, use, full*. There are in
the English language, some ten or twelve simple vowel sounds, and
twenty-two consonant.

The following is a list of the Roman, Italic, and Old
English characters:—

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<th>Roman.</th>
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The compounds, *th, sh, th, and ng*, represent distinct sounds. There
is also another elementary sound represented by *zh*, as heard in
crozier, pleasure, assure, pronounced *crozhur, plezhur, azhur*.

Several of the letters in the English alphabet, are either superfluous,
or represent not simple, but complex sounds. *C*, for instance, is
superfluous in both its sounds; the one being expressed by *k*, and the
other by *s*. *G* soft is not a simple, but a complex sound; as, *age* is
pronounced *aidge*. *J* is unnecessary, as its sound and that of *g* soft are
LETTERS—THEIR DIFFERENT CLASSES.

the same. Q, with its attendant u, which always follows it, is either complex and resolvable in kv, as in question; or unnecessary, its sound harmonizing with k, as in opaque. X has the compound sound of ks, as in wax; or of gz, as in exert. [For a full exposition of the sounds of the letters, see first article in the Appendix.]

Forms of the Letters.

§4. The letters have each two forms; viz. that of capitals, and that of small letters.

Capitals are used for the sake of distinction or eminence; as, for the titles of books, headings of chapters, and beginning of proper names. Small letters constitute the body of every work.

The Roman letters are generally used; the Italic with less frequency, and the Old English but occasionally.

Classes of Letters.

§5. Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants.

A Vowel is an articulate sound, that can be perfectly uttered by itself; as a, e, o; which are formed without the help of any other sound.

A Consonant is an articulate sound, which cannot be perfectly uttered without the help of a vowel; as b, d, f, l; which require vowels to express them fully.

The vowels are, a, e, i, o, u, and w.* Y is also a vowel, except when it begins a word or syllable.

Classes of Consonants.

§6. Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels.

The mutes cannot be sounded at all, without the aid of a vowel. They are b, p, t, d, k, and c and g hard.

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

Four of the semi-vowels, namely, l, m, n, r, are also distinguished by the name of liquids, from their readily uniting with other consonants, and flowing, as it were, into their sounds.

Of Diphthongs and Triphthongs.

§7. A diphthong is the union of two vowels, pronounced by a simple impulse of the voice; as ea in beat, ou in sound.

* W has in general been considered a consonant at the beginning of words and syllables, but without sufficient reason. Its sound is precisely the French ou, or English oo. Dr. Webster has classed it with the vowels.
ORTHOGRAPHY.

A triphthong is the union of three vowels, pronounced in like manner; as, eau in beau, ieu in view.

A proper diphthong is that in which both the vowels are sounded; as, oi in voice, ou in ounce.

An improper diphthong has but one of the vowels sounded; as, ea in eagle, oa in boat.

A proper triphthong is that in which all the vowels are sounded; as, uoy in buoy.

An improper triphthong is that in which but one or two of the vowels are sounded; as, eau in beauty, iou in anxious.

Of Articulate Sounds—Their Nature and Formation.

§ 8. An articulate sound is the sound of the human voice, formed by the organs of speech.

Human voice is air sent out from the lungs, and so agitated or modified in its passage through the windpipe and larynx, as to become distinctly audible. The windpipe is that tube, which on touching the forepart of our throat externally, we feel hard and uneven. It conveys air into the lungs for the purpose of breathing and speech. The top or upper part of the windpipe is called the larynx, which consists of four or five cartilages, that may be expanded or brought together, by the action of certain muscles which operate all at the same time. In the middle of the larynx there is a small opening, called the glottis, through which the breath and voice are conveyed. This opening is not wider than one tenth of an inch; and, therefore, the breath transmitted through it from the lungs, must pass with considerable velocity. The voice thus formed, is strengthened and softened by a reverberation from the palate and other hollow places in the inside of the mouth and nostrils; and as these are better or worse shaped for this reverberation, the voice is said to be more or less agreeable.

Speech is made up of articulate voices; and what we call articulation, is performed, not by the lungs, windpipe, or larynx, but by the action of the throat, palate, teeth, tongue, lips and nostrils. Articulation begins not, till the breath, or voice, has passed through the larynx.

The simplest articulate voices are those which proceed from an open mouth, and are by grammarians called vowel sounds. In transmitting these, the aperture of the mouth may be pretty large, or somewhat smaller, or very small; which is one cause of the variety of vowels; a particular sound being produced by each particular aperture. Moreover, in passing through an open mouth, the voice may be gently acted upon by the lips, or by the tongue and palate, or by the tongue and throat; whence another source of variety in vowel sounds.

When the voice, in its passage through the mouth, is totally intercepted or strongly compressed, there is formed a certain modification of articulate sound, which, as expressed by a character in writing, is called a consonant. Silence is the effect of a total interception; and indistinct sound, of a strong compression; and therefore a consonant is not of itself a distinct articulate voice; and its influence in varying the tones of language is not clearly perceived unless it be accompanied by an opening of the mouth, that is by a vowel.
By making the experiment with attention, the student will perceive
that each of the *mutes* is formed by the voice being *intercepted*, by the
lips, by the tongue and palate, or by the tongue and throat; and that
the *semi-vowels* are formed by the same organs *strongly compressing*
the voice in its passage, but not totally intercepting it.

The elements of language, according to the different seats where
they are formed, or the several organs of speech chiefly concerned in
their pronunciation, are divided into several classes, and denominated
as follows; those are called *labials*, which are formed by the lips;
those *dentals*, that are formed by the teeth; *palatales*, that are formed
by the palate; *nasals*, that are formed by the nose; *linguals*, that are
formed by the tongue.

The letters *b, f, p, v*, are labials, (*labium*, a lip;); *d, t, l*, are dentals,
(*dens*, a tooth); *c* and *g* hard, *k, g*, are palatales, (*palatum*, the palate,
or roof of the mouth); *m* and *n* are nasals, (*narium*, the nose); *r* is a
lingual, (*lingua*, the tongue); *s, z*, are called *sibilants* or *hissing*
letters.

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**CHAPTER II.**

**OF SYLLABLES.**

§9. A *SYLLABLE* is a sound, either simple or com-
 pound, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and
constituting a word, or part of a word; as, *a, an, ant*.

A syllable may contain any number of letters from one
to seven or eight. One letter at least, of each syllable,
must be a vowel.

A *Monosyllable* is a word of one syllable; as, *good, brave, just*.

A *Dissyllable* is a word of two syllables; as, *virtue, goodness*.

A *Trisyllable* is a word of three syllables; as, *contentment, bravery*.

A *Polysyllable* is a word of four or more syllables; as,
comprehensive, unintelligibility.

*Rules for the division of Syllables.*

§10. In dividing words into syllables, we are, for the
most part, to be governed by the ear. The following gen-
eral rules may, however, be of service.

1. The consonants should generally be joined to the
vowels, which they modify; as, *ob-ju-ra-to-ry*.

2. Compounded words must be resolved into the simple
words of which they are composed; as, *ice-house, glow-worm,*
*over-power, never-the-less.*
ORTHOGRAPHY.

3. Grammatical, and other particular terminations, are generally separated; as, teach-est, teach-eth, teach-ing, teach-er; contend-est, great-er, wretch-ed; good-ness, free-dom, false-hood.

4. At the end of a line, a word may be divided if necessary; but a syllable never.

CHAPTER III.

OF WORDS AND SPELLING.

§11. Words are articulate sounds, or combinations of letters, used by common consent, as signs of our ideas.

There are as many syllables in a word as there are distinct sounds.

All words are either primitive or derivative.

A primitive word is that which cannot be reduced to any simpler word in the language; as man, good, content.

A derivative word is that which may be reduced to another word in English of greater simplicity; as, manful, goodness, contentment.

Words, again, are either simple or compound.

A simple word is one that is not compounded; as, boy, chair.

A compound word is one that is composed of two or more other words; as, ale-house, brick-bat.

Spelling.

§12. Spelling is the art of writing or expressing words by their proper characters or letters.

The orthography of our language is by no means systematic, and the mode of spelling many words is far from being settled. On account of this, the art of spelling is attended with no little difficulty, and can be acquired only by long practice and diligent effort; yet for a person to be ignorant of the orthography of those words, which are frequently used and uniformly spelled, is justly considered reprehensible, and rightfully subjects the individual to censure and disgrace. Spelling is to be learned chiefly by the aid of spelling-books and dictionaries, and by attentive observation in reading, rather than by any general or specific rules. Rules, however, are not without their use, and a few are subjoined for the consultation of the student. He will find in the Appendix, a full set, to which his attention, next to these, is directed.
RULE I. Monosyllables ending with $f$, $l$, or $s$, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, staff, mill, pass, &c. The only exceptions are, of, if, is, has, was, yes, his, this, us, and thus.

RULE II. Monosyllables, ending with any consonant but $f$, $l$, or $s$, and preceded by a single vowel, never double the final consonant; excepting add, ebb, butt, egg, odd, err, inn, bunn, purr, and buzz.

RULE III. Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant, when they take another syllable beginning with a vowel; as, wit, witty; thin, thinness; abet, abettor; begin, beginner.

But if a diphthong precedes, or the accent is on the preceding syllable, the consonant remains single; as, toil, toiling, offer, offering; maid, maiden, &c.

RULE IV. Words ending with any double letter but $l$, and taking ness, less, ly, or ful, after them, preserve the letter double; as, harmless, carelessness, carelessly, stiffly, successful, distressful, &c. But those words which end with double $l$, and take ness, less, ly, or ful, after them, generally omit one $l$; as, fulness, skillless, skilful, &c.

RULE V. Ness, less, ly, and ful, added to words ending with silent $e$, do not cut it off; as, paleness, guileless, closely, peaceful; except in a few words; as, duly, truly, awful.

RULE VI. Ment, added to words ending with silent $e$, generally preserves the $e$ from elision; as, abatement, chas- tisement, incitement, &c. The words judgment, abridgment, acknowledgment, are deviations from the rule. Like other terminations, ment changes $y$ into $i$, when preceded by a consonant; as, accompany, accompaniment; merry, merri- ment.

RULE VII. Able and ible, when incorporated into words ending with silent $e$, almost always cut it off; as, blame, blamable; cure, curable; sense, sensible, &c.; but if $c$ or $g$ soft comes before $e$ in the original word, the $e$ is then preserved in words compounded with able; as, change, change- able; peace, peaceable, &c.

RULE VIII. When ing or ish is added to words ending with silent $e$, the $e$ is almost universally omitted; as, place, placing; lodge, lodging; slave, slavish; prude, prudish.
PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

§13. The second part of grammar is ETYMOLOGY, which treats of the different classes of words, their various modifications, and their derivations.*

In Orthography we were chiefly concerned with the formation of words, irrespective of their connection with thought or ideas. In Etymology, we are to consider them mainly in respect to their significations, and the offices they are designed to fulfil; together with the changes, which some of them undergo in form, either to express the relations which they sustain to other words, or the import of the words themselves.

CHAPTER I.

A GENERAL VIEW OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

§14. There are eight classes of words, or, as they are commonly called, PARTS OF SPEECH, namely: the SUBSTANTIVE or NOUN, the ADJECTIVE, the PRONOUN, the VERB, the ADVERB, the PREPOSITION, the CONJUNCTION, and the INTERJECTION.

Words are differently classified, according to the object had in view. In dictionaries they are classed according to their initial or final letters; in spelling-books, according to the number, or accent of their syllables; in Grammar, according to their significations, or the office they perform in the sentence. In determining, therefore, the class to which any word belongs in Grammar, regard must always be paid to its general sense, or its connection with other words in the same sentence.

The number of the parts of speech, has been variously estimated by different grammarians. Some have enumerated ten, making the participle one, and what has been called the article, (including only the two words a or an, and the,) another. Some, again, have reckoned only four, and others but two, the noun and the verb, considering the

* On the derivation of words, the student is referred to the Appendix.
rest to be contained in the parts of this division. There is some little plausibility in the last division, as the noun and verb are essential in the construction of every sentence; whereas the other classes of words are not, and may be regarded as modifiers and connectives, expressly belonging to the two former. There will appear, however, as we proceed, good reason for the eight parts of speech above enumerated.

1. A NOUN OR SUBSTANTIVE is the name of any person, place, object, or thing that exists, or which we may conceive to exist; as, man, Boston, virtue, bird, mermaid.

2. An ADJECTIVE is a word used with a noun, to point it out, describe or modify it; as, an honest man; the industrious woman.

An Adjective may be known by its making sense with the word thing; as a good thing; a bad thing; or with any particular noun; as, a sweet apple, a pleasant prospect, a lively boy.

3. A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word; as, the man is happy; he is benevolent; he is useful.

4. A VERB is a word which expresses action, existence, or state; as, I run, I am, I am struck, I sit.

A Verb may generally be distinguished, by its making sense with any of the personal pronouns, or the word to, before it; as, I walk, he plays, they write; or, to walk, to play, to write.

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

An Adverb may be generally known, by its answering the question, How? how much? when? or where? as, in the phrase, "He reads correctly," the answer to the question, How does he read? is, correctly.

6. PREPOSITIONS serve to connect words with one another, to show the relation between them, and also the condition of things; as, he went from Boston to New York; she is above disguise; the house is near the shore.

A preposition may be known by its admitting after it a personal pronoun, in the objective case; as, with, for, to, &c. will allow the objective case after them; with him, for her, to them, &c.

7. A CONJUNCTION is a part of speech that is chiefly used to connect sentences; so as out of two or more sentences to make but one: it sometimes connects only words; as, you and he are happy, because you are good. Two and three are five.
8. Interjections are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence, to express the passions or emotions of the speaker; as, O virtue! how amiable thou art!

The Interjection seems scarcely worthy of being considered a part of artificial language, being rather a branch of that natural language, which we possess in common with the brute creation, and by which we express the sudden emotions and passions which actuate us. But, as it is used in written, as well as oral language, it may have some claim to be reckoned as a part of speech, and it is, therefore, admitted as such.

The observations which have been made to aid learners in distinguishing the parts of speech from one another, may afford them some little assistance; but it will certainly be much more instructive to distinguish them by the definitions, and an accurate knowledge of their nature.

Parts of Speech exemplified.

§15. In the following passage, all the parts of speech are exemplified:

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.

In the foregoing sentence, the words power, speech, faculty, man, Creator, uses, purposes, are nouns; the, a, peculiar, beneficent, greatest, excellent, worst, are adjectives; him, his, we, it, are pronouns; is, was bestowed, to pervert, are verbs; most, how, often, are adverbs; of, to, on, by, for, are prepositions; and, but, are conjunctions; and alas is an interjection.

Let the student be required to name the words that belong to the different parts of speech, in the following sentences. The sentences of any book may be used also for this purpose.

"The throne we honor, is the people's choice."
"Man's chief good is in an upright mind."
"Be more anxious to acquire knowledge, than to show it."
"If friendship were never feigned, it would appear to be scarce."
"Come, gentle Spring! ethereal Mildness! come;
And from the bosom of yon dropping cloud,
While music wakes around, veiled in a shower
Of shadowing roses, on our fields descend." —Thompson.
CHAPTER II.

OF NOUNS.

Of Nouns in General.

§16. A Noun is the name of any person, place, object, or thing, that exists, or which we may conceive to exist; as, man, Boston, virtue, mermaid.

Nouns are of two kinds; Proper and Common.

Proper nouns are names appropriated to individuals; as, Washington, Potomac, Henry.

Common nouns stand for classes containing many kinds, or for kinds containing many individuals under them; as, animal, man, tree, &c.

Thus fowl is the common name of all feathered animals, which fly; fish, of all animals which live wholly in the water, &c.

Common nouns usually include the following classes, viz: collective, abstract, and verbal or participial nouns.

A collective noun, or noun of multitude, is the name of many individuals together; as, council, flock, assembly.

An abstract noun is the name of a quality abstracted from its substance; as, knowledge, goodness, whiteness.

A participial or verbal noun, is a name formed from a verb, but used as a noun; as beginning, reading, writing.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. I.

[Let the learner be required to distinguish the nouns in the following sentences, and also to tell which are proper and which common.]

"Socrates and Plato were celebrated for their wisdom, and were the most eminent philosophers of Greece."

"Jerusalem, the Jewish capital, was destroyed by the Romans, under Titus, the son of Vespasian."

"Intemperance engenders disease, sloth produces poverty, pride creates disappointment, and dishonesty exposes to shame."

"Men are often deceived by false appearances and extravagant pretensions."

"Sincerity and truth form the basis of every virtue."

"Man’s happiness, or misery, is in a great measure put into his own hands."

"Riches, honors, and pleasures, steal away the heart from true religion."

"King Solomon built a temple, and dedicated it to the Almighty."

"A habit of sincerity in acknowledging faults, is a great guard against committing them."

Of the Limitation of Nouns.

§17. When proper nouns become plural, or have definitives annexed to them, they are used as common nouns; as, the lives of the Twelve Caesars; the Cicero of his age.
Common nouns may also be used to signify individuals, by the addition of adjectives or pronouns; as, the boy is studious; these men are discreet; thy will be done.

When common nouns, which are the names of inanimate things, are personified, or have the qualities of life ascribed to them, they become proper; as, "Hail Liberty!" "These are thy blessings, Industry!" A common noun, by prefixing to it the definitive the, is sometimes rendered proper; as, the Park, the Common.

When an individual has certain predominant traits of character, or is conspicuous for some one thing, the proper name of such individual may be applied to all other individuals possessed of the same traits, or conspicuous for the same thing, and admits of definitives and of the plural number, like common names. Thus, a person characterised for base treachery, is called a Judas; a conspirator is called a Cataline, and numbers of them, Catalines.

Proper names of nations, societies and ranges of mountains, are often plural, and admit of definitives; as, the Americans, the Druids, the Andes, the Alps.

Nouns, which stand for classes containing many individuals, and which are hence termed common, require often to be limited to one, or a part, of the individuals included under them. Certain words are used for this purpose, as, the, this, that, these, those, a, an, one, some, and a few others, all of which are adjectives, adjective pronouns, or pronouns, having some noun expressed or understood on which they depend. The, and a or an, are never used independently of a noun expressed, and from their frequent as well as somewhat peculiar use, they have been called articles; but the term adjective, definitive adjective, or simply definitive, is altogether more appropriate and significant.

An is used before a word beginning with a vowel or a silent consonant; as, an eagle, an hour; — a, before a consonant, or before a vowel including the sound of a consonant; as, a tree, a university. The is used before either vowels or consonants; as, the apple, the peach.

The following rules, in addition to what has been said above, will be found to embrace all that is essential on the limitation of nouns.

1. A noun, without a preceding definitive, is generally used in its widest sense; as, "A candid temper is proper for man;" that is, for all mankind.

This rule, however, is liable to many exceptions, as will be observed from the following examples: "There are fishes that have wings." Here plainly all fishes are not meant, but only a particular kind. "There shall be signs in the sun." "Nation shall rise against nation." In these sentences, signs and nation are used in a restricted sense.

2. The definitive an or a can be joined to nouns in the singular number only; as, a lion, an ox, a house.

*An is the Saxon word one or an, one. It was contracted to a before vowels, for the greater ease and rapidity of pronunciation. Its signification is almost universally one; as, give me a book, that is, one book; an apple, one apple.
But there appears to be a remarkable exception to this rule, in the use of the adjectives few and many, (the latter chiefly with the word great before it,) which, though joined with plural nouns, yet admit of the definitive a; as, a few men; a great many men.

The reason of this is manifest, from the effect which a has in these phrases; it means a small or great number collectively taken, and therefore gives the idea of a whole, that is, of unity. Thus, likewise, a dozen, a score, a hundred, or a thousand, is one whole number, an aggregate of many collectively taken; and therefore still retains the definitive a, though joined as an adjective to a plural substantive; as, a hundred years, &c.

The definitive a is sometimes placed between the adjective many, and a singular noun; as,

"Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
"The dark unfathom’d caves of ocean bear:
"Full many a flow’r is born to blush unseen,
"And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

In these lines, the phrases, many a gem, and many a flow’r, refer to many gems and many flowers, separately, not collectively considered.

3. The definitive the is employed before names, to limit their signification to one or more specific things of the kind, discriminated from others of the same kind. Hence, the person or thing is understood by the reader or hearer; as, the twelve Apostles, the laws of morality, the rules of good breeding.

This definitive is also used with names of things which exist alone, or which we consider as single; as, the Jews, the Sun, the Globe, the Ocean; and also before words when used by way of distinction; as, the Church, the Temple.

4. The is used rhetorically before a name in the singular number, to denote the whole species, or an indefinite number; as, "the fig-tree putteth forth her green figs."

MODIFICATIONS.

Modifications are those forms a word assumes, or changes it undergoes, to express its attributes, or relations to other words.

Nouns have modifications of four kinds, namely: Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

OF GENDER.

§18. Gender is that modification which distinguishes nouns, with regard to sex, and belongs only to names of animals. Animals have two sexes; male and female.
ETYMOLOGY.

There are two* genders, the Masculine and Feminine.
The Masculine gender denotes animals of the male kind; 
as, a man, a hero, a tiger.
The Feminine Gender denotes animals of the female kind; 
as, a woman, a duck, a hen.

Some nouns, the names of inanimate things, are, by a 
figure of speech, converted into the masculine or feminine 
gender; as, when we say of the sun, he is setting; of a 
ship, she sails well.

Figuratively, in the English tongue, we commonly give the masu-
cline gender to nouns which are conspicuous for the attributes of impart-
ing or communicating, and which are by nature strong and efficacious.
Those, again, are made feminine, which are conspicuous for the attri-
butes of containing or bringing forth, or which are peculiarly beautiful 
or amiable. Upon these principles, the sun is said to be masculine, 
and the moon, being the receptacle of the sun's light, to be feminine.
The earth is generally feminine. A ship, a country, a city, &c. are 
likewise made feminine, being receivers or containers. Time is always 
masculine, on account of its mighty efficacy. Virtue is feminine from 
its beauty, and its being the object of love. Fortune and the church 
are generally put in the feminine gender.

*Grammarians have exceedingly erred in admitting three genders in the Eng-
lish language, which evidence of two only. Their fondness for the An-
cient languages, and the servility which has too frequently been observed in 
copying from these languages, have led them into this error. In the Greek and 
Latin, and some modern languages, the gender of nouns is determined directly 
by their terminations, and the terms masculine and feminine are applied to inani-
mate objects, no regard whatever being had to sex. It may be manifestly proper, 
therefore, in the Greek or Latin, to admit a neuter gender. But the English, 
strictly following the order of nature, puts every name which denotes a male ani-
mal, in the masculine gender, and every name of a female animal, in the fem-
inine gender. This gives our language a superior advantage to most others, in 
the poetical and rhetorical style; for when inanimate things are figuratively con-
verted into masculine or feminine, the personification is more distinctly and for-
cibly marked; and furthermore, the gender is easily and naturally determined, 
without being encumbered by a host of terminations and scores of exception-
able rules. As things without life have no sex, and as the supposition would be 
an absurdity to gross for the credulity of the plainest understanding, gender 
ought never to be spoken of in relation to them, any more than case of adjectives, 
or comparison of verbs.

It has been contended by some grammarians, that the word gender denotes sim-
ply kind or sort, and that, as there may be three kinds of nouns, one the names 
of males, another the names of females, and a third the names of things which 
are neither; so there must be three genders. But this is to mistake the true sense 
of the word, which means a sex, male or female, and not kind; its use in the 
latter sense having been long ago discarded. In this sense the word is laid down 
by our best lexicographers, and its origin, from the Latin genusa, from geno, gigno, 
(Greek genese) to beget, to produce, imports that sex is its true signification.
Besides, this is the sense in which we constantly use it. We never inquire the 
gender of fences, of carts, or of any inanimate thing, but only of animals which 
have sex. But if it is contended still, that in Grammar, it must have a different 
signification, and means sort or kind, we reply that in this sense, it can properly 
have reference only to the distinction of sex as expressed by different words, or 
by a different termination of the same word; and as in English, nouns are varied 
in respect to gender, only to express sex; so, as there are but two sexes, there can 
be but two genders.

The writer has considered, since the first edition of this work, the best things 
that have been said in favor of three genders, (some make four or five,) but he 
sees no substantial reason for changing his original opinion.
PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. II.

[In this exercise, let the pupil distinguish the nouns which have gender from those which have not, and also tell which are masculine and which are feminine.]

"Moses was the meekest man we read of in the Old Testament."

"A mother’s tenderness and a father’s care, are nature’s gifts for man’s advantage."

"Peter, John and Andrew’s occupation was that of fishermen."

"Herod laid hold on John, and put him in prison for Herodias’ sake, his brother Philip’s wife."

"A profligate man is seldom or never found to be a good husband, a good father, or a beneficent neighbor."

"A son bred in sloth, becomes a spendthrift, and a profligate, and goes out of the world a beggar."


Modes of distinguishing Gender.

§19. The English language has three methods of distinguishing the sex, viz.

1. By different words; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male.</th>
<th>Female.</th>
<th>Male.</th>
<th>Female.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Maid</td>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>Wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boar</td>
<td>Sow</td>
<td>King</td>
<td>Queen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>Lad</td>
<td>Less</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>Lord</td>
<td>Lady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buck</td>
<td>Doe</td>
<td>Man</td>
<td>Woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bull</td>
<td>Cow</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>Mistress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullock or</td>
<td>Heifer</td>
<td>Milter</td>
<td>Spawner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steer</td>
<td></td>
<td>Nephew</td>
<td>Niece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cock</td>
<td>Hen</td>
<td>Ram</td>
<td>Ewe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Dog         | Bitch       | Singer      | Songstress or\*
| Drake       | Duck        | Sloven      | Singer      |
| Earl        | Countess    | Son         | Slut        |
| Father      | Mother      | Stag        | Daughter    |
| Friar       | Nun         | Uncle       | Hind        |
| Gander      | Goose       | Wizard      | Aunt        |
| Hart        | Roe         |             |             |
| Horse       | Mare        |             | Witch       |

2*
2. By a difference of termination; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abbot</td>
<td>Abbess</td>
<td>Jew</td>
<td>Jewess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>Actress</td>
<td>Landgrave</td>
<td>Landgravine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator</td>
<td>Administratrix</td>
<td>Lion</td>
<td>Lioness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adulterer</td>
<td>Adultrix</td>
<td>Marquis</td>
<td>Marchioness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambassador</td>
<td>Ambassadress</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>Mistress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arbiter</td>
<td>Arbitress</td>
<td>Mayor</td>
<td>Mayoress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baron</td>
<td>Baroness</td>
<td>Patron</td>
<td>Patroness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridegroom</td>
<td>Bride</td>
<td>Peer</td>
<td>Peeress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefactor</td>
<td>Benefactress</td>
<td>Poet</td>
<td>Poetess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caterer</td>
<td>Cateress</td>
<td>Priest</td>
<td>Priestess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chanter</td>
<td>Chantress</td>
<td>Prince</td>
<td>Princess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conductor</td>
<td>Conductress</td>
<td>Prior</td>
<td>Prioress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Countess</td>
<td>Prophet</td>
<td>Prophetess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deacon</td>
<td>Deaconess</td>
<td>Protector</td>
<td>Protectress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duke</td>
<td>Duchess</td>
<td>Shepherd</td>
<td>Shepherdess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Editor</td>
<td>Editress</td>
<td>Songster</td>
<td>Songstress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elector</td>
<td>Electress</td>
<td>Sorcerer</td>
<td>Sorceress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emperor</td>
<td>Empress</td>
<td>Sultan</td>
<td>Sultaness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enchanter</td>
<td>Enchantress</td>
<td>Tiger</td>
<td>Tigress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executor</td>
<td>Executrix</td>
<td>Traitor</td>
<td>Traitress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governor</td>
<td>Governess</td>
<td>Tutor</td>
<td>Tutoress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heir</td>
<td>Heiress</td>
<td>Viscount</td>
<td>Viscountess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hero</td>
<td>Heroine</td>
<td>Votary</td>
<td>Votaress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunter</td>
<td>Huntress</td>
<td>Widower</td>
<td>Widow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

- A cock-sparrow
- A hen-sparrow
- A man-servant
- A maid-servant
- A he-goat
- A she-goat
- A he-bear
- A she-bear
- A male child
- A female child
- Male descendants
- Female descendants

It sometimes happens that the same noun is either masculine or feminine. The words *parent, child, cousin, friend, neighbor, servant,* and several others, are used indifferently for males or females. These words cannot properly be said to denote a distinct species of gender, as some writers on English grammar have asserted, designating them the *common gender.* There is no such gender belonging to the language. Parsing can be effectually performed without it. Thus, we may say; *Parents* is a noun of the masculine and feminine gender. *Parent,* if doubtful, is of the masculine or feminine gender; and *Parent,* if the gender is known by the construction, is of the gender so ascertained.

The names of males, or nouns in the masculine gender, are often used in a comprehensive sense, including both sexes; as, "*man is mortal," "the poets of America.*" The masculine gender is always to be used, when the profession, calling, or office of the individual, and not the sex, is to be expressed. In speaking of animals in general, when we have no respect to sex, we give the masculine gender to
Nouns—Number.

those characterized for strength, size, or boldness; and the feminine
gender to those distinguished for weakness or timidity. Thus, we say,
"The horse knoweth his owner." The sheep warms us with her
fleece."

Nouns with variable terminations contribute to conciseness and
perspicuity of expression. We have only a sufficient number of
them to make us feel our want; for when we say of a woman, she is
a philosopher, an astronomer, a builder, a weaver, we perceive an
impropriety in the termination, which we cannot avoid; but we can
say that she is a botanist, a student, a witness, a scholar, an orphan,
accompainment, because these terminations have not annexed to them
the notion of sex.

Of Number.

§20. Number is that modification of a noun, by which we
determine how many are meant, whether one or more.

There are two numbers, the singular and the plural.
The singular number expresses but one object; as, a chair,
a table.
The plural number signifies more objects than one; as,
chairs, tables.

Some nouns, from the nature of the things which they
express, are used only in the singular form; as, wheat, pitch,
sloth, pride, &c.; others, only in the plural form; as, bellow,
scissors, lungs, riches, &c.

Some words are the same in both numbers; as, dear,
sheep, swine, &c.

The plural number of nouns is generally formed by adding
s to the singular; as, dove, doves; face, faces; thought,
thoughts. But when the substantive singular ends in x, ch
soft, sh, ss, or s, we add es in the plural; as, box, boxes;
church, churches; lash, lashes; kiss, kisses; rebus, rebusses.
If the singular ends in ch hard, the plural is formed by add-
ing s; as, monarch, monarchs; distich, distichs.

Nouns which end in o, have sometimes es added to the plural; as,
cargo, echo, hero, negro, manifesto, potato, volcano, wo; and sometimes
only s; as, folio, nuncio, punctilio.

Nouns ending in f, or fe, are rendered plural by the change of
those terminations into ves; as, loaf, loaves; half, halves; wife, wives;
except grief, relief, reproof, and several others, which form the plural
by the addition of s. Those which end in ff, have the regular plural;
as, ruff, ruffs; except staff, staves.

Nouns which have y in the singular, with no other vowel in the
same syllable, change it into ies in the plural;* as, beauty, beauties; fly,
flies. But the y is not changed when there is another vowel in the syllable; as, key, keys; attorney, attorneys.

Some nouns become plural by changing the a of the singular into e; as, man, men; woman, women; alderman, aldermen. The words, oz and child form oxen and children; brother, makes either brothers or brethren. Sometimes the diphthong oo is changed into ee in the plural; as, foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth. Louse and mouse make lice and mice. Penny makes pence, or pennies, when the coin is meant; die, dice (for play); die, dies; (for coining.) Peas denote the seeds as distinct objects; pease, the seeds in mass. Brothers is used in common discourse; brethren, in the scripture style, but is not restricted to it.

The following words are used wholly in the singular, or in the singular and plural, at the pleasure of the writer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amends</th>
<th>Wages</th>
<th>Conics</th>
<th>Tactics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alms</td>
<td>Billiards</td>
<td>Catoptrics</td>
<td>Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bellows</td>
<td>Fives</td>
<td>Dioptrics</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gallows</td>
<td>Sessions</td>
<td>Acoustics</td>
<td>Mechanics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odds</td>
<td>Measles</td>
<td>Pneumatics</td>
<td>Hydraulics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means</td>
<td>Hysteric</td>
<td>Statics</td>
<td>Hydrostatics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pains</td>
<td>Physics</td>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>Analytics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News</td>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>Spheres</td>
<td>Politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riches</td>
<td>Optics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of these, pains, riches, and wages are more usually considered as plural—news is always singular—odds and means are either singular or plural. The others are more properly singular; for measles is the name of a disease, and, in strictness, no more plural than gout or fever. Small pox, for pocks, is sometimes considered as a plural, but it ought to be used as singular. Billiards has the sense of game, containing unity of idea; and ethics, physics and other similar names, comprehending each the whole system of a particular science, do not convey the ideas of parts or particular branches, but of a whole collectively, a unity; and hence seem to be treated as words belonging to the singular number. Pains, preceded by much, is always singular.

§21. The following words, which have been adopted from the Hebrew, Greek and Latin languages, are thus distinguished, with respect to number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antithesis</td>
<td>Antitheses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automaton</td>
<td>Automata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basis</td>
<td>Bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis</td>
<td>Crises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criterion</td>
<td>Criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diuresis</td>
<td>Diureses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellipsis</td>
<td>Ellipses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis</td>
<td>Emphases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis</td>
<td>Hypotheses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metamorphosis</td>
<td>Metamorphoses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effluvium</td>
<td>Effluvia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encomium</td>
<td>Encomia or Encomiums</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errata</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genius*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genera</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indices or Index</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lamina</td>
<td>Lamine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Genii, when denoting aerial spirits. Geniuses, when signifying persons of genius.
† Indexes, when it signifies pointers, or tables of contents. Indices, when referring to Algebraic quantities.
### Nouns—Person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phenomenon</td>
<td>Phenomena</td>
<td>Magus</td>
<td>Magi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Appendix  | Appendices or Memorandum | Memoranda or
|           | Appendices    | Memoranda |                |
| Arcanum   | Arcana        | Radius    | Radiusi        |
| Axis      | Axes          | Stamen    | Stamina        |
| Calx      | Calxes or Calces Stratum | Strata |
| Datum     | Data          | Vortex    | Vortices       |

*Cherubim* and *Seraphim* are real Hebrew plurals; but such is the propensity in men to form regular inflections in language, that these words are used as in the singular, with regular plurals, cherubims, seraphims. In like manner, the Hebrew singulars, *cherub* and *seraph*, have obtained regular plurals.

The influence of this principle is very obvious in other foreign words, which the sciences have enlisted into our service; as may be observed in the words *radius*, *focus*, *index*, *stamen*, *criterion*, *stratum*, &c., which now begin to be used with regular English plural terminations. This tendency to regularity is, by all means, to be encouraged; for a prime excellence in language is the uniformity of its inflections.

Some words, derived from the learned languages, are confined to the plural number; as, *antipodes*, *credenda*, *literati*, *minutiae*.

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

#### Practical Exercise—No. III.

[The pupil will give the number of the nouns in these sentences; also tell which are proper and which common, and name the gender, in case the noun has it.]

"The chief misfortunes which befall us in life, can be traced to some vices or follies which we have committed."

"When sickness, infirmity, or reverses of fortune, affect us, the sincerity of friendship is proved."

"Wise men measure time by their improvement of it."

"Many a trap is laid to ensnare the feet of youth."

"Hypocrizes are like wolves in sheeps' clothing."

"The measles and small pox are contagious, and often fatal diseases."

"Wisdom secures the decays of age from aversion."

"Valleys are generally more fertile than hills."

"Xenophonera preferred reputation to wealth."

### Of Person.

§22. Persons, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish the speaker, the hearer, and the individual or thing spoken of.

The distinction of persons is founded on the different relations which nouns sustain to the discourse itself. Persons are applied also to pronouns and finite verbs. Pronouns must agree with their antecedents, in person, and verbs with their subjects.

There are three persons; the first, second and third.
ETYMOLOGY.

The first person denotes the person speaking; as, "I Paul have written."
The second person denotes the person spoken to; as, "John, come here."
The third person denotes the person spoken of; as, "James loves his book."

In written language, the first person denotes the writer, except when the writer describes himself, using the third person; and the second person, the reader.

When inanimate things are spoken to, they are said to be personified, and their names are put in the second person.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. IV.

[The student will distinguish the gender, number and person of the nouns in these sentences; also tell which are proper and which common]

"I Paul, an apostle of Jesus Christ, unto Timothy, my own son in the faith."

"Personal liberty is every man's natural birthright."

"And thou Solomon, my son, know thou the God of thy father, and serve him with a perfect heart, and with a willing mind."

"The guilty mind cannot avoid many melancholy apprehensions."

"Thou, Alexander, though styled the conqueror of the world, wast in fact a robber and a murderer."

"O piety! virtue! how insensible have I been to your charms!"

"The Saxons reduced the greater part of Britain to their own power."

"Ambition is inatiable: it will make any sacrifice to attain its object."

"Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense, Lie in three words, health, peace and competence."

"O my father and friend! how I have dishonored thee!"

"High seasoned food vitiates the palate, and occasions a disrelish for plain fare."

OF CASE.

§23. Cases are modifications which denote the relations that nouns sustain to other words.

There are three cases: the nominative, possessive, and objective.

The nominative case simply expresses the name of a thing, or the subject of the verb; as, "the boy plays;" "the girls learn."

The subject of a verb is usually the agent, or actor. Its position, in general, is before the verb.

The possessive case expresses the relation of property or possession; and has an apostrophe with the letter s coming after it; as, "The scholar's duty;" "My father's house."

When the plural ends in s, the other s is omitted, but the apostrophe is retained; as, "On eagles' wings;" "The drapers' company."
NOUNS—CASE—DECLENSION. 31

Sometimes, also, when the singular terminates in as, the apostrophe s is not added; as, “for goodness’ sake;” “for righteousness’ sake.”

When the letter s added as the sign of the possessive, will coalesce with the name, it is pronounced in the same syllable; as, John’s. But if it will not coalesce, it adds a syllable to the word; as, Thomas’s bravery, pronounced as if written Thomasis—the church’s prosperity, churchis prosperity.

The termination of the possessive, to wit, the ’s, is an abbreviation of the old English termination, is, for the same case. The apostrophe here, therefore, performs the same office as elsewhere, denoting the omission of a letter. Some affirm, however, that the possessive termination is a contraction of the pronoun his.

As a proof of the utility of distinguishing the possessive plural by an apostrophe, we need only recur to a few common phrases.

“All the ships masts were blown away.”

“All the trees leaves were blown off.”

In these, and similar phrases, it is only the apostrophe, placed before or after the s, that determines the ships and trees to be singular or plural.

The objective case expresses the object of an action, or of a relation; and generally follows a verb active, or a preposition; as, “John assists Charles;” “They live in London.”

Both this case and the nominative, as they are not distinguished by inflections, can be known only by their position, or the sense of the passage in which they occur.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. V.

[In these sentences, the pupil will name the number, person and case of each noun.]

“Moses’ rod was turned into a serpent.”

“She who studies her glass neglects her heart.”

“Wisdom’s precepts form the good man’s interest and happiness.”

“A well-spent day prepares us for sweet repose.”

“Good men pass by offences and take no revenge.”

“Graceful in youth are the tears of sympathy, and the heart that melts at the tale of wo.”

“If the mind sow not corn, it will plant thistles.”

“Wisdom is justified of her children.”

Declension of Nouns.

§24. The declension of a noun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases.

Nouns are declined in the following manner:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mother.</td>
<td>mothers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mother’s.</td>
<td>mothers’.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the man.</td>
<td>the men.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the man’s.</td>
<td>the men’s</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ETYMOLGY.

Objective Case.  
Singular.  
the man.  

Plural.  
the men.  

Nominative Case.  
horse.  

Possessive Case.  
horse's.  

Objective Case.  
horse.  

Nominative Case.  
fox.  

Possessive Case.  
fox's.  

Objective Case.  
fox.  

Nominative Case.  
money.  

Possessive Case.  
money's.  

Objective Case.  
money.  

Nominative Case.  
Peter.  

Possessive Case.  
Peter's.  

Objective Case.  
Peter.

The plural of the preceding proper name, and of others for the most part, is wanting.

The English language, to express different connexions and relations of one thing to another, uses, for the most part, prepositions. The Greek and Latin among the ancient, and some too among the modern languages, as the German, vary the termination or ending of the substantive, to answer the same purpose.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. VI.

[Decline the nouns in these sentences, and mention the gender, number, person and case of each.]

"Rocks, mountains and caverns are of indispensable use both to the earth and to man."

"A well-poised mind makes a cheerful countenance."

"How many disappointments have, in their consequences, saved men from ruin."

"Jacob worshiped, leaning on the top of his staff."

"The last king of Rome was Tarquinius Superbus."

"The pyramids of Egypt have stood more than three thousand years."

"Meekness controls our angry passions; candor our severe judgements."

"When so good a man as Socrates fell a victim to the madness of the people, truth, virtue, and religion, fell with him."

"Old age will prove a joyless and dreary season, if we arrive at it with an unimproved or a corrupted mind."

"Health, peace, a moderate fortune and a few friends, sum up all the undoubted articles of temporal felicity."

"Learning strengthens the mind, and, if properly applied, will improve our morals also."

"Fear God and keep his commandments; for this is the whole duty of man."

NOTE. Practical exercises of the preceding character constitute what Grammarians call Etymological Parsing. They are chiefly valuable in that they afford the student a practical application of what he learns in the text, of the parts of speech and their attributes, and
ADJECTIVES.

will thus serve not only to familiarize him with the text, but often to give him juster notions and clearer conceptions of certain parts of it, than he would otherwise be able to obtain. Some of the exercises already given, as also some which may follow, may be found rather difficult for the young learner; but the teacher will be able to afford him such helps as he may need. These exercises, or others equivalent, are never to be omitted with the beginner, and should be attended to, as often as he reviews his grammar, until his proficiency in Etymology shall render it no longer necessary.

CHAPTER III.

OF ADJECTIVES.

§25. An adjective is a word used with a noun, to point it out, describe or modify its meaning; as, an honest man; the industrious women.

Adjectives are of various kinds; as, Proper, Participial, Compound and Numerical.

A proper adjective is one derived from a proper noun; as, American, Irish, Ciceronean.

A participial adjective is one that has the form of a participle, but not the idea of time; as, the rising sun; an interesting child.

Compound adjectives are such as consist of two or more words connected by a hyphen; as, olive-brown, swift-winged, light-hearted.

A numeral adjective is one that expresses a definite number; as, one, two, three, &c.; also, first, second, third, fourth, &c.

Numeral adjectives are of two kinds; to wit, Cardinal and Ordinal. The first are used in counting, and show how many are meant; as, one, four, ten, twenty, fifty. The second determine the order of any rank or series, and answer the question, “which of the number?” They are first, second, third, fourth, &c.

An adjective put without a substantive, with the definitive the before it, becomes a substantive in sense and meaning, and is written as a substantive; as, “Providence rewards the good, and punishes the bad.”

Various nouns placed before other nouns, assume the nature of adjectives; as, sea fish, wine vessel, corn field, meadow ground, &c.; and in parsing may be construed as such.
Variation of Adjectives.—Degrees of Comparison.

§26. The only variation which adjectives admit of, is that of degrees of comparison.

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

Grammarians have generally enumerated three degrees of comparison; but the first of them has been thought by some writers, to be improperly termed a degree of comparison; as it seems to be nothing more than the simple form of an adjective, and not to imply either comparison or degree. This opinion may be well founded, unless the adjective be supposed to imply comparison or degree, by containing a secret or general reference to other things; as, when we say, "He is a tall man," "This is a fair day," we make some reference to the ordinary size of men, and to different weather.

The Positive degree simply denotes the quality of an object, without comparison with any other object; as, good, wise, great.

The Comparative degree shows that the object spoken of, possesses the quality denoted by the adjective, in a higher or lower degree, than some other object with which it is compared; as, wiser, greater, less wise.

The Superlative degree shows that the object possesses the quality denoted by the adjective, in the highest or lowest degree; as, wisest, greatest, least wise.

The termination ish may be accounted in some measure a degree of comparison, by which the signification is diminished below the positive; as, black, blackish, or tending to blackness; salt, saltish, or having a little taste of salt.

The word rather is very properly used to express a small degree or excess of a quality; as, "She is rather profuse in her expenses."

Very expresses a high degree of comparison; as, very swift, very sweet.

Certain adjectives have in themselves the superlative degree, and cannot be compared; as, right, eternal, immortal, endless.

Numeral adjectives, also, do not admit of comparison; as, one, two, fifth, eighth, triple.

Double comparatives and superlatives contribute nothing to the sense, and should never be used; as, worse, most wisest, more higher, &c.

Comparison.

§27. The simple word, or positive, becomes the comparative, by adding r or er; and superlative, by adding st or est, to the end of it; as, wise, wiser, wisest; great, greater, greatest. And the adverbs more and most, placed before the adjective, have the same effect; as, wise, more wise, most wise.
Adjectives are compared negatively by the adverbs, less and least; as, wise, less wise, least wise.

Monosyllables, for the most part, are compared by er and est; disyllables, and polysyllables, by more and most, less and least; as, mild, milder, mildest; frugal, more frugal, most frugal; admirable, less admirable, least admirable.

Dissyllables ending in y, as, happy, lovely, and in le after a mute, as, able, ample; or accented on the last syllable, as, discreet, polite; easily admit of er and est; as, happier, happiest; able, ablest; politer, politest. Words of more than two syllables hardly ever admit of those terminations, but are compared by more and most, less and least.

Irregular Comparison.

A few adjectives have different words or irregular terminations for expressing the degrees of comparison; as, good, better, best; bad or evil, worse, worst; fore, former, first; little, less, or lesser, least; much, more, most; near, nearer, nearest or next; old, older, oldest or eldest; late, later, latest, or last.

In some words the superlative is formed by adding the adverb most to the end of them; as, nethermost, uttermost, or utmost, undermost, uppermost, foremost.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. VII.

[The student will point out the adjectives in the sentences following, and also compare them, if they admit of comparison.]

"The young bird, raising its open mouth for food, is a natural indication of corporeal want."

"No sensual, or worldly enjoyments are adequate to the high desires and powers of an immortal spirit."

"The moral system of nature, or natural religion, commands the approbation of the reasonable mind."

"The Alleghany and the Monongahela rivers form the majestic Ohio."

"A temperate, industrious and frugal life seldom fails to render man comfortable and happy."

"Extensive fields of waving corn, form a rich and pleasant prospect."

"Washington was a man of the greatest prudence, the most exact justice, the most rigid probity and the soundest virtue."

"Nothing promotes knowledge more than a steady application, and a habit of close observation and calm reflection."

"By a cheerful, candid and uniform temper, we promote health, and conciliate general favor."

"Generosity is a showy virtue, of which many persons are very fond."

Note 1.—Adjectives which partake in some measure of the properties of pronouns, or which in some instances perform the office of pronouns, though they may, more strictly speaking, belong to the class of words we have been considering, will be reserved for consid-
eration in the following chapter. On the account of their peculiar character, they are called adjective pronouns. Some, however, choose to denominate them pronominal (pronoun) adjectives, and have placed them in the list of adjectives. There seems to be scarcely sufficient gained by this change of name and place, to warrant such innovation, and it is thought best, therefore, to consider the words in question, under the name and rank, which respectable authority and long custom have sanctioned.

Note II.—The words the, an or a, are regarded in this work, as the student has no doubt observed, as adjectives. In their signification, they fully harmonise with the definition of the adjective. The, in its general sense, is nearly related to that; as the man, that man. A or an corresponds in meaning to one; as, a boy, one boy. These words, however, cannot be used independently of a noun, as is the case with that and one, but always require that a noun be expressed immediately after them.

CHAPTER IV.

OF PRONOUNS.

§28. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word; as, "The man is happy; he is benevolent; he is useful."

The pronoun is also used to represent a sentence, a part of a sentence, and sometimes even a series of propositions; as, "His friend bore the abuse very patiently, which served to increase his rudeness; it produced at length contempt and insolence."

There are three classes of pronouns, viz: the Personal, the Relative and Adjective Pronouns.

1. A Personal pronoun is one, which by its form, shows what person it is of: Thus, I is always of the first person, you or thou, of the second, and he, she or it, of the third.

2. A Relative pronoun is one, that relates in general to some antecedent word or phrase, in the place of which it stands; as, "The man is happy who lives virtuously."

3. An Adjective pronoun is one, that partakes of the properties both of an adjective and pronoun; being sometimes used chiefly to limit or point out nouns, and at others, to occupy their place as a pronoun; as, "Some men desire pleasure as their chief good." "This is the road to pleasure; that to fame."

The word or phrase, for which a pronoun stands, is called the antecedent, because it usually precedes the pronoun in position.
PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Some grammarians have added to the above a class of Interrogative pronouns; but from the near resemblance of the words comprised under it, to Relative pronouns, there seems to be no good reason for such a classification. [See farther on this subject under article, Relative pronouns.]

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. VIII.

[Name the pronouns in these sentences, and, if you are able, tell the class to which each belongs.]

"We must act our part with constancy, though the reward of our constancy be distant."

"Esteeming themselves wise they became fools."

"Thou art the Lord, who didst choose Abraham, and bring him forth out of Ur of the Chaldees."

"How many sorrows should we avoid, if we were not industrious to make them!"

"Each leaf, each twig and every drop of water, teems with life."

"From the character of those with whom you associate, your own will be estimated."

OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§29. There are five Personal Pronouns, viz: I, you, or thou, he, she, it; with their plurals, we, you, they.

Personal pronouns admit of person, number, gender and case.

The persons of pronouns are three in each number, viz:

\[\begin{align*}
\text{I} & \text{ is the first person} \\
\text{You or thou,} & \text{ is the second person } \\
\text{He, she or it,} & \text{ is the third person } \\
\text{We} & \text{ is the first person} \\
\text{You} & \text{ is the second person} \\
\text{They} & \text{ is the third person} \\
\end{align*}\]

This account of persons will be very intelligible, when we reflect, that there are three persons who may be the subject of any discourse: first, the person who speaks, may speak of himself; secondly, he may speak of the person to whom he addresses himself; thirdly, he may speak of some other person: and as the speakers, the persons spoken to, and the other persons spoken of, may be many, so each of these persons must have the plural number.

The numbers of pronouns, like those of substantives, are two, the singular and the plural; as, I, thou, he; we, you, they.

Long established custom has allowed rulers, editors and some other dignitaries, when acting in the discharge of the duties of their office, to use the plural we instead of I.

You, in the second person, is used both in the singular and plural number. The old forms for the singular, thou, thy and thine, are now
wholly discarded in ordinary language, and their use confined alone to Scripture, and the solemn style. Some grammarians are attempting to revive them, but public usage has pronounced sentence upon them, and the attempt will be as fruitless, as unwise and useless. Ye, the old form for the second person plural, is now as a substantive pronoun, nearly obsolete, and is, therefore, not admitted in the declension of the Personal pronouns. It has another use in common with thou and you, which will be subsequently noticed. [See §33, Demonstrative Pronouns.]

Gender has respect only to the third person of the pronouns, he she and they. He is masculine; she is feminine. They, applied to animals, is masculine or feminine.

It, of the third person, is generally a substitute for names of inanimate things, and therefore, is not regarded as denoting any gender. When, however, it is used in reference to animals, it admits of gender.

The persons speaking and spoken to, being at the same time the subjects of the discourse, are supposed to be present; from which, and other circumstances, their sex is commonly known, and needs not to be marked by a distinction of gender in the pronouns; but the third person or thing spoken of, being absent, and in many respects unknown, it seems necessary that it should be marked by a distinction of gender; at least when some particular person or thing is spoken of.

Pronouns have three cases; the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

The personal pronouns are declined as follows, viz:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>We</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>My</td>
<td>Our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>Us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>You or Thou</td>
<td>You</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>Your or Thy</td>
<td>Your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>You or Thee</td>
<td>You</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>They</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>Their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Him</td>
<td>Them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>She</td>
<td>They</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>Her</td>
<td>Their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Her</td>
<td>Them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>They</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Gender</td>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>Its</td>
<td>Their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>Them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Mine and thine were formerly used instead of my and thy, before a word beginning with a vowel or silent A. Instances of this use are found in both the Old and New Testaments, and in books of ancient date.

Mine, Thine, His, Hers, Ours, Yours, Theirs.

§ 30. These pronouns have, in general, been regarded as in the possessive case. The first three are so, when joined to nouns; as, mine oxen; thine house; his servants;—but the last four are universally pronouns in the nominative or objective case; as also the first three, except in the instances mentioned.

That mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours and theirs, do not constitute a possessive, with the exception of mine, thine and his, above alluded to, is demonstrable; for they are constantly used as the nominatives of verbs, and as the objectives after verbs and prepositions, as in the following passages:

"Whether it could perform its operations of thinking and memory out of a body organised as ours is."—Locke, b. 2. 27.

"In referring our ideas to those of other men called by the same name, ours may be false."—"It is for no other reason but that his agrees not with our ideas."—Ibm. ch. 32. 9 and 10.

"You may imagine what kind of faith theirs was."—Bacon. Unity in Religion.

"He ran headlong into his own ruin whilst he endeavored to precipitate ours."—Bolingbroke. Let. to Windham.

"The reason is, that his subject is generally things; theirs, on the contrary, is persons."—Camp. Rhet. b. 1. ch. 10.

"Yours of the 20th Oct. I have received, as I have always done yours, with no little satisfaction."—Wyckerley to Pope.

"Therefore leave your forest of beasts for ours of brutes, called men."—Ibm.

"These return so much better out of your hands than they went from mine."—Ibm.

"Your letter of the 20th of this month, like the rest of yours—tells me with so much more wit, sense and kindness than mine can express," &c.—Ibm.

"Having good works enough of your own besides to ensure yours and their kindness."—Ibm.

"The omission of repetitions is but one, and the easiest part of yours and of my design."—Pope to Wyckerley.

"My sword and yours are kin.—Shakespeare.

It is needless to multiply proofs. We observe these pretended possessives uniformly used as nominatives or objectives. To say that, in these passages, ours, yours, theirs and mine, form a possessive case, is to make the possessive perform the office of a nominative case to verbs, and an objective case after verbs and prepositions—a manifest solecism.

Should it be said that a noun is understood; I reply, this cannot be true, in regard to the grammatical construction; for, supply the noun for which the word is a substitute, and the pronoun must be changed.

If yours, ours, theirs, &c., are real possessives, then the same word
admits of two signs of the case; for we say correctly, "An acquaintance of yours, ours, or theirs"—of being the sign of the possessive; but if the words in themselves are possessives, then there must be two signs of the same case, which is absurd.

In addition to the proofs already alleged, that these words are not the possessive case, according to the usual acceptation of the word, we may remark that mine, thine and his, in the following passages—"The silver is mine, and the gold is mine." "The day is thine, and the night also is thine." The Lord knoweth them that are his."—do not stand in the place of, of me, of thee, of him. The silver is of me, the gold is of me, the day is of thee, the Lord knoweth them that are of him, do not convey the same ideas, as the present form of expression. Of; in these expressions, would rather imply proceeding from.

Besides, the same words admit the sign of the possessive; as, "And the man of thine, whom I shall not cut off from mine altar." "Sing to the Lord, all ye saints of his." "He that heareth these sayings of mine." When we say, "A soldier of the king's," we mean one of the king's soldiers; and in the passage here cited from Samuel, "the man of thine," has a like sense—"the man of thy men," that is, any one of them. But in the passages from Psalms and Matthew, the words "all ye saints of his," "these sayings of mine," are evidently meant to include the whole number. It is therefore impossible to resolve these passages, without considering mine, thine and his as substitutes, in the same case, as the nouns would be, which they represent.

We sometimes see the pronouns, hers, ours, yours, theirs, written with an apostrophe before the s; as, her's, our's, &c.; as if to substantiate the doctrine that they are in the possessive case. But this mode of writing them is incorrect, and no scholar allows himself to practice it.*

**OF COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.**

§31. Compound Personal Pronouns are such as are formed by adding the word self for the singular, and selves for the plural, to some of the variations of the personal pronouns.

They have gender, number, person and case, except the possessive, and are thus declined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Myself</td>
<td>Ourselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Myself</td>
<td>Ourselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Yourself or Thyself</td>
<td>Yourselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Yourself or Thyself</td>
<td>Yourselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third, Mas.</td>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Himself</td>
<td>Themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Himself</td>
<td>Themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Herself</td>
<td>Themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third, No</td>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Itself</td>
<td>Themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj.</td>
<td>Itself</td>
<td>Themselves.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The larger portion of the preceding Section is from the Grammar of Dr. Noah Webster.*
PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. IX.

[Decline the personal and compound personal pronouns in these sentences; and also give the number, person and case of each.]

"Whether virtue promotes our interest or not, we must adhere to her dictates."  
"If you are like the wise and prudent man, your words, like his, will be few and well chosen."  
"He who knows himself best, will best encounter the ills and disquietudes of human life."  
"Integrity itself is of more worth than many kingdoms."  
"Study to know thyself, that thou mayest be wise."  
"I myself will awake right early."

OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§32. The Relative Pronouns are, who, which, and that.  
Who is applied to persons, which, to animals and inanimate things; as, "He is a friend, who is faithful in adversity;" "The bird, which sung so sweetly, is flown;" "This is the tree, which produces no fruit."

Which is sometimes used in speaking of persons, when we wish to distinguish between two or more; as, "Which of the two, think ye, that I am?"

That is often used to prevent the too frequent repetition of who and which, and also for euphony. It is applied to both persons and things; as, "He that acts wisely deserves praise;" "Modesty is a quality that highly adorns a woman."

There are certain cases, in which that is preferable to who or which.

1. In speaking of children; as we can hardly ascribe to them the qualities of adults; as, "The child that obeys its parents, will be loved by them."

2. In speaking of persons and things together; as, "The man and the horse, that I saw, perished."

3. After the relative who; as, Who that asks aright, will not receive?"

4. After the adjective same, and superlative degree; as, "The same man, that I saw yesterday, I have seen to-day; "The wisest man that lived before Christ, was Socrates."  

That, as an objective, must always precede the verb or preposition, which governs it.

What is a kind of compound relative, including both the antecedent and the relative, and is generally equivalent to that which; as, "This is what I wanted;" that is to say, "the thing which I wanted."

Who is of both numbers, and is thus declined:

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

Singular and Plural.
Which, that and what, are likewise of both numbers, but they do not vary their terminations; except that whose is sometimes used as the possessive case of which; as, "Is there any other doctrine whose followers are punished?"

By the use of this license, one word is substituted for three; as, "Philosophy, whose end is to instruct us in the knowledge of nature," for, "Philosophy, the end of which is to instruct us," &c.

Who, which, and what, have sometimes the words soever and ever annexed to them; as, "whosoever or whoever, whichsoever or whichever, whatsoever or whatever;" in these instances they may be regarded as Compound Relatives.*

As, after the words, such, many, and same, and in a few other instances, has the force of a relative pronoun, and in parsing may be construed as such. "He took such books as pleased him." "The court gave the same judgement, as had once before been given." "The court grants to as many as apply, the rights of citizenship."

If we do not consider as, in these sentences, a relative, we must suppose an ellipsis of several words. Thus, the first sentence above would read, "He took such books as those books were which pleased him." It is preferable to construe it as a pronoun.

The word that is sometimes a relative, sometimes a demonstrative pronoun and sometimes a conjunction. It is a relative, when it may be changed into who or which without destroying the sense; as, "They that (who) reproved us, may be our best friends;" "From every thing that (which) you see, derive instruction." It is a demonstrative pronoun when it is followed immediately by a substantive, to which it is either joined, or refers, and which it limits or qualifies; as, "That boy is industrious;" "That belongs to me;" meaning, that book, that desk, &c. It is a conjunction, when it joins sentences together, and cannot be changed to who or which, without destroying the sense; as, "Take care that every day be well employed;" "I hope he will believe that I have not acted improperly."

The word what, likewise, is sometimes a compound relative, sometimes an adjective pronoun, and sometimes an interjection. It is a compound relative, when it may be changed into that which, the thing which, or those things which; as, "I took what (that which or the things which) you gave me." It is an adjective pronoun, when joined to a noun; as, "What strange things he said!" In some instances when joined to a noun, it has the force of two or more words, and is a compound adjective pronoun; as, "I know not what impressions time may have made upon your person,"—that is, "I know not those impressions which time," &c. It is an interjection, when used to express wonder; as, "What! repay a father's kindness with ingratitude!" What also is sometimes an interrogative pronoun, as will be seen by what follows.

*These words are compound in form; what, as a relative pronoun, is compound in signification.
ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Who, which and what, are called Interrogatives, when they are used in asking questions; as, "Who is he?" "Which is the book?" "What art thou doing?"

Some writers have classed the interrogatives as a separate kind of pronouns; but they are too nearly related to the relative pronouns, both in nature and form, to render such a division proper. They do not, in fact, lose the character of relatives, when they become interrogatives. The only difference is, that without interrogation, the relatives have reference to a subject which is antecedent, definite, and known; with an interrogation, to a subject which is subsequent, indefinite, and unknown, and which it is expected that the answer should express and ascertain.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. X.

[The pupil is required to tell which are the relative pronouns in these sentences, and the number, person and case of each.]

"For many walk of whom I have told you often, and now tell you even weeping, that they are the enemies of the cross of Christ; whose end is destruction, whose god is their belly, and whose glory is in their shame, who mind earthly things."

"Calumny and detraction are sparks which, if you do not blow them, will go out of themselves."

"He that would improve must be diligent."

"The master received into his school all such as came."

"He is like a beast of prey, that destroys without pity."

"The court that gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary."

"Which of those men came to his assistance."

OF ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

§33. Adjective Pronouns are divided into three classes, viz: the distributive, the demonstrative, and the indefinite.

I. Of the Distributive.

The distributive are those which denote the persons or things that make up a number, as taken separately and singly. They are each, every, either, and neither; as, "Each of his brothers is in a favorable situation;" "Every man must account for himself;" "I have not seen either of them."

Each relates to two or more persons or things, and signifies either of the two, or every one of a number taken separately.

Every relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them all taken separately. This pronoun was formerly used apart from its noun, but it is now constantly annexed to it, except in legal proceedings; as in the phrase, "all and every of them."

Either relates to two persons or things taken separately, and signifies the one or the other. To say, "either of the three," is therefore improper.
NEITHER imports "not either;" that is, not one nor the other; as, "Neither of my friends was there."

II. Of the Demonstrative.

The demonstrative are those which precisely point out the subjects to which they relate. They are this and that, these and those; as, "This is true charity; that is only its image."

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

This and that are of the singular number; these and those, of the plural.

The pronouns thou, you, and ye, in a certain use, seem more properly adjective pronouns, than personal pronouns in the nominative case, as they have usually been considered. They serve in the use referred to, to point out and give emphasis to the nouns following them, and, therefore, perform in the second person, what this, that, these and those do in the third. The sentences following afford illustrations of this use: "Thou child of the devil, thou enemy of all righteousness! wilt thou not cease to pervert the right ways of the Lord?" "Ye Swains, now hasten to the hazel bank." "Ye virgins, come." "Woe unto you, ye blind guides." "You despisers of the law! how can you expect to escape its vengeance?" In these sentences, and in others, where thou, you and ye, perform the same office, it is deemed most proper to parse them as demonstrative pronouns in the second person, instead of pronouns in the nominative case independent.

Perhaps the words former and latter may be properly ranked among the demonstrative pronouns, especially in many of their applications. The following sentence may serve as an example: "It was happy for the state, that Fabius continued in the command with Minucius; the former was a check upon the latter."

III. Of the Indefinite.

The indefinite are those which express their subjects in an indefinite or general manner. The following are of this kind: some, other, any, one, all, such, many, none, &c.

Of these pronouns, only the words one and other are varied. One has a possessive case, which it forms in the same manner as substantives: as, one, one's. This word has a general signification, meaning people at large; and sometimes also a peculiar reference to the person who is speaking; as, "One ought to pity the distresses of mankind." "One is apt to love one's self." This word is often used, by good writers, in the plural number: as, "The great ones of the world;" "The boy wounded the old bird, and stole the young ones; "My wife and the little ones are in good health."
ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Other is declined in the following manner:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>Other's</td>
<td>Others'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One is declined thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>Ones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>One's</td>
<td>Ones'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>Ones</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The plural others is only used when apart from the noun to which it refers, whether expressed or understood; as, "When you have perused these papers, I will send you the others." "He pleases some, but he disgusts others." When this pronoun is joined to nouns, either singular or plural, it has no variation; as, "the other man," "the other men."

The following phrases may serve to exemplify the indefinite pronouns. "Some of you are wise and good;" "A few of them were idle, the others industrious;" "Neither is there any that is unexceptionable;" "One ought to know one's own mind;" "They were all present;" "Such is the state of man, that he is never at rest;" "Some are happy, while others are miserable."

The word another is composed of an prefixed to the word other.

None is used in both numbers; as, "None is so deaf as he that will not hear;" "None of those are equal to these."

NOTE. We have endeavored to explain the nature of the adjective pronouns, and to distinguish and arrange them intelligibly; but it is difficult, perhaps impracticable, to define and divide them in a manner perfectly unexceptionable. Some of them, in particular, may seem to require a different arrangement. We presume, however, that, for every useful purpose, the present classification is sufficiently correct. All the pronouns, except the personal and relative, may, indeed, in a general view of them, be considered as definitive pronouns, because they define or ascertain the extent of the common name, or general term, to which they refer, or are joined; but as each class of them does this, more or less exactly, or in a manner peculiar to itself, a division adapted to this circumstance appears to be suitable to the nature of things, and the understanding of learners.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. XI.

[Point out the adjective pronouns, name the number of each, and the class to which it belongs.]

"My counsel to each of you is, that he make it his endeavor to come to a friendly agreement."

"Every man must account for himself."

"Instead of improving yourselves, you have been playing these two hours."

"That sort of favors did real injury, under the appearance of kindness."

"All men think all men mortal but themselves."

"Jabal was the father of such as dwell in tents."

"He came unto his own and his own received him not."

"You shall lie down and none shall make you afraid."

"By love serve one another."

"I will take either road at your pleasure."
ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER V.

OF VERBS.

Of Verbs in General.

§34. A Verb is a word which expresses action, being, or state; as, I run; I am; I am struck; I sit.

The uses of the verb are,
1st. To affirm, assert, or declare; as, The sun shines; John loves study; God is just; and negatively, Avarice is not commendable.
2d. To command, exhort, or invite; as, Go, attend; Let us observe.
3d. To pray, request, entreat; as, O, may the spirit of grace dwell in us.
4th. To inquire or question; as, Does it rain? Will he come?

Verbs are of two kinds;* viz. those which signify action, and those which signify simply being, or existence in a certain place or condition. The latter kind are called Inactive, and admit of no subdivisions.

I. Verbs expressing action are subdivided in reference to the manner in which they represent action, into two classes; viz. Active and Passive.

1. An active verb is one that expresses action affirmed of the subject, or belonging thereto; as, John studies; Peter runs; Job loves to study.

Active verbs are of two kinds; viz. active transitive, and active intransitive.

a. An active transitive verb expresses an action, which has a person or thing for its object; as, David slew Goliath; Noah built the Ark.

b. An active intransitive verb expresses an action which has no person or thing for its object; as, Charles runs; the eagle soars.

* Upon the subject of the division of verbs, grammarians have entertained very different opinions, and, in treatises published on grammar, scarcely any two authors have been found to agree. Mr. Murray divides them into the three classes, Active, Passive and Neuter. In the class of active verbs, he includes only the active-transitive, and embraces in the class of neuter verbs, the active-intransitive, as well as inactive. Mr. Brown makes four classes, Active-transitive, Active-intransitive, Passive and Neuter. By neuter verbs, he means the inactive alone. Mr. Bullion makes but two classes, Transitive and Intransitive. Transitive verbs with him include both the active-transitive and the passive, and intransitive all others. Dr. Webster has the same division and names. Mr. Kirkham has the neuter verb in his division, but he ranks as such only the verbs called inactive.

The division of verbs laid down in the text, is founded on their true nature and signification, and is thought to be at once both simple and complete. Subjects or things spoken of, whether material or immaterial, can be considered as existing but in one of two states; to wit, that of action, or that of rest or inaction. Verbs, from their design and use, must agree with their subjects in these particulars; that is, the verb will be so, unless otherwise, the verb will also express inaction, or simple being. Hence, they are naturally divided into the two great classes named in the text. The subdivisions of verbs expressing action, are founded on principles no less natural and philosophical.
Many active verbs are used both transitively and intransitively, the sense or construction alone determining which kind they are of: thus, to flatten, signifying to make even, or level, is transitive; but when it signifies to grow dull, or insipid, it is intransitive. In general, active verbs are transitive when the object is expressed or clearly implied on which the action terminates; when they have no such object expressed or implied, they are intransitive.

2. A Passive verb is one that expresses the receiving or suffering of an action, and represents the subject as being acted upon, and implies an agent by which it is acted upon; as, Saul was loved by David; Charles has been struck.

It is important for the learner to keep in mind, that all passive verbs are active in their nature and signification; or rather, are a form of the active verb, to express action received. All active transitive verbs admit of a passive form; as also a few verbs which are active intransitive. The active form of the verb is called the active voice; and the passive form, the passive voice.

II. An Inactive verb is one that expresses no action, but simply being in a certain place or condition; as, I am; John sleeps; he sits.

An intransitive verb may be rendered transitive, by the addition of a preposition; as, to smile, to smile on; to laugh, to laugh at.

Verbs agree with their subjects in respect to action or inaction. Thus, if the subject, or nominative case, is active, the verb is active; if the subject is passive, the verb is passive; and if the subject is inactive, the verb is inactive.

Verbs, in respect to their form, are again divided into Regular, Irregular and Defective. A verb is called regular, when it forms its past tense of the indicative mode, and its perfect participle, by the addition of ed to the present tense, or of d. only, when it ends in e; and irregular, when it does not so form its past tense and perfect participle. A defective verb is one that is wanting in some of its modes or tenses.

Auxiliary, or helping verbs, are those by the help of which other verbs are principally conjugated. They are, do, be, have, may, can, shall, and will, with their variations; and must, which has no variation. The first three are often used as principal verbs. [See. §43.]

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. XII.

[The learner is required to distinguish the verbs in the following sentences, and to name the class to which each belongs.]

"Temperance and exercise preserve health."
"Wisdom, and not wealth, procures esteem."
"Cæsar, as well as Cicero, was admired for his eloquence."
"Errors that originate in ignorance, are generally excusable."
ETYMOLGY.

"A dutiful son loves, obeys and reverences his parents."
"Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put it on Jacob."
"He that trusts in the Lord, will never be without a friend."
"The throne we honor is the people's choice."
"Washington was twice elected president of the United States."
"Idleness brings forward and nourishes many bad passions."
"Deliberate slowly, execute promptly."
"The man of virtue and honor will be trusted, relied on, and esteemed."
"We must stand or fall, by our own conduct and character."

MODIFICATIONS.

Verbs are modified by Numbers, Persons, Modes and Tenses.

OF NUMBER AND PERSON.

§35. Verbs have two numbers, the singular and the plural; as, I am, we are, &c.
They have in each number three persons; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Person</th>
<th>2d Person</th>
<th>3d Person</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I love.</td>
<td>We love.</td>
<td>We love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou lovest or you love.</td>
<td>You love.</td>
<td>They love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He loves or loveth.</td>
<td>They love.</td>
<td>They are.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Person</th>
<th>2d Person</th>
<th>3d Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am.</td>
<td>You are.</td>
<td>He is.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are.</td>
<td>You are.</td>
<td>They are.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus the verb, in some parts of it, varies its endings to express, or agree with different persons of the same number; as, "I love, thou lovest; he loves;" and also to express different numbers of the same person; as, "thou lovest, you love; he loves, they love." In the plural number of the verb, there is no variation of ending to express the different persons; and the verb, in the three persons plural, is the same as it is in the first person singular. Yet this scanty provision of terminations is sufficient for all the purposes of discourse, and no ambiguity arises from it; the verb being always attended, either with the noun expressing the subject acting or acted upon, or with the pronoun representing it. For this reason, the plural termination in en, they loven, they werent, formerly in use, was laid aside as unnecessary, and has long been obsolete. The same is nearly true of the termination in eth, as he loveth, she walketh. It is found only in the solemn style, and seldom there.

Strictly speaking, verbs can have neither number or person; these qualities appertaining solely to nouns and pronouns. They are applied, however, very conveniently to certain forms of the verb, to denote agreement in these particulars with the subject.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. XIII.

[Let the pupil tell the number and person of each verb.]

"I run when I am in haste."
"We love a graceful and becoming air."
VERBS—MODES.

"He walks with a firm step."
"She possesses a pleasing address."
"You spell very well."
"Charles reads correctly."
"Virtue has never failed to reward its possessors."
"Experiments are often unsuccessful."
"The earth was once in a chaotic state."
"And many false prophets shall arise and deceive many."
"And you shall hear of wars, and rumors of wars."

OF MODES.

§36. Mode or Mood, is a particular form of the verb, showing the manner in which being, acting, or the receiving of an action, is represented.

The nature of modes may be more intelligibly explained to the scholar, by observing, that it consists in the change which the verb undergoes, to signify various intentions of the mind, and various modifications and circumstances of action; which explanation, if compared with the following account and uses of the different modes, will be found to agree with, and illustrate them.

There are five modes of verbs, the indicative, the subjunctive, the potential, the infinitive, and the imperative.

1. The Indicative Mode simply indicates or declares a thing; as, "He loves, he is loved?" or it asks a question; as, "Does he love?" "Is he loved?"

2. The Subjunctive Mode represents a thing under a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c.; and is preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, and attended by another verb; as, "I will respect him though he chide me;" "Were he good, he would be happy:" that is, "if he were good."

The conjunctions, which are most frequently the signs of this mode, are if, though, unless, whether.

3. The Potential Mode implies possibility, liberty, power, will, or obligation; as, "It may rain; he may go or stay; I can ride; he would walk; they should learn."

This mode may always be distinguished by the auxiliaries may, can, must, will, shall, might, could, would and should; some one of which enters into every tense. The Potential mode, as well as the Indicative, is often used in asking questions; as, can I go? Must he stay?

4. The Infinitive Mode expresses a thing in a general and unlimited manner, without any distinction of number or person; as, "to act, to speak, to be feared."
This mode is distinguished by the sign to, which always precedes the verb, and is regarded as making a part of it. After the verbs bid, dare, let, make, see, and a few others, the sign to is omitted, but is to be understood.

5. The Imperative Mode is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting; as, "Depart thou; mind ye; let us stay; go in peace."

Though this mode derives its name from its intimation of command, it is used on occasions of a very opposite nature, even in the humblest supplications of an inferior being to one who is infinitely superior; as, "Give us this day our daily bread; and forgive us our trespasses."

The student will derive some assistance in distinguishing the modes, by aid of the signs, as pointed out in the foregoing remarks; but it is better that he should rely chiefly on the sense of the passage, and the definitions which have been given.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. XIV.

[Name the mode of each verb and also the number and person.]

"I have gained a good reputation."
"He will make payment within the month."
"Obey your parents in the Lord, for this is right."
"Let us be* considerate and patient."
"Speak in a distinct, clear voice."
"I may improve by attentive application."
"Harriet must learn her lesson."
"James would be pleased to see* you."
"If you desire happiness be content."
"I love to go* forth in the evening, and view* the twinkling stars."

Remarks on the Potential Mode.

§ 37. That the Potential Mode should be separated from the Subjunctive, is evident, from the intricacy and confusion which are produced by their being blended together, and from the distinct nature of the two modes; the former of which may be expressed without any condition, supposition, &c., as will appear from the following instances: "They might have done better;" "We may always act uprightly;" "He was generous, and would not take revenge;" "We should resist the allurements of vice;" "I could formerly indulge myself in things, of which I cannot now think but with pain."

Some grammarians have supposed that the Potential Mode, as distinguished above from the Subjunctive, coincides with the Indicative. But as the latter "simply indicates or declares a thing," it is manifest that the former, which modifies the declaration, and introduces an idea materially distinct from it, must be considerably different. "I can walk," "I should walk," appear to be so essentially distinct from the simplicity of "I walk," "I walked," as to warrant a corresponding distinction of modes. The Imperative and Infinitive Modes, which are allowed to retain their rank, do not appear to contain such strong marks of discrimination from the Indicative, as are found in the Potential Mode.

* Verbs in the infinitive mode want both number and person.
† This section may be omitted till a review.
There are other writers on this subject, who exclude the Potential Mode from their division, because it is formed, not by varying the principal verb, but by means of the auxiliary verbs may, can, might, could, would, &c.; but if we recollect, that modes are used "to signify the various intentions of the mind, and various modifications and circumstances of action," we shall perceive that those auxiliaries, far from interfering with this design, do, in the clearest manner, support and exemplify it. On the reason alleged by these writers, the greater part of the Indicative Mode must also be excluded; as but a small part of it is conjugated without auxiliaries. The Subjunctive, too, will fare no better; since it so nearly resembles the Indicative, and is formed by means of conjunctions, expressed or understood, which do not more effectually show the varied intentions of the mind, than the auxiliaries do which are used to form the Potential Mode.

OF THE TENSES.

§38. Tenses are those modifications of the verb which distinguish time. They are six in number; viz. the Present the Past, the Perfect, the Prior Past, the Future, and the Prior Future.

Tense, being the distinction of time, might seem to admit of only three variations, the present, past, and future; but as actions and events of past time and future sustain different relations to the present, and are often differently associated with one another in respect to time, it becomes necessary to mark the number of distinctions expressed above.

1. The Present Tense represents an action or event, as passing at the time in which it is mentioned; as, "I rule; I am ruled; I think; I fear."

The present tense likewise expresses a character, quality, &c., at present existing; as, "He is an able man;" "She is an amiable woman." It is also used in speaking of actions continued with occasional intermissions, to the present time; as, "He walks out every morning;" "He frequently rides;" "He goes into the country every summer." We sometimes apply this tense even to persons long since dead; as, "Seneca reasons and moralizes well;" "Job speaks feelingly of his afflictions."

The present tense, preceded by the words, when, before, after, as soon as, &c., is sometimes used to point out the relative time of a future action; as, "When he arrives he will hear the news;" "He will hear the news before he arrives, or as soon as he arrives, or at farthest, soon after he arrives."

In animated historical narrations, this tense is sometimes substituted for the past tense; as, "He enters the territory of the peaceable inhabitants; he fights, and conquers, takes an immense booty, which he divides amongst his soldiers, and returns home to enjoy an empty triumph."

Every point, of space, or duration, how minute soever it may be, has some degree of extension. Neither the present, nor any other in-
stant of time, is wholly unextended. Nay, we cannot conceive of an unextended instant; and that which we call present, may in fact admit of very considerable extension. While I write a letter, or read a book, I say, that I am writing or reading it, though it should take up an hour, a day, a week, or a month; the whole time being considered as present, which is employed in the present action. In like manner we sometimes make the present include our whole life, a century, or the entire term of man's probationary state in this world; as, "The philosophers of this century are less metaphysical, than those of the last."

2. The Past Tense represents an action or event, either as past and finished, or as remaining unfinished at a certain time past; as, "I loved her for her modesty and virtue:"
"They were traveling fast when he met them."

The pupil may perhaps obtain a clearer idea of this tense, by considering that it always refers to an action of some past time, however distant that time may be, and represents it either as completed, or then going on. [This tense was formerly called the Imperfect.]

3. The Perfect Tense not only refers to what is past, but also conveys an allusion to the present time; as, "I have finished my letter;" "I have seen the person that was recommended to me."

In the former example, it is signified that the finishing of the letter, though past, was at a period immediately, or very nearly, preceding the present time. In the latter instance, it is uncertain whether the person mentioned was seen by the speaker a long, or short time before. The meaning is, "I have seen him some time in the course of a period which includes, or comes to, the present time."

The perfect tense and the past tense both denote an action that is past; but the former denotes it in such a manner that there is still actually remaining some part of the time to slide away, wherein we declare the thing has been done; whereas the past denotes the thing or action past, in such a manner that nothing remains of that time in which it was done. If we speak of the present century, we say, "Philosophers have made great discoveries in the present century:" but if we speak of the last century, we say, "Philosophers made great discoveries in the last century." "He has been much afflicted this year;" "I have this week read the king's proclamation;" "I have heard great news this morning." In these instances, "He has been," "I have read," and "heard," denote things that are past; but they occurred in this year, in this week, and to day; and still there remains a part of this year, week, and day, whereof I speak.

In general, the perfect tense may be applied wherever the action is connected with the present time, by the actual existence, either of the author, or of the work, though it may have been performed many centuries ago; but if neither the author nor the work now remains, it cannot be used. We may say, "Cicero has written orations;" but we cannot say, "Cicero has written poems;" because the orations are in being, but the poems are lost. Speaking of priests in general, we may say, "They have in all ages claimed great powers; because
the general order of the priesthood still exists; but if we speak of the Druids, as any particular order of priests, which does not now exist, we cannot use this tense. We cannot say, “The Druid priests have claimed great powers;” because that order is now totally extinct.

The perfect tense is used in reference to future time; as, “He will be overtaken by a shower before he has advanced three miles.

4. The **Prior Past Tense** represents an action not only as past, but also as having taken place prior to some other action, or point of time, specified in the sentence; as, “I had finished my letter before he arrived.”

5. The **Future Tense** represents an action as yet to come, either with or without respect to the precise time; as, “The sun will rise to-morrow;” “I shall see them again.”

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

There are other modes of expressing future time, aside from those mentioned above; as, “I am going to write,” “I am about to write.” These have sometimes been called the **Inceptive future**, as they note the commencement of an action without delay.

The substantive verb, followed by a verb in the infinitive mode, forms another mode of indicating future time; as, “Ferdinand is to command the army.” “On the subject of style, I am afterwards to discourse.” “Enneas went in search of the seat of an empire, which was, one day, to command the world.” This latter expression is a **future-past**—that is, **past** as to the narrator, but **future** as to the event at the time specified.

A clear apprehension of the tenses, and their various relations to past, present and future time, is of much importance to the student. Young learners, especially, often experience considerable difficulty in obtaining an accurate idea of their proper distinctions. The following diagram and explanation, it is hoped, will aid their conceptions on this subject.

**Scheme of the Tenses.**

```
A          C          D          P          E          F          B
          |    |    |    |    |    |    |
          ↓    ↓    ↓    ↓    ↓    ↓    ↓
          past   present   present    past   present   present
```

Let the line AB be considered to represent space or duration in time, and conceived to extend in each direction, both towards the right hand and towards the left, indefinitely, or even infinitely. Let all on the left of P, represent past time, and all on the right, future time. The point P, then, will represent present time, and any action or event occurring at P, will be in the **present tense**. Whatever action or event may have been between P and A, however far back the line PA may be considered to extend, will be in the **past tense**. Let the

* This tense has in general been denominated the **pluperfect**—a term incongruous in itself, and entirely inexpressive of the thing meant. See the word **prior**, in Glossary.
portion of the line, D E, represent a day, week, month, year, or century, a part of which is yet unexpired; then any event, which has taken place between D and P, and is spoken of in reference to the division of time D E, will be in the perfect tense.* An action or event occurring at a point of past time, C, and spoken of in reference to another subsequent or then present action or event of past time, which took place, for instance, at D, is in the prior-past tense. An event which shall take place any where between P and B, however far removed from P, B may be, will be in the future tense. And finally, an action or event, which shall occur at any point of future time, as at E, and is spoken of in reference to another subsequent, or then present, action or event, of future time, occurring, for instance, at F, will be in the prior-future tense. The learner can scarcely fail to observe, that the future tense has the same relation to future time, that the past tense has to past time; and also that the prior-future tense is the same in respect to future time, that the prior-past tense is in respect to past time.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. XV.

[Name the tense, mode, number and person of each verb, and also tell whether the verb be active, inactive or passive.]

"The tear of penitence brings its own relief."
"All finery is a sign of littleness."
"Howard's highest enjoyment was to relieve the distressed."
"If he had pursued a different course, he might have escaped censure."
"Modesty has ever been esteemed a presage of rising merit."
"He will obtain success for he is persevering and honest."
"I shall have departed before he arrives."
"True friendship will, at all times, avoid a careless or rough behavior."
"Deliberate slowly, execute promptly."
"Benefits should be long and gratefully remembered."
"If the season of youth is passed in idleness, manhood will be barren of usefulness, and old age of joy."
"No assumed behavior can always hide the real character."
"Advice should be seasonably administered."
"An upright mind is seldom at a loss to discern what is just and true, lovely and of good report."

Note. If this and the two preceding exercises are found too difficult for the pupil in this stage of his grammatical knowledge, they may be omitted until he has passed through the conjugations of the verbs. A review, in any case, will then be necessary, when, in addition to what is required of him above, he should be directed to make each verb, that is, to conjugate it to the mode and tense, in which its particular form is found.

Remarks on the Tenses.

§ 39. In treating of the tenses, there are two things to which the attention ought principally to be turned; viz. the relation which the several tenses have to one another, in respect to time; and the notice which they give of an action's being completed or not completed.

* A better name for this tense would perhaps be, the present-past tense.
VERBS—PARTICIPLES.

The present, past, and future tenses, may be used either definitely or indefinitely, both with respect to time and action. When they denote customs or habits, and not individual acts, they are applied indefinitely; as, “Virtue promotes happiness;” “The old Romans governed by benefits more than by fear;” “I shall hereafter employ my time more usefully.” In these examples, the words, promotes, governed and shall employ, are used indefinitely, both in regard to action and time; for they are not confined to individual actions, nor to any precise points of present, past or future time. When they are applied to signify particular actions, and to ascertain the precise points of time to which they are confined, they are used definitely; as in the following instances; “My brother is writing;” “He built the house last summer, but did not inhabit it till yesterday.” “He will write another letter to-morrow.”

The different tenses also represent the action as complete or as incomplete. In the phrases, “I am writing,” “I was writing,” “I shall be writing,” unfinished actions are signified. But the following examples, “I wrote, I have written, I had written, I shall have written,” all denote complete action.

All the tenses which represent actions as unfinished, or incomplete, are formed by the participle of the present tense, and one of the variations of the verb, to be. These tenses are definite in respect to the time of the action.

From the preceding representation of the different tenses, it appears, that each of them has its distinct and peculiar province; and that though some of them may sometimes be used promiscuously, or substituted one for another, in cases where great accuracy is not required, yet there is a real and essential difference in their meaning.—It is also evident, that the English language contains the six tenses which we have enumerated. Grammarians who limit the number to two, or at most to three, namely, the present, the past, and the future, do not reflect that the English verb is mostly composed of the principal and auxiliary; and that these parts constitute one verb. Either the English language has no regular future tense, or its future is composed of the auxiliary and the principal verb. If the latter be admitted, then the auxiliary and principal united, constitute a tense, in one instance; and from reason and analogy, may doubtless do so in others, in which minuter divisions of time are necessary, or useful. What reason can be assigned for not considering this case as other cases, in which a whole is regarded as composed of several parts, or of principal and adjuncts? There is nothing heterogeneous in its parts; and precedent, analogy, utility, and even necessity, authorise the union.

OF PARTICIPLES.

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

There are three participles in each voice, viz. the present, the perfect, and the prior past; as, loving, loved, having loved,
in the active voice; and being loved, loved, having been loved, in the passive voice.

Participles are distinguished from the adjective, by the former's expressing the idea of time, and the latter's denoting only a quality. The phrases, "loving to give as well as to receive," "moving in haste," "heated with liquor," contain participles giving the idea of time; but the epithets contained in the expressions, "a loving child," "a moving spectacle," "a heated imagination," mark simply the qualities referred to, without any regard to time; and may be called participial adjectives. In this latter use, the participle admits of comparison by more and most, less and least; as, more loving, most loving; less moving, least moving.

1. The Present Participle denotes present time. It always ends, in the active voice, in ing; and is formed in this voice, by adding this termination to the verb; as, turn, turning; or when the verb ends with e, by dropping it and adding ing; as, love, loving.

In the passive voice, the present participle is formed by prefixing to the perfect participle of an active transitive verb, the present participle of the verb to be; as, being loved, being called.

This participle, and also the perfect and prior past, sometimes perform the office of substantives, and when thus used may be called participial nouns; as, "the beginning;" "a good understanding;" "excellent writing;" "The chancellor's being attached to the king secured his crown;" "The general's having failed in this enterprise occasioned his disgrace;" "John's having been writing a long time had wearied him."

In the capacity of a noun, the present participle admits of a plural form; as, understandings, overflowings. "All thy goings out and comings in." In a few cases, it is changed to a noun by the addition of ness; as, willingness.

This participle also is made an adverb by receiving the termination ly; as, lovingly, willingly.

2. The Perfect Participle* denotes past time, and implies a completion of the action or state to which it refers; as, loved, hated.

This participle is formed, in regular verbs, by adding ed to the verb, or d only, when the verb ends in e. In irregular verbs the formation is various. In the passive voice, it is formed as in the active.

The perfect participle sometimes takes the termination ly, and becomes an adverb; as, pointedly, dejectedly.

The perfect participle, when its verb is transitive, may be joined to the verb to be, in all its variations; and thus joined, constitutes the Passive Voice.

* Queret—Is there strictly speaking, after all, any participle of this kind? May it not always be resolved into the present passive, or prior past, passive?
8. The Prior Past Participle denotes the completion of any action or event, prior to some other action, or point of time mentioned in the sentence. In its temporal signification, it corresponds with the prior past tense.

This participle is formed, in the active voice, by prefixing the word having, to the perfect participle of any verb; as, having loved, having struck; and in the passive voice, by prefixing the words, having been, to the same participle of a transitive verb; as, having been loved, having been struck.

There is another form of this participle, in the active voice, formed by using the present, instead of the perfect participle; as, having been writing, having been reading.

Participles not only convey the notion of time, but they also signify actions, and govern the cases of nouns and pronouns, in the same manner as verbs do; and therefore should be comprehended in the general name of verbs. That they are mere modes of the verb, is manifest, if our definition is admitted; for they signify being, doing, or suffering, with the designation of time superadded. But if the essence of the verb be made to consist in affirmation or assertion, not only the participle will be excluded from its place in the verb, but the infinitive itself also; which certain ancient grammarians of great authority held to be alone the genuine verb, simple and unconnected with persons and circumstances.

The following phrases, even when considered in themselves, show that participles include the idea of time: "The letter being written, or having been writing;" "Charles being writing, having written, or having been writing." But when arranged in an entire sentence, as they must be to make a complete sense, they show it still more evidently; as, "Charles having written the letter, sealed and despatched it." "The participle does indeed associate with different tenses of the verb; as, "I am writing," "I was writing," "I shall be writing:" but this forms no just objection to its denoting time. If the time of it is often relative time, this circumstance, so far from disproving, supports our position.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. XVI.

[The pupil will point out the participles in these sentences, and tell which are present, which perfect, and which prior past.]

"Piety has the purest delight attending it."
"He, stooping down and looking in, saw the linen clothes lying."
"A man used to vicissitudes, is not easily dejected."
"Having squandered his fortune in luxury and dissipation, he lived in sorrow and died un lamented."
"A judge should speak sitting; a pleader standing."
"Amazed I stood, harrowed with grief and fear."
"Having been forsaken by friends, I had no further resource."
"Time once past never returns; a moment lost, is forever lost."

OF THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

§41. The conjugation of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its numbers, persons, modes and tenses.
There are four Principal Parts in the conjugation of every complete verb; viz. the Present tense, the Past tense indefinite, of the indicative mode; the Perfect Participle, and the Present Active Participle.

These are called principal parts, because from them the other parts of the verb are chiefly formed. The Present is radically the same in all the modes. The present infinitive is called the theme or root of the verb.

The conjugation of an active verb is called the Active Voice; and that of a passive verb, the Passive Voice.

In each voice, a verb may be conjugated four ways; viz.
1. Affirmatively; as, I love, I do love, I am loving.
2. Negatively; as, I love not, I do not love, I am not loved.
3. Interrogatively; as, Love I? Do I love? Am I loved?

Am I loving?
4. Interrogatively and Negatively; as, Love I not? Do I not love? Am I not loving? Am I not loved?

As English verbs have but few inflections, or changes of termination, the word, to, marks the infinitive, and in the conjugations, pronouns are used to distinguish the numbers and persons; if is used to denote the subjunctive, and not to show the negative form. Verbs are mostly conjugated by aid of the auxiliaries, do, be, have, may, shall, will, might, should, would and must.

Note. No part of Grammar occasions learners, in general, so much perplexity as the conjugation of the verbs. Their progress will be much aided by their fixing first well in the mind, the prevailing forms for the modes and principal tenses; and afterwards, by associating by degrees the various other forms. They should aim ultimately at becoming familiar with each separate form for every mode, tense, number and person, in each voice. Teachers, for this purpose, will exercise their pupils on the different modes and tenses, at their discretion, having a due regard to their age and attainments.

Conjugation of to have.

§ 42. The auxiliary and transitive verb, to have, is conjugated in the following manner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present Infinitive—To have.</td>
<td>Past Tense—I had.</td>
<td>Present Participle—Having.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Participle—Had.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE MODE.</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Present Tense.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Pers.</td>
<td>I have</td>
<td>1. Pers. We have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pers.</td>
<td>You* have</td>
<td>2. Pers. You† have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Pers.</td>
<td>He, she, or it has</td>
<td>3. Pers. They have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The form of conjugating with thou, second person, will be given hereafter.
† Ye being nearly obsolete, we have thought it better to omit it in the conjugations. It may be substituted in any tense for you, if one desires it, without any change in the form of the verb.
VERBS—CONJUGATION.

PAST TENSE.

1. I had
2. You had
3. He, &c. had

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

PERFECT TENSE.

1. I have had
2. You have had
3. He has had

PRIOR, PAST TENSE.

1. I had had
2. You had had
3. He had had

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I shall have
2. You will have
3. He will have

PRIOR FUTURE TENSE.

1. I shall have had
2. You will have had
3. He will have had

Will and shall are correctly associated with the indicative mode, only when they simply forecast. Whenever they imply intention, resolving, promising, commanding, threatening, they belong to the potential mode. As will in the first person, and shall in the second and third persons, resolve, command, &c., they do not form auxiliaries of the future tenses of the indicative mode. Shall again in the first person, and will in the second and third, belong to the indicative, only in affirmative sentences; for when the sentence is interrogative, their meaning, for the most part, is reversed, and they are to be considered in the potential mode. [See remarks on will and shall, §43.]

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.
1. If I have
2. If you have
3. If he has

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

The remaining tenses of the subjunctive mode, are, in most respects, similar to the corresponding tenses of the indicative mode, with the addition to the verb, of a conjunction, expressed or implied, denoting a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c. It will be proper to direct the learner to repeat all the tenses of this mode, with a conjunction prefixed to each of them.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. I may, can, must, or will have
2. You may, can, must, or shall have
3. He may, can, must or shall have

This tense, though called present, has often, and perhaps in a majority of instances, the signification of future time. We say correct-
ETYMOLOGY.

ly, I may, can or will go now, to-day or this present moment; or, I may, can or will go to-morrow, next week, or at some future time not specified. When future time is implied, in parsing, it is to be called the future tense.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I might, could, would, or should 1. We might, could, would, or have should have
2. You might, could, would, or 2. You might, could, would, or should have should have
3. He might, could, would, or should have

Grammarians, with scarcely an exception, have united in calling this the past, or imperfect tense. Past time, however, is very seldom signified by it, nor do but one or two of its forms refer to the past, in any degree whatever. Future time almost universally enters into its signification, and when it does not, present time much more frequently takes the place of it, than past. Whenevery present or past time is signified by any of its forms, they are to be construed in the present or past tense, as the case may be.

PERFECT TENSE.

1. I may, can or must have had 1. We may, can or must have had
2. You may, can or must have had
3. He may, can or must have had

PRIOR PAST TENSE.

1. I might, could, would or should have had
2. You might, could, would, or should have had
3. He might, could, would, or should have had

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.

2. Have you, or do you have* 2. Have you, or do you have

Plural.

This mode, from the very nature of it, can have but one tense, the present—and one person, the second. All commands, though their execution may be future, must be given now; that is, the time must be present when they are uttered; and as no one can be supposed to command himself, or an individual of whom he is speaking, the imperative mode is evidently limited to the second person, or person addressed.

* Mr. Murray and some other grammarians have greatly erred, in assigning three persons to this mode; as, Let me have, for the first person, and Let him have, for the third. For the reason above stated, the imperative can have but one person; but even waiving this objection, here, in these instances, ceases to be in the imperative mode, unless we consider let an auxiliary, which would be a use of that word entirely unwarranted in the structure of our language. A verb following let, is in the infinitive; as, "Let him study; that is, let him to study—the to being suppressed, in general, for the greater ease in pronunciation. [See §36. 4.]
INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT, To have

PERFECT, To have had

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Having

PERFECT, Had

PRIOR PAST, Having had

Remarks on the Auxiliary Verbs.

§ 43. The learner will perceive that the preceding auxiliary verb, to have, could not have been conjugated through all the modes and tenses, without the help of the other auxiliary verbs, may, can, will and shall, with their variations, and also must. Having illustrated, by the conjugation of to have, the connection of auxiliary verbs with the principal, and their general utility, this seems a proper place for a few observations on their peculiar nature and force.

The verbs have, be, will, and do, when they are unconnected with a principal verb, expressed or understood, are not auxiliaries, but principal verbs; as, “We have enough;” “I am grateful;” “He wills it to be so;” “They do as they please.” In this view, they also have their auxiliaries; as, “I shall have enough;” “I will be grateful,” &c.

The peculiar force of the several auxiliaries will appear from the following account of them.

Do and did mark the action itself, or the time of it, with greater energy and positiveness; as, “I do speak truth;” “I did respect him;” “Here am I, for thou didst call me.” They are of great use in negative sentences; as, “I do not fear;” “I did not write.” They are almost universally employed in asking questions; as, “Does he learn?” “Did he not write?” They sometimes also supply the place of another verb, and make the repetition of it in the same, or a subsequent sentence, unnecessary; as, “You attend not to your studies as he does;” (i.e. as he attends, &c.) “I shall come if I can; but if I do not, please to excuse me;” (i.e. if I come not.)

May and might express the possibility or liberty of doing a thing; can and could, the power; as, “It may rain;” “I may write or read;” “He might have improved more than he has;” “He can write much better than he could last year.”

Must denotes necessity; as, “We must speak the truth, whenever we do speak, and we must not prevaricate.”

Will, in the first person singular and plural, intimates resolution and promising; in the second and third persons, only foretells; as, “I will reward the good, and will punish the wicked;” “We will remember benefits, and be grateful;” “Thou wilt, or he will, repent of that folly;” “You or they will have a pleasant walk.”

Shall, on the contrary, in the first person, simply foretells; in the second and third persons, promises, commands, or threatens; as, “I shall go abroad;” “We shall dine at home;” “Thou shalt, or you shall, inherit the land;” “Ye shall do justice, and love mercy;” “They shall account for their misconduct.” The following passage is not translated according to the distinct and proper meanings of the words shall and will. “Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life; and I will dwell in the house of the Lord forever;” it ought to be, “Will follow me,” and “I shall dwell.”—The
foreigner who, as it is said, fell into the Thames, and cried out; "I will be drowned, no body shall help me;" made a sad misapplication of these auxiliaries.

These observations respecting the import of the verbs will and shall, must be understood of explicative sentences; for when the sentence is interrogative, just the reverse, for most part, takes place; thus, "I shall go; you will go;" express event only; but, "will you go?" implies intention; and "shall I go?" refers to the will of another. But, "He shall go" and "shall he go?" both imply will; expressing or referring to a command.

When an individual in the second or third person is made the subject of his own thoughts or language, will implies resolution or promising as in the first person, and shall foretells; as, "You say you will go;" "He affirms he will do it; "You say you shall meet with misfortune;" "He says he shall find happiness."

When the verb is put in the subjunctive mode, the meaning of these auxiliaries likewise undergoes some alteration; as the learner will readily perceive by a few examples: "He shall proceed;" "You shall consent;" "If you shall proceed;" "If you shall consent." These auxiliaries are sometimes interchanged, in the indicative and subjunctive modes, to convey the same meaning of the auxiliary; as, "He will not return;" "If he shall return;" "He shall not return;" "If he will not return;"

Would primarily denotes inclination of will; and should, obligation; but they both vary their import, and are often used to express simple event.

Were is frequently used for wou'd be, and had, for would have; as, "It were (would be) injustice to deny the execution of the law to any individual." "Many acts which had (would have) been blamed under other circumstances, were now justified." This use of the words, however, is not in accordance with strict grammatical principles.

Conjugation of the inactive verb, to be, and the regular verb, to love.

§ 44. Verbs are called regular, when they form their past tense of the indicative mode, and their perfect participle, by the addition of ed to the verb in the present tense, or d only when the verb ends in e; as,

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<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I love</td>
<td>I loved</td>
<td>Loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I favor</td>
<td>I favored</td>
<td>Favored</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When a verb does not form its past tense and perfect participle in this manner, it is called an irregular verb; as,

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>I was</td>
<td>Been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I strike</td>
<td>I struck</td>
<td>Struck</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These tenses are called simple tenses, which are formed of the principal, without an auxiliary verb; as, "I love, I loved." The compound tenses are such as cannot be formed without an auxiliary verb; as, "I have loved; I had loved; I shall or will love; I may love; I
VERBS—CONJUGATION.

may be loved; I may have been loved;” &c. These compounds are, however, to be considered as only different forms of the same verb.

All regular verbs are conjugated after the manner of to love.

Note. We have arranged the conjugation of the verb to be, and that of the verb to love, both in the active and passive voice, side by side, in order that the student may the more readily perceive their relative connection. He will not fail to notice that the passive voice is the same as the verb to be throughout, with the perfect participle, loved, annexed. The conjugation of to be, is first to be learned; next that of to love in the active voice: to love in the passive will then be perfectly simple.

The modes and tenses, both in the active and passive voices, are conjugated at large, that learners may have no doubts or misapprehensions respecting their particular forms. They to whom the subject of grammar is entirely new, and young persons especially, are much more readily and effectually instructed, by seeing the parts of a subject so essential as the verb, unfolded and spread before them, in all their varieties, than by being generally and cursorily informed of the manner in which they may be exhibited. The time employed by the scholars, in consequence of this display of the verbs, is of small moment, compared with the advantages which they will probably derive from the plan.

Conjugation of to be, and to love.

Principal Parts.

|------------------|-----------|---------|-------
| To be            | To love   | To be loved |
| Past Tense.      | 1 was     | 1 loved | 1 was loved |
| Pres. Partic.    | Being     | Loving  | Being loved |
| Perf. Partic.    | Been      | Loved   | Loved   |

INDICATIVE MODE. PRESENT TENSE.

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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Pers. I am</td>
<td>1 Pers. I love*</td>
<td>1 Pers. I am loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Pers. You are</td>
<td>2 Pers. You love</td>
<td>2 Pers. You are loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Pers. He is</td>
<td>3 Pers. He loves</td>
<td>3 Pers. He is loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Pers. We are</td>
<td>1 Pers. We love</td>
<td>1 Pers. We are loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Pers. You are</td>
<td>2 Pers. You love</td>
<td>2 Pers. You are loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Pers. They are</td>
<td>3 Pers. They love</td>
<td>3 Pers. They are loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PAST TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I was</td>
<td>1. I loved*</td>
<td>1 I was loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* In the present and past tenses active voice, we use a different form of the verb, when we mean to express energy and positiveness; as, I do love; you do love; he does love; we do love; they do love; I did love; you did love; he did love; we did love; they did love.
ETYMOLOGY.

2. You were, or wast 2. You loved
3. He was
   Plural. 3. He loved
   1. We are
   2. You were
   3. They were

PERFECT TENSE.

1. I have been 1. I have loved 1. I have been loved
2. You have been 2. You have loved 2. You have been loved
3. He has been
   Plural. 3. He has loved
   1. We have been
   2. You have been
   3. They have been

PRIOR PAST.

1. I had been 1. I had loved 1. I had been loved
2. You had been 2. You had loved 2. You had been loved
3. He had been 3. He had loved 3. He had been loved

† As you was originally in the plural number, grammarians insist that it must still be restricted to that number. But national usage rejects the arbitrary principle. The true principle, on which all language is built, rejects it. What fundamental rule have we to dispose of words, but this, that when a word signifies one, or unity, it belongs to the singular number? If a word, once exclusively plural, becomes, by universal use, the sign of individuality, it must take its place in the singular number. That this is a fact with you, is proved by national usage. To assign the substitute to its verb, is to invert the order of things. The verb must follow its nominative—if that denotes unity, so does the verb.

"When you was at Athens, you attended the schools of the philosophers."—Cicero, Tusc. Quest. Trans. p. 2.
"On that happy day when you was given to the world."—Dodd's Massillon, Serm. 1.
"Unless you was ill."—Boswell's Life of J. W. 68.
"You was on the spot where your enemy was found killed."—Guthrie's Quintilian, b. 2.
"You was in hopes to have succeeded to the inheritance."—Ibm. b. 5.
"When you was here comforting me."—Pope's Let.
"I am as well as when you was here."—Gay's Let. to Swift.
"Why was you glad?"—Boswell's Life of Johnson.

These writers did not commit mistakes in the use of the verb after you; they wrote the language as established by national usage—the foundation of all language. So is the practice in the United States—not merely popular usage, though this, when general, is respectable authority—but the practice of men of letters.

"Where was you standing during the transaction?"
"How far was you from the defendant?"
"How far was you from the parties?"—Judge Parker. Trial of Selfridge, p. 59.
"Was you acquainted with the defendant at college?"—Mr. Dexter. Ibm. p. 60.
"Was you there when the pistol was fired?"—Mr. Gore. Ibm. 60.
"Was you in the office?"—Alt. Gen. Ibm. 68. N. WEBSTER'S GRAM.
### VERBS—CONJUGATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. We had been</td>
<td>1. We had loved</td>
<td>1. We had been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You had been</td>
<td>2. You had loved</td>
<td>2. You had been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. They had been</td>
<td>3. They had loved</td>
<td>3. They had been loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FUTURE TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I shall be</td>
<td>1. I shall love</td>
<td>1. I shall have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You will be</td>
<td>2. You will love</td>
<td>2. You will have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He will be</td>
<td>3. He will love</td>
<td>3. He will have been loved</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### PRIOR FUTURE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I shall have been</td>
<td>1. I shall have loved</td>
<td>1. I shall have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You will have been</td>
<td>2. You will have loved</td>
<td>2. You will have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He will have been</td>
<td>3. He will have loved</td>
<td>3. He will have been loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>'Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I am</td>
<td>1. If I love</td>
<td>1. If I am loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you are</td>
<td>2. If you love</td>
<td>2. If you are loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he is</td>
<td>3. If he loves</td>
<td>3. If he is loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PAST TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I was</td>
<td>1. If I loved</td>
<td>1. If I was loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you was</td>
<td>2. If you loved</td>
<td>2. If you were loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he was</td>
<td>3. If he loved</td>
<td>3. If he were loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If we were</td>
<td>1. If we loved</td>
<td>1. If we were loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you were</td>
<td>2. If you loved</td>
<td>2. If you were loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If they were</td>
<td>3. If they loved</td>
<td>3. If they were loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### ETYMOLOGY.

#### PERFECT TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I have been</td>
<td>1. If I have loved</td>
<td>1. If I have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you have been</td>
<td>2. If you have loved</td>
<td>2. If you have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he has been</td>
<td>3. If he has loved</td>
<td>3. If he has been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. If we have been</td>
<td>1. If we have loved</td>
<td>1. If we have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you have been</td>
<td>2. If you have loved</td>
<td>2. If you have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If they have been</td>
<td>3. If they have loved</td>
<td>3. If they have been loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### PRIOR PAST TENSE.

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

#### FUTURE TENSE.

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

#### PRIOR FUTURE TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I shall have been</td>
<td>1. If I shall have loved</td>
<td>1. If I shall have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you shall or will have been</td>
<td>2. If you shall or will have loved</td>
<td>2. If you shall or will have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he shall or will have been</td>
<td>3. If he shall or will have loved</td>
<td>3. If he shall or will have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. If we shall have been</td>
<td>1. If we shall have loved</td>
<td>1. If we shall have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you shall or will have been</td>
<td>2. If you shall or will have loved</td>
<td>2. If you shall or will have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If they shall or will have been</td>
<td>3. If they shall or will have loved</td>
<td>3. If they shall or will have been loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It may be of use to the scholar, to remark, in this place, that though the conjunction if is affixed to the verb, any other conjunction proper for the subjunctive mode, may, with equal propriety, be occasionally annexed. The instance given is sufficient to explain the subject: more would be tedious, and tend to embarrass the learner.

In the subjunctive mode, there is a peculiarity in the tenses which should be noticed. When I say, if it rains, it is understood that I am uncertain of the fact, at the time of speaking. But when I say, "if it rained, we should be obliged to seek shelter," it is not understood that I am uncertain of the fact; on the contrary, it is understood that I am certain it does not rain at the time of speaking. Or if I say, "if it did not rain, I would take a walk," I convey the idea that it does rain at the moment of speaking. This form of our tenses, in the subjunctive mode has never been the subject of much notice, nor ever received its due explanation and arrangement. For this hypothetical verb is actually a present tense, or at least indefinite,—it certainly does not belong to past time. It is further to be remarked, that a negative sentence always implies an affirmative—"if it did not rain," implies that it does rain. On the contrary, an affirmative sentence implies a negative—"if it did rain," implies that it does not.

In the past time, a similar distinction exists; for "if it rained yesterday," denotes uncertainty in the speaker’s mind—but, "if it had not rained yesterday," implies a certainty that it did rain.

It may be proper to remark, that there are instances in this mode, when a conjunction, denoting condition, is not expressed; but in all such cases it is to be understood; as, "Were I to speak," that is, "If I were to speak;" "Had I gone," that is, "If I had gone." Examples of this kind are conjugated as follows:

**PAST TENSE.**

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

**Prior Past Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Had I loved</td>
<td>1. Had we loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Had you loved</td>
<td>2. Had you loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Had he loved</td>
<td>3. Had they loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Contracted Forms of the Future.**

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

**Or thus,**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I were</td>
<td>1. If I loved</td>
<td>1. If I were loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"If I were," supposes that I am not; "If I were not," supposes that I am.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future Tense</th>
<th>Present Tense</th>
<th>Future Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. If you were</td>
<td>2. If you were</td>
<td>3. If you were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he were</td>
<td>3. If he loved</td>
<td>3. If he were loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. If we were</td>
<td>1. If we loved</td>
<td>1. If we were loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you were</td>
<td>2. If you loved</td>
<td>2. If you were loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If they were</td>
<td>3. If they loved</td>
<td>3. If they were loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These forms of the future, called by some subjunctive forms, have generally been associated with the present and past tenses of this mode, but very incorrectly. They are abbreviated modes of expression, and always imply future time: thus, "if he love," "if they love," &c., are the same in sense as, "if he shall or will love," "if they shall or will love," &c. It should further be remarked that the auxiliary should is often suppressed; as, "if he love," that is, if he should love. These contractions are found most frequently among the poets, and perhaps are allowable nowhere else, save it be in familiar conversation. [See § 76, Remark 3.]

**POSSIBLE MODE.**

**PRESENT TENSE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible</th>
<th>Possible</th>
<th>Possible</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I may, can, must</td>
<td>1. I may, can, must</td>
<td>1. I may, can, must or will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You may, can, must</td>
<td>2. You may, can, must</td>
<td>2. You may, can, must or shall be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He may, can, must</td>
<td>3. He may, can, must</td>
<td>3. He may, can, must or shall be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. We may, can, must</td>
<td>1. We may, can, must</td>
<td>1. We may, can, must or will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You may, can, must</td>
<td>2. You may, can, must</td>
<td>2. You may, can, must or shall be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. They may, can, must</td>
<td>3. They may, can, must</td>
<td>3. They may, can, must or shall be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FUTURE TENSE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible</th>
<th>Possible</th>
<th>Possible</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I might, could</td>
<td>1. I might, could</td>
<td>1. I might, could, would or should be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You might, could</td>
<td>2. You might, could</td>
<td>2. You might, could, would or should be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He might, could</td>
<td>3. He might, could</td>
<td>3. He might, could, would or should be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. We might, could</td>
<td>1. We might, could</td>
<td>1. We might, could, would or should be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You might, could</td>
<td>2. You might, could</td>
<td>2. You might, could, would or should be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### PERFECT TENSE.

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

### PRIOR PAST TENSE.

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

### IMPERATIVE MODE.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Be you or do you 2. Love you or do you 2. Be you loved or do be</td>
<td>2. Be you or do you 2. Love you or do you 2. Be you loved or do be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### INFINITIVE MODE.

- **Pres.** To be
- **Pres.** To love
- **Pres.** To be loved
- **Perf.** To have been
- **Perf.** To have loved
- **Perf.** To have been loved
ETYMOLGY.

PARTICIPLES.

Perf. Been   Perf. Loved   Perf. Loved
                            been    loved    been loved

The active verb may be conjugated differently, by adding its present or active participle to the auxiliary verb to be, through all its modes and tenses; as, instead, of “I teach, you teach, he teaches,” &c., we may say, “I am teaching, you are teaching, he is teaching,” &c.; and instead of “I taught,” &c., “I was teaching,” &c., and so on, through all the variations of the auxiliary. This mode of conjugation has, on particular occasions, a peculiar propriety, and contributes to the harmony and precision of the language. These forms of expression are adapted to particular acts, not to general habits, or affections of the mind. They are very frequently applied to inactive verbs; as, “I am musing; he is sleeping.”

The inactive verb is conjugated like the active; but as it partakes somewhat of the nature of the passive, it admits, in many instances, of the passive form, retaining still the inactive signification; as, “I am arrived;” “I was gone;” “I am grown.” The auxiliary verb am, was, in this case, precisely defines the time of the action or event, but does not change the nature of it; the passive form still expressing, not properly a passion, but only a state or condition of being.

The student will have observed, ere this, that the Indicative and Subjunctive modes have each the six tenses; that the Potential has but four, the Infinitive but two, and the Imperative but one. He will also have noticed, that the Subjunctive mode differs from the Indicative, except in the future tenses, only in taking before it if, or some other word implying doubt. The potential mode becomes the subjunctive, on receiving before it a conjunction expressing doubt.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. XVII.

[The student is required to name the verbs and tell the mode and tense of each. The teacher may require him to conjugate the verbs, mention their classes, number and person, or not, at his discretion.]

“IT is difficult to discover the spirit and design of some laws.”
“Printing was first brought into England by William Caxton, 1741.”
“We should be daily employed in doing good.”
“Imprudent associations disqualify us for instructing or improving others.”
“A sop is despised by every one save himself.”
“And forgive us our trespasses as we forgive those who trespass against us.”
“None can forgive sins but God only.”
“We must not go in the way of evil men, if we would not be contaminated by them.”
“Virtue is generally praised: it would be generally practiced also, if men were wise.”
“A nail well driven will support a great weight.”
“The ambitious are always seeking to aggrandize themselves.”
“Science may raise you to eminence, but religion alone can give you true felicity.”
“We should pause and reflect, before we commence any great undertaking.”
“The slanderer is too vile to make or deserve friends.”
OTHER FORMS OF CONJUGATION.

§ 45. Having in the preceding pages given the student an expanded view of the manner in which verbs are conjugated affirmatively; he will now be able to understand, with perfect facility, the other forms of conjugation. A synopsis of them, therefore, or the first person singular in each tense, is all that will be required.

I. Conjugation of to be, and to love, Interrogatively.

A verb is conjugated interrogatively, by placing the nominative after the verb when alone, or after the first auxiliary, when one or more are used.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Pres. Am I, or be I? Love I, or do I love? Am I or be I loved?
Past. Was I, or were I loved? I, or I loved?
Perf. Have I been? Have I loved? Have I been loved?
Prior Past. Had I Had I loved?

Future tenses are wanting.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Pres. May, can, must May, can, must or shall May, can, must or shall I be? I love I be loved?
Future. Might, could, Might, could, would or would or should I be? or should I love? or should I be loved?
Perf. May, can or May, can or must I May, can or must I must I have been? have loved?
Prior Past. Might, could, would or would or should I have should I have been loved?

The other modes are wanting.

II. Conjugation of to be, and to love, Negatively.

A verb is conjugated negatively, by placing the adverb not, after the verb in the simple tenses, and in compound, between the auxiliary and the verb, or between the last two auxiliaries, or the last two but one.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present. I am not I love not I am not loved
Past. I was not I loved not I was not loved
Perf. I have not been I have not loved I have not been loved
Prior Past. I had not I had not loved I had not been loved

Future. I shall not be I shall not love I shall not be loved
Prior Fut. I shall not I shall not be loved I shall not have been loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present. If I am not If I love not If I am not loved
Past. If I was not If I loved not If I was not loved
ETYMOLOGY.

Perf. If I have not If I have not loved If I have not been
been
Prior Past. If I had If I had not loved If I had not been loved
not been
Fut. If I shall not be If I shall not love If I shall not be loved
not have been
Prior Fut. If I shall If I shall not have If I shall not have been
not have been
loved loved

POTENTIAL MODE.

Pres. I may, can, must I may, can, must or I may, can, must or
or will not be will not love will not be loved
Fut. I might, could, I might, could, would I might, could, would
would or should or should not love or should not be
not be loved
Perf. I may, can or I may, can or must I may, can or must not
must not have been not have loved have been loved
Prior Past. I might, I might, could, would I might, could, would
could, would or or should not have or should not have
not have been loved loved

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Be not or do not be Love not or do not Be not loved or do not
love be loved

INFINITIVE MODE.

Pres. Not to be Not to love Not to be loved
Perf. Not to have been Not to have loved Not to have been loved

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Not being Not loving Not being loved
Perfect. Not been Not loved Not loved
Prior Past. Not hav-ing Not having loved Not having been loved

III. Conjugation of To be, and to Have, Interrogatively and Negatively.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Pres. Am I not or be Love I not or do I not Am I not loved or be I
I not? love? not loved?
Past. Was I not? Loved I not or did I I was not loved?
love?
Perf. Have I not been? Have I not loved? Have I not been loved?
Prior Past. Had I not Had I not loved? Had I not been loved?
been?

POTENTIAL MODE.

Pres. May, can, must May, can, must or shall May, can, must or shall
or shall I not be? I not love? I not be loved?
Fut. Might, could, Might, could, would Might, could, would or
would or should I or should I not should I not be
or should I not love? loved?
Perf. May, can or May, can or must I May, can or must I not
must I not have been? not have loved? have been loved?
Prior Past. Might, Might, could, would Might, could, would or
could, would or should or should I not have should I not have
I not have been? loved? been loved?

The other modes are wanting.
It will be observed that this form of conjugation is simply a combination of the *Interrogative* and *Negative*.

**IV. Synopsis with Thou.**

For the benefit of those who wish to retain the pronoun *thou*, in the conjugation of verbs, the following synopsis is given. The pupil can take it separately, or be taught it in connection with the other persons of the verb, by substituting *thou* for you, in the foregoing conjugation.

**INDICATIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Thou art</th>
<th>Thou lovest</th>
<th>Thou art loved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Past.</td>
<td>Thou wast</td>
<td>Thou lovedst</td>
<td>Thou wast loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>Thou hast been</td>
<td>Thou hast loved</td>
<td>Thou hast been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Past.</td>
<td>Thou hast had</td>
<td>Thou hast loved</td>
<td>Thou hast been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>Thou wilt be</td>
<td>Thou wilt love</td>
<td>Thou wilt be loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Fut.</td>
<td>Thou wilt have</td>
<td>Thou wilt have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>If thou art</th>
<th>If thou lovest</th>
<th>If thou art loved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Past.</td>
<td>If thou wast</td>
<td>If thou lovedst</td>
<td>If thou wast loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>If thou hast been</td>
<td>If thou hast loved</td>
<td>If thou hast been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Past.</td>
<td>If thou</td>
<td>If thou had</td>
<td>If thou had been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hadst been</td>
<td>had loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>If thou wilt be</td>
<td>If thou wilt love</td>
<td>If thou wilt be loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Fut.</td>
<td>If thou</td>
<td>If thou wilt have</td>
<td>If thou wilt have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>had been</td>
<td>loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**POTENTIAL MODE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Thou mayst, Thou mayst, canst, Thou mayst, canst, canst, must or shalt</th>
<th>must or shalt love</th>
<th>must or shalt be loved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>Thou mightst, Thou mightt, couldst, Thou mightst, couldst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst</td>
<td>wouldst or shouldst love</td>
<td>be loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>Thou mayst or canst         Thou mayst or canst         Thou mayst or canst</td>
<td>have loved</td>
<td>have been loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior Past.</td>
<td>Thou mightst, couldst, Thou mightst, couldst, couldst,</td>
<td>wouldst or shouldst</td>
<td>have loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst</td>
<td>have loved</td>
<td>have been loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**OF IRREGULAR VERBS.**

§46. Irregular Verbs are those which do not form their past tense, and their perfect participle, by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the verb; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past.</th>
<th>Perfect Part.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I begin</td>
<td>I began</td>
<td>begun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I know</td>
<td>I knew</td>
<td>known</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Irregular Verbs are of various kinds.

1. Such as have the present and past tenses, and perfect participle the same; as,
2. Such as have the past tense, and perfect participle the same; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Perfect Part.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>Cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put</td>
<td>Put</td>
<td>Put</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Such as have the past tense, and perfect participle different; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Perfect Part.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide</td>
<td>Abode</td>
<td>Abode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sell</td>
<td>Sold</td>
<td>Sold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arise</td>
<td>Arose</td>
<td>Arisen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blow</td>
<td>Blew</td>
<td>Blown</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many verbs become irregular by contraction; as, "feed, fed; leave, left;" others by the termination ate; as, "fall, fell, fallen;" others by the termination ght, and a change of the vowel; as, "buy, bought; teach, taught;" &c.

The following list of the irregular verbs will, it is presumed, be found both comprehensive and accurate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide</td>
<td>abode</td>
<td>Draw</td>
<td></td>
<td>drew</td>
<td>drew</td>
<td>drawn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Am</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>Drive</td>
<td></td>
<td>drove</td>
<td>drove</td>
<td>driven, drove</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arise</td>
<td>arose</td>
<td>arisen</td>
<td></td>
<td>drank</td>
<td>drank</td>
<td>drunk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awake</td>
<td>awoke</td>
<td>Dwell</td>
<td></td>
<td>dwelt</td>
<td>dwelt</td>
<td>dwelt, r</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bear, to bring</td>
<td>bare</td>
<td>Eat</td>
<td></td>
<td>eat, or ate</td>
<td>eat, or ate</td>
<td>eaten, eat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fall</td>
<td></td>
<td>fell</td>
<td>fell</td>
<td>fallen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bear, to carry</td>
<td>borne</td>
<td>Feed</td>
<td></td>
<td>fed</td>
<td>fed</td>
<td>fed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>beaten, beat</td>
<td></td>
<td>felt</td>
<td>felt</td>
<td>felt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Begin</td>
<td>began, begun</td>
<td>Fight</td>
<td></td>
<td>fought</td>
<td>fought</td>
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<td>Find</td>
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<td>found</td>
<td>found</td>
<td>found</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Bereave,</td>
<td>bereft, r</td>
<td>Flee</td>
<td></td>
<td>fled</td>
<td>fled</td>
<td>fled</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beseech,</td>
<td>besought</td>
<td>Fling</td>
<td></td>
<td>flung</td>
<td>flung</td>
<td>flung</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bid</td>
<td>bid, bade</td>
<td>Fly</td>
<td></td>
<td>flew</td>
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<td>Bind</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bite</td>
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<td>Forsook</td>
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<td>forgot</td>
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<td>Bleed</td>
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<td>frost</td>
<td>frost</td>
<td>froze</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blow</td>
<td>blow</td>
<td>Frost, froze</td>
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<td>frost</td>
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<td>Frost, froze</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Cleave, to split</td>
<td>cleave</td>
<td>Hear</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Dare, to ven-</td>
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<td>Knit</td>
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</table>
IRREGULAR VERBS.

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<td>Leave</td>
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<td>Lie, to lie down</td>
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<td>See</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Swing</td>
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<tr>
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<td>wrote</td>
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</table>

In the preceding list, some of the verbs will be found to be conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly; and those which admit of the regular form are marked with an r. There is a preference to be given to some of these, which custom and judgment must determine.

Such verbs as are irregular only in familiar writing and discourse, and which are improperly terminated by t, instead of ed, have not been inserted; as, learnt, spelt, spilt, &c.

These should be avoided in every sort of composition. It is, however, proper to observe, that some contractions of ed into t, are unexceptionable; and others, the only established forms of expression; as, crept, gilt, &c.; and lost, felt, slept, &c. These allowable and necessary contractions must therefore be carefully distinguished by the learner, from those that are exceptional. The words which are obsolete have also been omitted, that the learner might not be induced to mistake them for words in present use. Such are, wreatheen, drunken, holpen, molten, gotten, holden, bounden, &c.: and swang, wrang, stalk, strawed, gat, brake, bare, ware, &c.
There is a disposition manifested, which deserves encouragement, to make all verbs, so far as their structure will allow, regular. Hence the number of irregular verbs within the last century, has considerably diminished. Thrive, work, wax, and some others, have now the regular form, and we seldom hear the old terms, throne, thrown, waxen and wrought. It would be well if some farther changes of this nature were made. Wherever the structure of a verb will admit of the regular terminations, it is very desirable that these should be used in preference to the old forms, until custom and respectable usage shall render the latter obsolete.

In a number of words, the dropping of n in the participle will make a convenient distinction between the participle and the adjective; for in the latter, we always retain the en—we always say a written treatise, a spoken language, a hidden mystery—though the best authors write, a "mystery hid from ages;" "the language spoke in Bengal."

Bishop Lowth attempted to restore to use some of the obsolete past tenses and participles; but the attempt was fruitless.

OF DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 47. Defective Verbs are those which are used only in some of their modes and tenses.

The principal of them are these:

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Beware is not used in the indicative present. Must has no variation. Ought is invariant, except in the solemn style, where oughtest is sometimes found. That the verbs, must and ought have both a present and past signification, appears from the following sentences: "I must own that I am to blame;" "He must have been mistaken;" "Speaking things which they ought not;" "These ought ye to have done." Will is sometimes used as a principal verb, and when so used, it is regular and complete. Quoth is used only in the ludicrous style, and scarcely deserves to be ranked among the verbs of the language. It is not varied, and is confined to the third person singular.

In most languages there are some verbs which are defective with respect to persons. These are denominataed impersonal verbs. They are used only in the third person, because they refer to a subject peculiarly appropriated to that person; as, "It rains, it snows, it hails, it lightens, it thunders." But as the word impersonal implies a total absence of persons, it is improperly applied to those verbs which have a person: and hence it is manifest, that there is no such thing in English, nor indeed, in any language, as a kind of verbs really impersonal. Verbs of one person may be called unipersonal.
CHAPTER VI.

OF ADVERBS.

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

Adverbs seem originally to have been contrived to express compendiously in one word, what must otherwise have required two or more; as, "He acted wisely," for, he acted with wisdom; "prudently," for, with prudence; "He did it here," for, he did it in this place; "exceedingly," for, to a great degree; "often and seldom," for many, and for few times; "very," for, in an eminent degree, &c.

Phrases, which perform the office of adverbs, may properly be termed Adverbial Phrases; as, "a few days ago,"—"long since,"—"now and then,"—"in a short time,"—"by and by," &c.

There are many words in the English language which are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs; as, "More men than women were there;" or, "I am more diligent than he." In the former sentence more is evidently an adjective, and in the latter, an adverb. There are others that are sometimes used as substantives, and sometimes as adverbs; as, "To-day's lesson is longer than yesterday's;" here, to-day and yesterday are substantives, because they are words that make sense of themselves, and admit besides of a possessive case; but in the phrase, "He came home yesterday, and sets out again to-day," they are adverbs of time, because they answer to the question, when. The adverb much, is used as all three; as, "Where much is given, much is required;" "Much money has been expended;" "It is much better to go than to stay." In the first of these sentences, much is a substantive; in the second, it is an adjective; and in the third, an adverb. In short, nothing but the sense can determine what they are.

Classes of Adverbs.

§49. Adverbs, though very numerous, may be reduced to certain classes, the chief of which are those of Number, Order, Place, Time, Quantity, Manner, or Quality, Doubt, Affirmation, Negation, Interrogation, and Comparison.

1. Of Number; as, "Once, twice, thrice," &c.
2. Of Order; as, "First, secondly, thirdly, lastly, finally," &c.
3. Of Place; as, "Here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, herein, whither, hither, thither, upward, downward, forward, backward, whence, hence, thence, whithersoever," &c.
4. Of Time. Of time present; as, "Now, to-day," &c. Of time past; as, "Already, before, lately, yesterday, heretofore, hitherto, long since, long ago," &c. Of time to come; as, "To-morrow, not yet,
ETYMOLOGY.

hereafter, henceforth, henceforward, by and by, instantly, presently, immediately, straightway; &c. Of time indefinite; as, "Oft, often, oft-times, often-times, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, always, when, then, ever, never, again," &c.

5. Of quantity; as, "Much, little, sufficiently, how much, how great, enough, abundantly," &c.

6. Of manner or quality; as, "Wisely, foolishly, justly, unjustly, quickly, slowly," &c. Adverbs of quality are the most numerous kind; and they are generally formed by adding the termination ly to an adjective or participle, or changing te into ly; as, "Bad, badly; cheerful, cheerfully; able, ably; admirable, admirably."

7. Of doubt; as, "Perhaps, peradventure, possibly, perchance."

8. Of affirmation; as, "Verily, truly, undoubtedly, doubtless, certainly, yea, yes, surely, indeed, really," &c.

9. Of negation; as, "Nay, no, not, by no means, not at all, in no wise," &c.

10. Of interrogation; as "Hew, why, wherefore, whether," &c.

11. Of comparison; as, "More, most, better, best, worse, worst, less, least, very, almost, little, alike," &c.

The distinction of adverbs into separate classes, as above, is of little consequence in itself. It is done rather to give the student a fuller view of the nature and uses of adverbs, than to be of any practical utility to him in parsing. The multitude of distinctions of this sort, which some grammarians have made, perplex more than aid the learner.

Comparison of Adverbs.

§50. Adverbs are not varied except to express degrees of comparison.

Adverbs of manner or quality are compared by more and most, less and least; as, slowly, more slowly, most slowly; quickly, less quickly, least quickly.

Some Adverbs are compared after the manner of adjectives; soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest.

The following are irregularly compared: well, better, best; forth, further, furthest, and some others.

Very many adverbs, from their nature, cannot be compared, as those of number, order, place, &c.

PRACTICAL EXERCISE—No. XVIII.

[Let the pupil name the adverbs in these sentences, and compare them when they admit of comparison.]

"We are fearfully and wonderfully made."
"Virtue is bold, and goodness never fearful."
"Listen attentively to advice, but be not too confident."
"The heavenly bodies are perpetually in motion."
"We should always prefer our duty to our pleasure."
"Man is more easily inclined to do evil than good."
"The garment was decently formed and sewed very neatly."
"We ought to live soberly, righteously and piously in this world."
"Hitherto I have been thoughtless: I will henceforth be more considerate."
ADVERBS—PREPOSITIONS.

OF OTHER ADVERBS.

§ 51. Besides the adverbs already mentioned, there are many which are formed by a combination of several of the prepositions with the adverbs of place, here, there, and where; as, "Hereof, thereof, whereof; hereto, thereto, whereto; hereby, therby, whereby; herewith, therewith, wherewith; herein, therein, wherein; therefore, (i.e. there for,) wherefore, (i.e. where for,) hereupon, or hereon, therupon or thereon, whereupon, or whereon, &c. Except therefore, these are seldom used.

In some instances the preposition suffers no change, but becomes an adverb merely by its application; as when we say, "He rides about," "he was near falling;" "but do not after lay the blame on me."

There are also some adverbs, which are composed of nouns, and the letter a used instead of at, on, &c.; as, "Aside, athirst, afoot, ahead, asleep, aboard, ashore, a-bed, aground, afloat," &c.

The words when and where, and all others of the same nature, such as, whence, whither, whenever, wherever, &c. may be properly called adversative conjunctions, because they participate of the nature both of adverbs and conjunctions: of conjunctions, as they connect sentences; of adverbs, as they denote the attributes either of time or place.

It may be particularly observed with respect to the word therefore, that it is an adverb, when, without joining sentences, it only gives the sense of, for that reason. When it gives that sense, and also connects, it is a conjunction; as, "He is good, therefore he is happy." The same observation may be extended to the words consequently, accordingly, and the like. When these are subjoined to and, or joined to if, since, &c. they are adverbs, the connection being made without their help: when they appear single, and unsupported by any other connective, they may be called conjunctions.

The inquisitive scholar may naturally ask what necessity there is for adverbs of time, when verbs are provided with tenses, to show that circumstance. The answer is, though tenses may be sufficient to denote the greater distinctions of time, yet, to denote them all by the tenses would be a perplexity without end. What a variety of forms must be given to the verb, to denote yesterday, to-day, to-morrow, formerly, lately, just now, now, immediately, presently, soon, hereafter, &c. It was this consideration that made the adverbs of time necessary, over and above the tenses.

The definitive the is often prefixed to an adverb, by way of emphasis, and in such instances may be considered as a part of the adverb, or the whole regarded as an adversative phrase.

CHAPTER VII.

OF PREPOSITIONS.

§ 52. Prepositions serve to connect words with one another, and to show the relation between them. They are, for the most part, put before nouns and pronouns; as, "He went from London to New York;" "She is above disguise;" "They are instructed by him."
Another very frequent use of Prepositions, is to show the condition of things; as, "Christ was crucified between two thieves," "Babylon stood on the Euphrates."

The following is a list of the principal prepositions:

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<td>By</td>
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The learner will find it advantageous to commit to memory the preceding list of prepositions.

Sometimes, for the expression of particular relations or conditions, two prepositions are used; as, "He was soon seen issuing from beneath the roof of a lowly cottage," "While from before the luster of her face, white break the clouds away." In such instances the two prepositions are to be passed as one.

The necessity and use of prepositions will appear from the following examples. If we say, "he writes a pen," "they ran the river," "the tower fell the Greeks," "Lambeth is Westminster-abbey," there is observable, in each of these expressions, either a total want of connexion, or such a connexion as produces falsehood or nonsense; and it is evident, that, before they can be turned into sense, the vacancy must be filled up by some connecting word; as thus, "He writes with a pen;" "they ran towards the river;" "the tower fell upon the Greeks;" "Lambeth is over against Westminster-abbey." We see by these instances, how prepositions may be necessary to connect those words, which in their signification are not naturally connected.

Prepositions, in their original and literal acceptation, seem to have denoted relations of place; but they are now used figuratively to express other relations. For example, as they who are above have in several respects the advantage of such as are below, prepositions expressing high and low places are used for superiority and inferiority in general; as, "He is above disguise;" "we serve under a good master;" "he rules over a willing people;" "we should do nothing beneath our character."

Verbs are often compounded of a verb and a preposition; as, to uphold, to invest, to overlook: and this composition sometimes gives a new sense to the verb; as, to understand, to withdraw, to forgive. But in English, the preposition is more frequently placed after the

*Some grammarians have very much enlarged this list of prepositions by introducing into it the words, concerning, except, excepting, notwithstanding, but, touching, being, during, regarding, and others of a similar character. This is a liberty not warranted in the structure of our language. The words just named are either participles or verbs, taking after them the objective case, and should so be construed in parsing.
verb, and separately from it, like an adverb, in which situation it is not less apt to affect the sense of it, and to give it a new meaning; and may still be considered as belonging to the verb, and as a part of it. As, to cast, is to throw; but to cast up, or to compute, an account, is quite a different thing: thus, to fall on, to bear off, to give over, &c. So that the meaning of the verb, and the propriety of the phrase, depend on the preposition subjoined.

In the composition of many words, there are certain syllables employed which grammarians have called inseparable prepositions; as, be, con, mis, &c. in bededek, conjoin, mistake; but as they are not words of any kind, they cannot properly be called a species of preposition.

The importance of the prepositions will be further perceived by the explanation of a few of them.

Of denotes possession or belonging, an effect or consequence, and other relations connected with these; as, "the house of my friend;" that is, "the house belonging to my friend;" "He died of a fever;" that is, "in consequence of a fever."

To, or unto, is opposed to from; as, "He rode from Salisbury to Winchester."

For indicates the cause of any action or circumstance, &c.; as, "He loves her for (that is, on account of) her amiable qualities."

By is generally used with reference to the cause, agent, means, &c.; as, "He was killed by a fall;" that is, "a fall was the cause of his being killed;" "This house was built by him;" that is, "he was the builder of it."

With denotes the act of accompanying, uniting, &c.; as, "we will go with you;" "They are on good terms with each other."—With also alludes to the instrument or means; as, "He was cut with a knife."

In relates to time, place, the state or manner of being or acting, &c.; as, "He was born in (that is, during) the year 1720;" "He dwells in the city;" "She lives in affluence."

Into is used after verbs that imply motion of any kind; as, "He retired into the country;" "Copper is converted into brass."

Within, relates to something comprehended in any place or time; as, "They are within the house;" "He began and finished his work within the limited time."

The signification of without is opposite to that of within; as, "She stands without the gate." But it is more frequently opposed to with; as, "You may go without me."

The import and force of the remaining prepositions will be readily understood, without a particular detail of them.

The prepositions after, before, above, beneath, and several others, sometimes appear to be adverbs, and may be so considered; as, "They had their reward soon after;" "He died not long before;" "He dwells above;" but if the nouns time and place be added, they will lose their adverbial form; as, "He died long before that time," &c.
§53. A Conjunction is a part of speech that is chiefly used to connect sentences; so as, out of two or more sentences, to make but one. It sometimes connects only words.

Conjunctions are principally divided into two classes, the Copulative and the Disjunctive.

The Conjunction Copulative serves to connect or to continue a sentence, by expressing an addition, a supposition, a cause, &c.; as, "He and his brother reside in London;" "I will go if he will accompany me;" "You are happy, because you are good."

The Conjunction Disjunctive serves, not only to connect and continue the sentence, but also frequently, to express opposition of meaning in different degrees; as, "Though he was frequently reproved, yet he did not reform;" "They came with her, but they went away without her."

The following is a list of the principal Conjunctions:

And, if, that, for, then, since, because, therefore, both, but, or, nor, as, than, though, yet, either, neither, unless.

Several of the conjunctions of this list, are never used but in connection with some other conjunction, and hence they are called corresponding conjunctions. Both, either, and neither are of this kind. Their connective influence unites with that of the conjunction following them, and thereby the connection is more strongly marked and the sentence often rendered more emphatic; as, "Ye have both seen and hated both me and my Father;" "I will either go or stay;" "James neither loves nor obeys his parents." Other conjunctions, as or, nor, in certain uses, become corresponding; as, "Nor can the billowy plain evade its searing force; or whirled in air, or into vacant chaff shock waste." "Alas! nor wife, nor children, more shall he behold; nor friends, nor sacred home." [See §78, Remark 4.]

The same word is occasionally used both as a conjunction and as an adverb; and sometimes as a preposition. "I rest then upon this argument: then is here a conjunction. In the following phrase, it is an adverb: "He arrived then and not before." "I submitted; for it was vain to resist; in this sentence, for is a conjunction; in the next, it is a preposition: "He contended for victory only." In the first of the following sentences, since is a conjunction; in the second, it is a

* We have thought it best not to attempt to arrange this list of conjunctions, under the respective heads of copulative and disjunctive. Some of those which have been called disjunctive, have very frequently the sense of the copulative, and vice versa. A conjunction is to be parsed as copulative or disjunctive, according to its significance, in the given case.
CONJUNCTIONS.

preposition; and in the third, an adverb: "Since we must part, let us do it peaceably;" "I have not seen him since that time;" "Our friendship commenced long since."

Conjunctions very often unite sentences; when they appear to unite only words; as in the following instances: "Duty and interest forbid vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom or folly governs us." Each of these forms of expression contains two sentences; viz. "Duty forbids vicious indulgences; interest forbids vicious indulgences;" "Wisdom governs us, or folly governs us."

Though the conjunction is commonly used to connect sentences together, yet, on some occasions, it merely connects words, not sentences; as, "The king and queen are an amiable pair;" where the affirmation cannot refer to each; it being absurd to say that the king or the queen only is an amiable pair. So in the instances, "Two and two are four;" "The fifth and sixth volumes will complete the set of books." Prepositions also, as before observed, connect words; but they do it to show the relation which the connected words have to each other: conjunctions, when they unite words only, are designed to show the relations which those words, so united, have to other parts of the sentence.

As there are many conjunctions and connective phrases appropriated to the coupling of sentences, that are never employed in joining the members of a sentence; so there are several conjunctions appropriated to the latter use, which are never employed in the former; and some that are equally adapted to both those purposes; as, again, further, besides, &c. of the second; and but, and, for, therefore, &c. of the last.

Relative pronouns, as well as conjunctions, serve to connect sentences; as, "Blessed is the man who feareth the Lord, and keepeth his commandments."

A relative pronoun possesses the force both of a pronoun and a connective. Nay, the union by relatives is rather closer than that by mere conjunctions. The latter may form two or more sentences into one; but, by the former, several sentences may be incorporated into one and the same clause of a sentence. Thus, "Thou seest a man, and he is called Peter," is a sentence consisting of two distinct clauses, united by the conjunction and; but, "The man whom thou seest is called Peter," is a sentence of one clause, and not less comprehensive than the other.

A few remarks on the conjunction, but, will close this chapter.

"But" is used for two Saxon words, originally by mistake, but now by established custom; bet or bote, the radical of our modern words better, boot, and denoting sufficiency, compensation, more, further, or something additional, by way of amendment; and bentan or butan, equivalent to without or except.

In the former sense, we have the word in this sentence; "John resides at York, but Thomas resides at Bristol." The primitive sense here is, John resides at York; more, add, or supply, Thomas resides at Bristol. It does not always signify opposition, as is usually supposed, but some addition to the sense of what goes before.

In the latter sense, or that of butan, it is used in this passage, "He hath not grieved me but in part." That is, "He hath not grieved me
ETYMOLOGY.

except in part.” The first assertion is a complete negation; the word but (butan) introduces an exception. “Nothing but true religion can give us peace in death.” Here also is a complete negation; with a saving introduced by but. Nothing except true religion.

These were the only primitive uses of but, until, by means of a mistake, a third sense was added, which is that of only. Not knowing the origin and true meaning of but, authors omitted the negation in certain phrases where it was essential to a true construction; as in the following passages: “Our light affliction, which is but for a moment.” “If they kill us, we shall but die.”

The but, in these passages, is butan, to be out, except; and according to the true original sense, not should precede, to give the sentence a negative turn: “Our light affliction is not, but (except) for a moment.” “We shall not, but die.” As they now stand, they would in strictness signify—Our light affliction is except for a moment—We can except die—which would not be sense. To correct the sense, and repair the breach made in the true English idiom, by this mistake, we must give but a new sense, equivalent to only. Thus we are obliged to patch and mend, to prevent the mischiefs of innovation.

The history of this word but should be, as Johnson expresses the idea, “a guide to reformers, and a terror to innovators.” The first blunder or innovation blended two words of distinct meanings into one, in orthography and pronunciation. Then the sense and etymology being obscured, authors proceeded to a further change, and suppressed the negation, which was essential to the butan. We have now therefore one word with three different and unalied meanings; and to these may be reduced the whole of Johnson’s eighteen definitions of but.”—Webster’s Grammar.

CHAPTER IX.

OF INTERJECTIONS.

§54. Interjections are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence, to express the passions or emotions of the speaker; as, “Oh! I have alienated my friend; alas! I fear for life;” “O virtue; how amiable thou art!”

The term Exclamations, would express more appropriately this class of words—certainly would be more significant—than that of Interjections; for they are mere irregular sounds, the result of passionate emotions, and are guided by no rules.

The English Interjections, as well as those of other languages, are comprised within a small compass. They are of different kinds, according to the different passions which they serve to express. Those which intimate earnestness or grief, are, O! oh! ah! alas! Such as are expressive of contempt, are pish! tush! of wonder, heigh! really! strange! of calling, hem! ho! soho! of aversion, or disgust, foh! fe! away! of a call of the attention, lo! behold! hark! of requesting silence, hush! hush! of salutation, welcome! hail! all hail! Besides these,
INTERJECTIONS.

several others, frequent in the mouths of the multitude, might be enumerated; but in a grammar of a cultivated tongue, it is unnecessary to expatiate on such expressions of passion, as are scarcely worthy of being ranked among the branches of artificial language.

In two or three instances, exclamations are followed by names and substitutes in the nominative and objective—as, O thou, in the nominative—ah me, in the objective. Sometimes that follows O, expressing a wish—"O that the Lord would guide my ways." But in such cases, we may consider wish, or some other verb to be understood.

Interjections, though frequent in discourse, do not often occur in elegant composition. Unpracticed writers, however, are apt to abound in the use of them, in order, as they imagine, to give pathos to their style; which is nearly the same, as if, with the view of rendering conversation witty or humorous, one were to interrupt it with frequent peals of laughter. They who wish to speak often, and have little to say, are apt to abound in the exclamations, wonderful, amazing, prodigious, O dear me, surprising, and the like: and hence the too frequent use of such words tends to breed a suspicion, that one labors under a scantiness of ideas.

Interjections denoting imprecation, and those in which the Divine Name is irreverently mentioned, are always offensive to a pious mind; and the writer or speaker, who contracts a habit of introducing them, may, without breach of charity, be suspected of profaneness.

A brief sketch of the origin of the English Language.

§ 55. [The following brief synopsis of the origin of our Language, will prove both interesting and instructive to the student. It is copied, verbatim, from the Introduction to the Dictionary of N. Bailey, a work printed in London, Eng., 1749. The student will perceive that all nouns are commenced with capitals.]

"The ancient Language of Britain is generally allowed to have been the same with the Gaulic or French (this Island, in all probability, having been first peopled from Gallia) as both Caesar and Tacitus affirm, and prove, by many strong and conclusive Arguments, as by their Religion, Manners, Customs, and the Nearness of their Situation. But now we have very small Remains of the ancient British Tongue left in England, except in Wales and Cornwall; which will not appear strange when what follows is considered.

Julius Caesar, some Time before the Birth of our Saviour, in the Time of King Cassivellane, made a Descent upon England, tho' he rather discover'd it than made a Conquest of it; but about the Year of Christ 45, in the Time of Claudius, Julius Plautius was sent over with some Roman Forces, by whom, and P. Ostorius Scapula, Codigunus, and Caracallus, two Kings of the Britons, were severally overcome in a Battle. A Roman Colony was planted at Maldon in Essex, and the southern Parts thereof reduced to the Form of a Roman Province; and after that, the Whole was conquered, as far as to the Firths of Dumbarton and Edinburgh, by Agricola, in the Time of Domitian; and the Remains of the unconquered Britons retired to the West Part, called Wales, carrying their Language with them over the Mountains, where they have preserv'd it to this Day.

Britain being thus become a Roman Province, tho' still suffered to be governed by Kings of its own, as Vice-Roys under the Roman Emperors, the Roman Legions residing in Britain for the Space of above two hundred Years, undoubtly disseminated the Latin Tongue; and
the People being also governed by Laws written in Latin, must necessarily make a Mixture of Languages. This seems to have been the first Mutation the Language of Britain suffered: However, so tenacious were our Forefathers of their Native Language, that it over-grew the Roman.

Thus the British Tongue continued for some Time mix'd with Provincial Latin, till the Roman Legions being call'd home, upon account of intestine Troubles, about the Year 433, the Scots and Picts, taking the Advantage of their Absence, harass'd the Northern Parts of Britain; against whom King Vortigern, about the Year 440, call'd in the Assistance of the Saxons, a Great and Potent Nation among the Germans, in the Dukedom of Holstein, but greater by the Aggregation of many People under their Name and Service, as the Jutes from Jutland, and the Angles from Sleswick; who coming hither under the Conduct of Hengist and Horsa, having overcome the Picts and Scots in a pitch'd Battle, near Stamford in Lincolnshire, were afterwards rewarded for this Victory with the Isle of Thanet, and after that with the whole County of Kent, where they governed for about 350 Years, under the Titles of Earls of Kent; but they growing powerful, began afterwards to quarrel with their Landlords, whom by Degrees they dispossess'd of all the Country on this Side the Severn, parcelling it out into seven Kingdoms, called the Saxon Heptarchy, destroying the British Tongue, then mix'd with the Provincal Latin, together with the Inhabitants, by a long and destructive War, the Remains of them being again oblig'd to retire with the British Tongue over the Mountains of Wales.

So the British Language being in a manner quite extinct in all other Parts of Britain, the Saxon Language became the Language of the Country, and so continued till near the Year 800, when the Danes infested England, and made Settlements in the North and East Parts of Britain, and at length, in about 200 Years, arriv'd at the sole Government of it; but their Government lasting only about 26 Years, made not so considerable a Change in the English Saxon, as the next Revolution. Then about the Year 1067, William Duke of Normandy commonly called William the Conqueror, came over to Britain; and, having vanquished Harold the Danish King, made an entire Conquest of Britain: And as a Monument of their Conquest, the Normans endeavoured to yoke the English under their Tongue, as they had them under their Command, by compelling them to teach their Children in their Schools nothing but the French, by publishing their Laws in French, and by enforcing them most rigorously to plead and be imploade in that Tongue, for the Space of about 350 Years: By which means the Language of Britain became a Dialect of the English Saxon, and Norman French, which now are the Ground-work or Fundamentals of the present Language of Great-Britain."

The causes which produce changes in Languages, are stated by the same Author, quoted above, to be, in general, three; viz.

"First, Commigrations or Conquests of Nations, by which, in Tract of Time, there succeeds a Coalition of the Languages of the Conquerors with the Conquered. So the Italian Language sprang from the Latin, being mixed with German-Gothic: The Spanish from Latin, German, and ancient Gaulish or Morisca: The French from the Latin, German, and ancient Gaulish or Gallic.

Secondly, From Commerce, by which Offices, Dignities, the Names
of Wares, and Terms of Traffick, are introduced, which we commonly take with the Wares from the Persons of whom we have them, and new form them according to the Genius of our own Tongue.

Thirdly, From the Esteem and valuable Properties of any particular Language, by which we endeavour to imitate this or that Tongue, as the more Learned, Elegant, Copious, or Expressive. So learned Men all over Europe esteem the Latin and Greek Tongues, as the Treasuries of all Science; Christian Divines reverence the Hebrew and Greek; the Turks and Mahometans the Arabic, as the Mistress of Religion; the Dutch, Germans and the English, the French, for its Softness and Smoothness of Expression; the Danes and Swedes the Teutonic, as more copious.”

PART III.

SYNTAX.

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

CHAPTER 1.

OF SYNTAX IN GENERAL.

§56. The Government of words, is that power which one part of speech has over another, in directing its mode, tense, number, person, or case.

The Agreement of words, is the conformity or correspondence, which one word has with another, in gender, number, person, case, mode, or tense.

The Relation of words, is their dependence or connection, according to the sense, or construction of the sentence.

The Right Construction of words, is the arrangement or relative position of them in sentences, according to grammatical rules, founded on the nature and established usages of language.
§57. A sentence is an assemblage of words, making complete sense, and containing one or more propositions.

A proposition is an expression by which something is affirmed or denied; as, "snow is white;" "birds fly." It consists of a subject and predicate.

The subject of a proposition, is that of which something is affirmed, or spoken; as, "Man dies;" "Truth will prevail."

The predicate expresses that which is affirmed or spoken of the subject; as, "Virtue will be rewarded." Here, will be rewarded, is the predicate; Virtue is the subject.

Sentences are of two kinds, simple and compound.

A simple sentence is a single proposition; as, "Life is short."

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences, or propositions, connected together; as, "Life is short, and art is long."

Sentences are declaratory; as, "I am; Charles is loved," —interrogative; as, "Did Alexander conquer Persia?" "Where am I?"—imperative; as, "Go, thou traitor," "Haste you away,"—or conditional; as, "If you would be healthy, live temperately."

A clause, or member, is a proposition of a compound sentence.

Members, or propositions of compound sentences, are connected together by conjunctions, relative pronouns, or adverbs.

A phrase is two or more words rightly put together, making a part of a sentence, or proposition; as, "Entertaining for you the highest respect." "Loving to do well."

An Adjunct is a word, or several words added to illustrate or exemplify the force of other words; as, "Vices, like shadows, towards the evening of life, grow great and monstrous."

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

§58. 1. The subject is either grammatical or logical.

The grammatical subject is a noun, or some word standing for a noun, in the nominative case. The logical subject consists of the grammatical subject, with the various words which modify or qualify it: thus, in the sentence, "The consciousness of a life well spent is very pleasant."—con-
Syntax in General.

sioness is the grammatical subject, and the consciousness of a life well spent, is the logical subject.

Remark.—Words are said to modify or qualify others, when they serve to explain, describe, enlarge, restrict, or otherwise affect their meaning:

A subject is either simple or compound.

A simple subject is a single noun, or pronoun, alone, or variously modified; as, "Time flies swiftly," "The hours of this day are rapidly passing."

A compound subject consists of two or more simple subjects, having but one predicate; as, "Patience and diligence will remove mountains."

2. The predicate, like the subject, is either grammatical or logical.

The grammatical predicate is a finite* verb alone. The logical predicate consists of the grammatical predicate with its various modifying words: thus, in the sentence, "Virtue embalms the memory of the good," embalms is the grammatical, and embalms the memory of the good, is the logical predicate.

If the grammatical predicate is not modified, it is the same as the logical predicate. The same is true of the subject.

The predicate also, like the subject, is either simple or compound.

A simple predicate is one that contains a single finite verb; as, "All enjoy many blessings."

A compound predicate consists of two or more simple predicates belonging to one subject; as, "The virtuous man admires, loves and practices virtue.

When the verb is transitive, the logical predicate always contains an object. The object is the thing affected by the action of the verb, and is grammatical or logical. The grammatical object is the objective case alone. The logical object is the objective case, with its modifying words: thus, in the sentence, "We should fear the Author of our being," Author is the grammatical, and Author of our being, the logical object.

Rules of Syntax.

§ 59. The rules of Syntax are those laws, founded on the genius of any particular language, or the established practice of its best writers and speakers, which determine the government, agreement, relation and arrangement of words in sentences.

*A verb in any mode except the infinitive, is called a finite verb.
In the arrangement of the following rules, the order of the parts of speech in Etymology, has been observed as nearly as the subject would admit. As the student will be able easily to distinguish the rules relating to agreement, government, or relation, from others, an arrangement founded on this mode of classification, was deemed unnecessary.

For a clear apprehension of the rules of Syntax, the following definitions may be of service:

1. A noun is said to be the case independent or absolute, when it has no relative connection with, or dependence on, other parts of the sentence.

2. One word is said to follow another, when it depends upon it in construction, and is in some way influenced or modified by it.

3. Words are said to be in apposition, when they mean the same thing, and agree in case.

4. One word is said to belong to another, when it qualifies it, or describes its character.

**Rule I. — Nouns and Pronouns.**

A noun or pronoun, when it is the subject of a verb, is in the nominative case.

*Illustration.* — "A good man's words inflict no injury." Here, words being the subject, is in the nominative case. We say in parsing, it is in the nominative case and the subject of the verb inflict, or nominative case to the verb inflict, which must agree with it in number and person.

**Rule II. — Nouns and Pronouns.**

A noun or pronoun, when it is the name of a person or thing addressed, is in the nominative case independent.

*Illus.* — "Fathers! Senators of Rome! to you I fly for justice." Fathers and Senators are here the names of persons addressed, and are in the nominative independent.

**Rule III. — Nouns and Pronouns.**

A noun or pronoun, when joined with a participle, and independent of the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case absolute.

*Illus.* — "Our candles being lighted, the whole place was illuminated." Here, candles joined with the participle being lighted, stands without a verb, and is in the case absolute. So in the following sentence; "Washington, notwithstanding all his discouragements, achieved our Independence." Discouragements is here in the case absolute, joined with notwithstanding.

*Note.* Sometimes, the noun is independent both of a verb or participle, and when so, may be put in the nominative case absolute; as, "Lo, the poor Indian! whose untutored mind sees God in clouds, and hears him in the wind."
RULE IV.—Nouns and Pronouns.

A noun or pronoun, denoting possession, and placed before a noun limiting its meaning, is in the possessive case.

*Illus.*—"His brother's offence will not condemn him." *Brother's* denotes possession, and is in the possessive case before offence, which limits its meaning. The pronoun *his*, also, is in the possessive before *brother's*.

RULE V.—Nouns and Pronouns.

The object of a transitive verb, or its participle, is in the objective case.

*Illus.*—"The Lord overthrew the Egyptians in the midst of the sea." *Egyptians*, in this sentence, is the object of *overthrew*, and therefore in the objective case. "The king, approving the plan, put it in execution." Here, *plan*, the object of the participle *approving*, is in the objective case.

RULE VI.—Nouns and Pronouns.

The object* of a preposition is in the objective case.

*Illus.*—"In the death of a man there is no remedy." Here, *death* is the object of *in*, and *man* is the object of the preposition *of*; they are therefore in the objective case.

RULE VII.—Nouns and Pronouns.

Two objective cases may follow transitive verbs of *naming*, *giving*, *judging*, and the like; a preposition in general being understood.

*Illus.*—"They gave *him* vinegar to drink, mingled with gall." In this sentence, *him* and *vinegar* are both in the objective case after *gave*; *him*, however, is not the object of *gave*, but of a preposition understood: thus, "They gave to him," &c.

Note. When a verb in the active voice is followed by two objective cases, in the passive, it is followed by one; as, "He was given vinegar to drink, mingled with gall."

RULE VIII.—Nouns and Pronouns.

Two or more nouns or pronouns, in the same sentence, signifying the same person or thing, are put, by apposition, in the same case.

*Illus.*—"Demeocles, the Orator, flourished in the time of Philip, the Macedonian general." Here *orator*, meaning the same person as

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*The object of a preposition is one of relation, not of action.*
Demonstreames, is put in the nominative case with it. So also general, meaning the same as Philip, is in apposition with it, and both are in the objective case, the object of the preposition of.

Rule IX.—Nouns.

Nouns, signifying direction, distance, time how long, or when, are in the objective case; a preposition being in general understood.

Illus.—“Charles approved his advice and returned the way he went.” Here, way is in the objective case, and is the object of is or over understood. So in the following sentences: “He walked twelve miles,” that is, over twelve miles, or through the space of twelve miles. “Webster was in college four years,” that is, for four years, or through a period of four years. “I visit Boston every month,” that is, on every month, or on the return of every month.

Note. Nouns of measure, dimension, quantity or valuation, followed by an adjective, are in the objective case, without a governing word; as, “Europe is three thousand miles long.” “The largest Egyptian pyramid has a base six hundred and sixty feet square.”

Rule X.—Pronouns.

Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number and person.

Illus.—“Johnson has arrived; he is the man of whom I spoke.” He and whom are each of the masculine gender, third person and singular number, to agree with Johnson or man. I is of the first person, singular number, and of the gender of the person speaking.

Rule XI.—Adjectives.

Adjectives and adjective pronouns belong to nouns or pronouns, which they qualify, describe or point out.

Illus.—“A wise man bridles his tongue.” The adjective wise describes man, and therefore belongs to it.

Note. An adjective may belong to a verb in the infinitive mode, to a part of a sentence, or whole sentence, used substantively; as, “To calumniate is detestable.” Here, detestable belongs to, to calumniate. “To be a coward, is disgraceful.” Disgraceful belongs to, to be a coward.

Rule XII.—Adjectives.

Adjectives are often used as adverbs, and as such qualify and belong to like parts of speech.

Illus.—“Clay burns white.” Here the adjective white, qualifies burns. To say that white, in this instance, is an adverb, is to destroy
the sense. The clay does not burn whitely, but white.* "The tree grew straight and thick."

RULE XIII. — Adjective Pronouns.

Adjective pronouns and numerals must agree in number with the nouns to which they belong.

*Illus.—"Every man should take heed to his doings" Every being singular, the noun man, to which it belongs, is singular. We cannot say, every men. "I am one of that sort"—not those sort. "John has not visited Windsor these three years"—not, this three year.

RULE XIV. — Verbs.

A verb must agree with its nominative case, in number and person.

*Illus.—"Man's chief good is an upright mind." Good, being of the third person singular, the verb is must be also, to agree with it.

RULE XV. — Verbs and Pronouns.

Two or more nouns or pronouns, in the singular number, connected together by the conjunction and, require verbs and pronouns to agree with them in the plural number.

*Illus.—"Day and night yield us contrary blessings; yet, at the same time, they assist each other, by giving fresh lustre to the delights of both." Here, yield, they, and assist, are in the plural, to agree with day and night.

RULE XVI. — Verbs and Pronouns.

Two or more nouns or pronouns, in the singular number, connected together by the conjunction or, or nor, require verbs and pronouns to agree with them in the singular number.

*Illus.—"A lampoon or satire does not carry in it robbery or murder." Does carry, and it, must be in the singular number, to agree with lampoon or satire separately.

RULE XVII. — Verbs and Pronouns.

A noun of multitude, when it conveys the idea of plurality, requires verbs and pronouns to agree with it in the plural number; but when it conveys the idea of unity or wholeness, in the singular number.

*See observations under this rule, in chap. II. §70. of Syntax.
Illus.—"The multitude eagerly pursues pleasure as their chief good." Here, multitude conveys the idea of plurality, or of individuals, and therefore, pursues and their are required to be in the plural number. "This people is become a great nation." People, here, not conveying the idea of plurality, but of unity, this and is become are in the singular number.

Rule XVIII.—Infinitives.

The infinitive mode may follow a verb, participle, adjective, noun, pronoun or adverb, on which it depends.

Illus.—"A good man loves to cherish the social affections." Here, to cherish depends on the verb loves. "We should have a desire to improve." Here, to improve depends on the noun desire. "It is delightful to contemplate the goodness of Providence." To contemplate, in this sentence, depends on the adjective delightful.

Note. The infinitive mode sometimes depends on a clause or whole sentence; as, "Charles removed into the country, to improve his health." Here, to improve depends on the whole sentence which precedes.

Rule XIX.—Infinitives.

The infinitive mode, a part of a sentence, or whole sentence, may perform the office of the subject to the verb; in which case the verb is always of the third person and singular number.

Illus.—"To love and practice virtue, is a duty alike enjoined by reason and scripture." To love and practice virtue, is here the subject of is.

Rule XX.—Infinitives.

The transitive verbs bid, dare, let, feel, see, make, and a few others, are followed by the infinitive mode, without the sign to.

Illus.—"Let thy kingdom come;" that is, to come. "I saw him do it;" that is, to do it.

Rule XXI.—Participles.

Participles belong to nouns, or pronouns.

Illus.—"Time once past can never be recalled." "You will return, mortified at your loss." In these sentences, past belongs to time, and mortified to you.

Rule XXII.—Adverbs.

Adverbs belong to verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, whose meaning they modify or affect.

Illus.—"Man's earthly enjoyments soon pass away." Here, soon
RULES—PARSING.

and away qualify pass. "The bird flew very swiftly." In this sentence, very qualifies swiftly, and swiftly, the verb flew.

RULE XXIII.—Prepositions.

Prepositions are followed by the objective case.

*Illus.*—"We should learn by the faults of others to correct our own.' "Friendship, among the vicious, is coeval only with mutual satisfaction."

RULE XXIV.—Conjunctions.

Conjunctions connect words and sentences, and sometimes sections or chapters.

*Illus.*—"Snow or ice, when it melts, absorbs heat and produces cold." Here, or connects ice and snow; and, produces and absorbs. "Abstain from injuring others, if you wish to be in safety." If here connects the sentences of which abstain and wish are the principal verbs.

*Note 1.* Conjunctions frequently connect verbs of the same mode and tense, and nouns and pronouns of the same case; as, "The President will leave to-day, but will return to-morrow." "Sincerity and generosity are commendable virtues."

*Note 2.* Relative pronouns and certain adverbs often connect sentences; as, "There are millions of people in China, who derive their support entirely from rice." "The messenger had not arrived when I set out."

RULE XXV.—Interjections.

Interjections have no dependent construction.

*Note.* The interjections O, oh, and ah, require the objective case of pronouns and nouns of the first person, and the nominative case of pronouns and nouns of the second person, after them; as, "Ah me! O thou! Oh you!"

PARSING.

§60. Parsing is the resolving of a sentence into its distinct elements, and showing the relations which these elements, or the parts of speech, have among themselves, and their agreement with, or government over, one another, according to the rules of Syntax.

All syntactical parsing depends on the sense of the sentence, or the construction of the words in it. These particulars, therefore, must ever be carefully noted. A word can be rightly construed only as it harmonizes with one or the other.

In parsing, it is required of the student to name the parts of speech, and their classes—to mention their modifications
in order, to tell their relation, agreement, or government—and to apply the appropriate Rules of Syntax.

Syntactical parsing, therefore, includes Etymological.

It is further required, of beginners especially, to tell why a word has such or such an agreement, relation, or government, and also, why it is of any given number, person, gender, case, mode, tense, comparison, or voice.

Example Parsed.

"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 purposes which can be conceived."

The—is an adjective (or definite) and belongs to the noun power; according to Rule XI. which says, "Adjectives and adjective pronouns belong to nouns or pronouns, which they qualify, describe, or point out.

Power—is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, nominative case (decline it), and the subject of the verb is; according to Rule I. which says, &c. [Repeat the Rule in every instance.]

Of—is a preposition, and shows the relation between power and speech; according to Rule XXIII. which says, &c.

Speech—is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, objective case, (decline it) and the object of the preposition of, which it follows; according to Rule VI. which says, &c.

Is—is an irregular inactive verb, (name its principal parts.) of the indicative mode, present tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject, power; according to Rule XIV. which says, &c.

A—is an adjective, (or definite) used only before nouns in the singular number, and belongs to the noun faculty; according to Rule XI. which says, &c., and Rule XIII. which says, &c.

Faculty—is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, and put by apposition with power in the nominative case; according to Rule VIII. which says, &c.

Peculiar—is an adjective (compare it) and belongs to the noun faculty; according to Rule XI. which says, &c.

To—is a preposition, and shows the relation between the adjective peculiar and the noun man; according to Rule XXIII. which says, &c.

Man—is a common noun, of the masculine gender, third person, singular number, objective case (decline it,) and the object of the preposition to, which it follows; according to Rule VI. which says, &c.

And—is a copulative conjunction, and connects the sentences of which is and was bestowed are the principal verbs; according to Rule XXIV. which says, &c.

Was bestowed—is a regular passive verb, of the indicative mode, past tense, third person, singular number, and connected by the conjunction and to the verb is, and agrees with its subject nominative, power; according to Rule XIV. which says, &c.

On—is a preposition, and shows the relation between was bestowed and the pronoun him; according to Rule XXIII. which says, &c.

Him—is a personal pronoun, of the masculine gender, third person, singular number, and objective case, (decline it) the object of the preposition on; according to Rule VI. which says, &c.
By—is a preposition, and shows the relation between *was bestowed* and *Creator*; according to Rule XXIII. which says, &c.

His—is a personal pronoun, having *was* for its antecedent, of the masculine gender, singular number, third person, and possessive case (*decline it*); according to Rule IV. which says, &c., and Rule X. which says, &c.

Beneficent—is an adjective (*compare it*) of the positive degree, and belongs to the noun *Creator*; according to Rule XI. which says, &c.

Creator—is a proper noun, of the masculine gender, third person, singular number, objective case (*decline it*), the object of the preposition *by*; according to Rule VI. which says, &c.

For—is a preposition, and shows the relation between *was bestowed* and *uses*; according to Rule XXIII. which says, &c.

The—is an adjective, and belongs to *uses*; according to Rule XI. which says, &c.

Greatest—is an adjective (*compare it*), of the superlative degree, and belongs to *uses*; according to Rule XI. which says, &c.

And—is a copulative conjunction, and connects the adjectives *greatest* and *excellent*; according to Rule XXIV. which says, &c.

Most—is an adjective, used as an adverb, and belongs to *excellent*; according to Rule XII. which says, &c.

Excellent—is an adjective (*compare it*), of the superlative degree, and belongs to *uses*; according to Rule XI. which says, &c.

Uses—is a common noun, of the third person, plural number and objective case, (*decline it*) the object of the preposition *for*; according to Rule VI. which says, &c.

But—is a disjunctive conjunction, and connects the sentences of which *do pervert* and *was bestowed* are the verbs; according to Rule XXIV. which says, &c.

Alas—is an interjection, having an independent construction; according to Rule XXV. which says, &c.

How—is an adverb, and belongs to the adverb *often*; according to Rule XXII. which says, &c.

Often—is an adverb (*compare it*), of the positive degree, and belongs to the verb *do pervert*; according to Rule XXII. which says, &c.

We—is a personal pronoun, of the first person, plural number, nominative case, (*decline it*) and the subject of the verb, *do pervert*; according to Rule V. which says, &c.

Do pervert—is a regular active transitive verb, of the indicative mode, present tense, first person, plural number, and agrees with its subject, *we*; according to Rule XIV. which says, &c.

It—is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, and objective case, (*decline it*) the object of *do pervert*; according to Rule V. which says, &c.

To—is a preposition, and shows the relation between *purposes* and *do pervert*; according to Rule XXIII. which says, &c.

The—is an adjective, and belongs to the noun, *purposes*; according to Rule XI. which says, &c.

Worst—is an adjective—*bad* or *ill, worse, worst*—of the superlative degree, and belongs to *purposes*; according to Rule XI. which says, &c.

Purposes—is a common noun, of the third person, plural number, and objective case, (*decline it*) the object of the preposition, *to*; according to Rule V. which says, &c.
Which—is a relative pronoun, having purposes for its antecedent, of the third person, plural number, nominative case, and the subject of the verb, can be conceived; according to Rule X. which says, &c. and Rule I. which says, &c.

Can be conceived—is a regular passive verb, of the potential mode, present tense, third person, plural number, and agrees with its subject nominative, which; according to Rule XIV. which says, &c.

Examples for Parsing.

[The following examples are designed to illustrate and exemplify the Rules of Syntax. The words are to be passed according to the preceding model. Those in italics are appropriate to the particular rules under which they occur, and are to be construed by them.]

Rule I. Every man, who puts on the appearance of goodness, is not good.
It is proper to be slow in deliberating, but we should be swift to execute.
Sloth, ease, and success, naturally tend to beget vices and follies. Perpetual light-mindedness will terminate in ignorance.

Rule II. O death! where is thy sting? O grave! where is thy victory?
Continue, my dear children, to make virtue your chief study.
Canst thou expect, thou betrayer of innocence, to escape vengeance?
Bear me, Pomona, to thy citron groves.

Rule III. The senate consented to the creation of tribunes of the people, Appius alone protesting against the measure. Life being uncertain, we should be prepared at all times to meet death.
The mail having arrived, I immediately set out.

Note. A simple scene! yet hence Britannia sees her solid grandeur rise.

Rule IV. A dutiful son will hear his father's instructions. Moses' rod was turned into a serpent.
Nevertheless, for Herodias' sake, his brother Philip's wife, he commanded it to be given her.

Rule V. Charity, like the sun, brightens all its objects. Conscious guilt renders us mean-spirited, timorous and base. One day is sufficient to scatter our prosperity, and bring it to nought. Poverty induces dependence, and dependence increases corruption. Galileo invented the telescope; Hervey discovered the circulation of the blood.

Rule VI. The indulgence of harsh dispositions, is the introduction to future misery.
For the kingdom of God is not in word, but in power. Ah! who can tell the triumphs of the mind, By truth illumined, and by taste refined?

Rule VII. And they called his name John. I also will ask you one question. Peter saw the culprit, and judged him a villain.

Note. He was called victor, and was offered a crown.

Rule VIII. Hope, the balm of life, soothes us under every misfortune.
Confucius, the great Chinese philosopher, was eminently good as well as wise. The patriarch Joseph is an illustrious example of resignation and filial affection. Claudius Nero, Caligula's uncle, a senseless fellow, obtained the kingdom.

Who do men say that I am?—Webster is a statesman.

RULE IX. He traveled east three days and two nights. A rail-road car will run thirty miles an hour. It rained all day, Wensday of last week.

Note. The Atlantic ocean is three thousand miles wide. The sea is supposed to be five miles deep.

The adjective worth precedes the pronoun.] The book is worth a dollar. To reign is worth ambition, though in hell.

RULE X. Every society has a right to prescribe for itself the terms on which its members shall be admitted. I am happy in the friend whom I have long proved. The Egyptian crown I to your hands remit; And with it take his heart who offers it.

RULE XI. True friendship will, at all times, avoid a careless or rough behavior. Time brings a gentle and powerful opiate to all misfortunes. The vicious man is often looking round him with anxious and fearful circumspection.

Note. To practice generosity will be productive of happiness. To see the sun setting in calmness and beauty, is pleasant.

RULE XII. The clouds look watery. Soft sighed the flute. The mighty Orellana, impetuous hurled from all the waving Andes, huge descends. The cakes eat short and crisp. Heaven opened wide her ever during gates.

RULE XIII. Every man has some influence. Some persons cannot acquire wealth or honor. This man neglects his affairs. Those vicious persons will one day reap the reward of all their doings.

RULE XIV. The man of virtue and honor will be trusted, relied on and esteemed. The man of order catches and arrests the hours as they fly. Thou art innocent, I alone am in fault. Benefits should be long and gratefully remembered.

RULE XV. Self-conceit, presumption and obstinacy, blast the prospect of many a youth. Socrates and Plato were celebrated for their wisdom. Sincerity and truth form the basis of every virtue. Honor thy father and thy mother, that a blessing may come on you and them.

RULE XVI. Has not sloth, or pride, or ill temper, misled you from the path of duty?
Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which moves merely as it is moved.
Despite no infirmity of mind or body, or condition in life, for it may be your own lot.

Rule XVII. The American people show that they are not insensible to praise or censure.
The public are often deceived by false appearances and great pretensions.
In the days of youth, the multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as their chief good.
The Church has no power to inflict corporeal punishment.

Rule XVIII. We should seek to obtain knowledge.
It is pleasant to view the twinkling stars.
A knowledge of the rules of Grammar teaches how to speak and write correctly.

Note. I rode out daily for six months, to improve my health.

Rule XIX. To excel, requires much exertion.
To be able to write a fair hand, needs much practice.
The doing of good to our enemies, is a law of the Christian religion.

Rule XX. None but the virtuous dare hope in adversity.
Let us make haste to do good.
I saw Mary enter the garden, and soon after return with a bunch of flowers.
Bid me come unto thee on the water.

Rule XXI. True gentleness is a native feeling, heightened and improved by principle.
The path of piety, pursued with a firm spirit, will lead to happiness.
Having sold my patrimony, I engaged in merchandise.
We ought to be generous, loving to give more than to receive.

Rule XXII. When a friend is calumniated, openly and boldly espouse his cause.
The disciples were affectionately attached to their Lord and Master.
A truly good man has no fear of death.
Charles very wisely determined to leave off his bad habits.

Rule XXIII. The government of this world is not left to chance.
Many are weighed in the balance, and found wanting.
Labor and expense are lost upon a drowsy spirit.
The fin of a fish is the limb by which he balances his body, and moves through the water.

Rule XXIV. Patience and diligence will overcome the greatest obstacles.
I shall be happy to accompany you, if I can find the means of conveyance.
The ancient Russians believed that their northern mountains encompassed the globe.

Note 2. There are many faults in spelling, which neither analogy nor pronunciation justifies.
RULE XXV.  *Alas! alas! I have destroyed my friend, and fear for life.
*Lo! what a glorious prospect charms the eye!

NOTE.  *Ah me! strange events have come upon me.
*O tru'tor to thy country! escape for thy life, lest sudden vengeance overtake thee.

NOTE. The Rules of Syntax, embraced in this Chapter, will be found adequate for the resolution of all ordinary sentences; and, in connection with the illustrations, examples, praxis, and the parsing exercises, will give the student much general and practical knowledge of the Syntax of Grammar. But something more is necessary. All general rules admit of exceptions, and most of them of various and extensive application. They need to be illustrated, likewise, by examples of false Syntax, that the student may be able more fully to understand and appreciate them. Besides, there are many remarks to be made on the construction of particular sentences, and the arrangement of words in them, as well as in sentences in general, which cannot well be embraced in rules. These things make another chapter necessary, and the following, (Chapter II.) it is hoped, will be found to contain all that is desirable or needed in respect to these particulars. To answer fully the purposes we have in view, some rules, not stated in this chapter, have been introduced. The order of arrangement, as it could not be well preserved in all cases, has been in some respects changed. No student, who desires a thorough and accurate acquaintance with Syntax, should omit a close examination and careful study of the following chapter. Before, however, proceeding to this chapter, it will be proper to give the pupil some idea of transposition and the reading of simple sentences.

TRANPOSITION.

§60 ½. The simple rule for transposing sentences, or the words of a sentence, is, to place the nominative first, with its modifying words occupying their proper positions, and after it, the verb, with the words belonging thereto, rightly arranged. This rule, however, admits of exceptions. In prose there is, in general, very little occasion for transposition; in poetry, the natural order of sentences, is not so strictly observed.

*Sentences Transposed.*

"Crowned with the sickle and the wheaten sheaf,
While Autumn, nodding o'er the yellow plain,
Comes jovial on; the Doric reed once more,
Well pleased, I tune."

This sentence transposed, will read as follows:

"I, well pleased, tune once more the Doric reed; while Autumn, crowned with the sickle and the wheaten sheaf, (and) nodding o'er the yellow plain, comes jovial on."
"Better for us, perhaps, it might appear,
Were there all harmony, all virtue here."

This transposed reads,
"It might, perhaps, appear better for us, (if) there were here all harm-
mony (and) all virtue."

"Thus up the mount, in airy vision wrapt,
I stray, regardless whither, till the sound
Of a near fall of water, every sense
Wakes from the charm of thought: swift shrinking back,
I check my steps and view the broken scene."

Transposed reads,
"I, wrapt in airy vision, regardless whither, thus stray up the mount,
till the sound of a near fall of water wakes every sense from the charm
of thought: I, swift shrinking back, check my steps, and view the broken
scene."

READING OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

Nearly connected with transposition, there is another
exercise of much importance; to wit, the reading of simple
sentences, or the resolution of compound sentences into their
separate members or propositions. The following exam-
ple will be sufficient to illustrate what is here meant:

"My mother! when I learned that thou wast dead,
Say, wast thou conscious of the tears I shed?
Hovered thy spirit o'er thy sorrowing son,
Wretch even then, life's journey just begun?
Perhaps thou gavest me, though unfelt, a kiss,
Perhaps a tear, if souls can weep in bliss.—
I heard the bell tolled on thy burial day,
I saw the hearse that bore thee slow away,
And, turning from my nursery window, drew
A long, long sigh, and wept a last adieu."

These lines, resolved into their distinct propositions, will read as
follows, the dashes marking each separate simple sentence:—

"My mother! say—when I learned that—thou wast dead—wast thou
conscious of the tears—I shed?—Hovered thy spirit o'er thy sorrowing
son, wretch, even then, life's journey just begun?—Perhaps thou gavest
me, though unfelt, a kiss, perhaps a tear,—if souls can weep in bliss.—
I heard the bell tolled on thy burial day,—I saw the hearse—that bore
thee slow away—and, turning from my nursery window, drew a long,
long sigh—and wept a last adieu."

Both of the exercises, which we have above considered, are great
helps in parsing, and students should be practiced on them till they
can perform each with facility. Any well written book may be used
for this purpose. The guidance of a teacher may be necessary for a
time, but the attentive learner will soon acquire sufficient skill to
proceed without his assistance.
CHAPTER II.

RULES OF SYNTAX,

With Illustrations, Exceptions, False Syntax, Notes, and Critical Remarks.

AGREEMENT OF VERBS.

§61. A verb must agree with its nominative case, in number and person.

The following are a few instances of the violation of this rule:
"What signifies good opinions, when our practice is bad?" "what signifies." "There's two or three of us, who have seen the work;" "there are." "We may suppose there was more impostors than one;" "there were more." "I have considered what have been said on both sides in this controversy;" "what has been said." "If thou would be healthy, live temperately;" "if thou wouldst." "Thou seest how little has been done;" "thou seest." "Though thou cannot do much for the cause, thou may and should do something;" "canst not, mayest, and shouldst." "Full many a flower are born to blush unseen;" "is born." "A conformity of inclinations and qualities prepare us for friendship;" "prepares us." "A variety of blessings have been conferred upon us;" "has been." "In piety and virtue consist the happiness of man;" "consists." "To these precepts are subjoined a copious selection of maxims;" "is subjoined."

Explanatory Note. The [Brackets] which appear below, and which will be found throughout this chapter, contain examples of false syntax. These examples are to be corrected in accordance with the general rule, or remark under which they occur. It may not be improper to observe in this place, for the benefit of inexperienced teachers, that the pupil is first to make himself acquainted, so far as he is able, with the text, and afterwards to be questioned thereon by the teacher, who will likewise read to him the examples of false syntax for his verbal correction.

[Disappointments sinks the heart of man; but the renewal of hope give consolation.—The smiles that encourage severity of judgement hides malice and insincerity.—He dare not act contrary to his instructions.—Fifty pounds of wheat contains forty pounds of flower.—The mechanism of clocks and watches were totally unknown a few centuries ago.—The number of inhabitants in Great Britain and Ireland do not exceed sixteen millions.—A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye.—So much both of ability and merit are seldom found.—In the conduct of Parmenio a mixture of wisdom and folly were very conspicuous.—He is an au-
tor of more credit than Plutarch, or any other that write
lives too hastily.—The inquisitive and curious is generally
talkative.—The sincere is always esteemed.—Has the
goods been sold to advantage? and did thou embrace the
proper season? There is many occasions in life, in which
silence and simplicity is true wisdom.—In him were hap-
pily blended true dignity with softness of manners.—The
support of so many of his relations were a heavy tax upon
his industry; but thou knows he paid it cheerfully.—What
avails the best sentiments, if persons do not live suitably to
them?—Not one of them whom thou seest clothed in purple,
are completely happy.—And the fame of this person, and
of his wonderful actions, were diffused throughout the
country.—The variety of the productions of genius, like
that of the operations of nature, are without limit.]

1. Every verb, except the infinitive mode, or the participle, must
have a nominative case, either expressed or implied; as, “Awake;
arise;” that is, “Awake you; arise thou.

We shall here add some examples of inaccuracy, in the use of the
verb without its nominative case. “As it hath pleased him of his
goodness to give you safe deliverance, and hath preserved you in the
great danger,” &c. The verb hath preserved has here no nominative
case, for it cannot be properly supplied by the preceding word, him,
which is in the objective case. It ought to be, “and as he hath pre-
served you;” or rather, “and to preserve you.” “If the calm in which
he was born, and lasted so long, had continued;” “and which lasted,”
&c. “These we have extracted from a historian of undoubted credit,
and are the same that were practised,” &c.; “and they are the same.”
“A man whose inclinations led him to be corrupt, and had great abili-
ties to manage the business;” “and who had,” &c. “A cloud gath-
ering in the north; which we have helped to raise, and may quickly
break in a storm upon our heads;” “and which may quickly.”

[If the privileges to which he has an undoubted right,
and he has long enjoyed, should now be wrested from him,
would be flagrant injustice.—These curiosities we have
imported from China, and are similar to those which were
some time ago brought from Africa.]

2. Every nominative case, except the case absolute, and when an
address is made to a person, should belong to some verb, either ex-
pressed or implied; as, “Who wrote this book?” “James;” that is,
“James wrote it.” “To whom thus Adam,” that is, “spoke.”

One or two instances of the improper use of the nominative case,
without any verb, expressed or implied, to answer it, may be sufficient
to illustrate the usefulness of the preceding observations.

“Which rule, if it had been observed, a neighboring prince would
have wanted a great deal of that incense which hath been offered up
to him.” The pronoun it is here the nominative case to the verb ob-
served; and which rule is left by itself, a nominative case without any verb following it. This form of expression, though improper, is very common. It ought to be, "If this rule had been observed," &c. "Man, though he has 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." In this sentence, the nominative man stands alone, and unconnected with any verb, either expressed or implied. It should be, "Though man has great variety," &c.

[Two substantives, when they come together, and do not signify the same thing, the former must be in the possessive case.—Virtue, however it may be neglected for a time, men are so constituted as ultimately to acknowledge and respect genuine merit.]

3. When a verb comes between two nouns, either of which may be understood as the subject of the affirmation, it may agree with either of them; but some regard must be had to that which is more naturally the subject of it, as also to that which stands next to the verb; as, "His meat was locusts and wild honey;" "The restraints put upon it were a great cause of the low state of industry;" "The wages of sin is death."

[The crown of virtue are peace and honor.—His chief occupation and enjoyment were controversy.]

4. As, in the use of the case absolute, the case is always the nominative, the following example is erroneous, in making it the objective: "Solomon was of this mind; and I have no doubt he made as wise and true proverbs, as any body has done since; him only excepted, who was a much greater and wiser man than Solomon." It should be, "he only excepted."

[Him coming up with his men, the victory was soon won.—Her excepted, the whole family returned in good health.]

5. Some grammarians have contended, that, "When the nominative consists of several words, and the last of the nouns is in the plural number, the verb is commonly plural; as, "A part of the exports consist of raw silk;" "A number of men were present:" But this rule counteracts the plainest principles of grammar, and would justify constructions evidently absurd and unfounded, as seen below.

[The truth of the narratives have never been disputed.—The virtue of these men are exemplary.—A deviation from good principles, soon produce a deviation from good conduct.—The train of our ideas are often interrupted.]

6. The nominative case is commonly placed before the verb; but sometimes it is put after the verb, if it is a simple tense; and between the auxiliary and the verb or participle, if a compound tense; as,

1st. When a question is asked, a command given, or a wish expressed; as, "Confidest thou in me?" "Read thou!" "Mayst thou be happy!" "Long live the king!"
2d. When a supposition is made without the conjunction if; as, "Were it not for this;" "Had I been there."

3d. When a verb, inactive or intransitive, is used; as, "On a sudden appeared the king."

4th. When the verb is preceded by the adverbs here, there, there, thence, hence, thus, &c.; as, "Here am I;" "There was he slain;" "Then cometh the end;" "Thence arose his grief;" "Hence proceeds his anger;" "Thus was the affair settled."

5th. When a sentence depends on neither or nor, so as to be coupled with another sentence; as, "You shall not eat of it, neither shall you touch it, lest you die."

**Nouns in the Singular, Connected by And.**

§62. Two or more nouns or pronouns in the singular number, connected together by the conjunction and, require verbs and pronouns to agree with them in the plural number.

This rule is often violated; some instances of which are annexed. "And so was also James and John, the sons of Zebedee, who were partners with Simon;" "and so were also." "All joy, tranquility and peace, even for ever and ever, doth dwell;" "dwell for ever." "By whose power all good and evil is distributed;" "are distributed." "Their love, and their hatred, and their envy, is now perished;" "are perished." "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;" it ought to be, "obliterate" and "efface."

[Idleness and ignorance is the parent of many vices.—Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.—In unity consists the welfare and security of every society.—Time and tide waits for no man.—His politeness and good disposition was, on failure of their effect, entirely changed.—Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains.—Humility and knowledge, with poor apparel, excels pride and ignorance, under costly attire.]

1. When the nouns are nearly related, or scarcely distinguishable in sense, and sometimes even when they are very different, some authors have thought it allowable to put the verbs, nouns and pronouns in the singular number; as, "Tranquility and peace dwells there;" "Ignorance and negligence has produced the effect;" "The discomfort and slaughter was very great." But it is evidently contrary to the first principles of grammar, to consider two distinct ideas as one, however nice may be their shades of difference; and if there be no difference, one of them must be superfluous, and ought to be rejected.

2. In many complex sentences, it is difficult for learners to determine, whether one or more of the clauses are to be considered as the nominative case; and, consequently, whether the verb should be in
Nouns in the Singular.

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the singular or the plural number. We shall, therefore, set down a number of varied examples of this nature, which may serve as some
government to the scholar with respect to sentences of a similar con-
struction. "Prosperity, with humility, renders its possessor truly
amiable." "The ship, with all her furniture, was destroyed." "Not
only his estate, his reputation, too, has suffered by his misconduct.
" "The general, also, in conjunction with the officers, has applied for
redress." "He cannot be justified; for it is true that the prince, as
well as the people, was blameworthy." "The king, with his life-
guard, has just passed through the village." "In the mutual influence
of body and soul, there is a wisdom, a wonderful wisdom, which
we cannot fathom." "Virtue, honor, nay, even self-interest, conspires
to recommend the measure." "Patriotism, morality, every public
and private consideration, demand our submission to just and lawful
government." "Nothing delights me so much as the works of na-
ture."

[A long course of time, with a variety of accidents and
circumstances, are requisite to produce those revolutions.—
The king, with the lords and commons, form an excellent
frame of government.—The side A, with the sides B and
C, compose the triangle.—The fire communicated itself to
the bed, which, with the furniture and chairs, were all con-
sumed.—One, added to nineteen, make twenty.]

3. If the singular nouns and pronouns, which are joined together
by a copulative conjunction, be of several persons, in making the plu-
ral pronouns agree with them in person, the second person is used for
the third, and the first for both; as, "James, and thou, and I, are at-
tached to our country;" "Thou and he shared it between you."

[Thou, and the gardener, and the huntsman, must share
the blame of this business amongst them.—My sister and I,
as well as my brother, are daily employed in their respective
occupations.]

Nouns in the Singular, Connected by or, or nor.

§63. Two or more nouns or pronouns, in
the singular number, connected together by
the conjunction or, or nor, require verbs and
pronouns to agree with them in the singular
number.

The following sentences are variations from this rule: "A man
may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them
in a description;" "read it." "Neither character nor dialogue were
yet understood;" "was yet." "It must indeed be confessed, that a
lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder;" "does
not carry in it." "Death, or some worse misfortune, soon divide
them;" it ought to be, "divides."
Man's happiness or misery are in a great measure, put into his own hands.—Man is not such a machine as a clock, or a watch, which move merely as they are moved.—Despise no infirmity of mind or body, nor any condition of life; for they are, perhaps, to be your own lot.—Speaking impatiently to servants, or anything that betrays inattention or ill-humor, are certainly criminal.—There are many faults in spelling, which neither analogy nor pronunciation justify.

1. When singular pronouns, or a noun and pronoun of different persons, are connected by or, or nor, the verb must agree with that person which is placed nearest to it; as, "I or thou art to blame;" "Thou or I am in fault;" "I, thou, or he, is the author of it;" "George or I am the person." But it would be better to say, "Either I am to blame, or thou art;" &c.

[Either thou or I art greatly mistaken, in our judgement on this subject.—I or thou am the person who must undertake the business proposed.]

2. When a disjunctive occurs between a singular noun, or pronoun, and a plural one, the verb is made to agree with the plural noun and pronoun; as, "Neither poverty nor riches were injurious to him;" "I or they were offended by it." But in this case, the plural noun or pronoun, when it can conveniently be done, should be placed next to the verb.

[Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, was present at the transaction.—Whether one person or more, was concerned in the business, does not appear.—The cares of this life, or the deceitfulness of riches, has choked the seeds of virtue in many a promising mind.]

Nouns of Multitude.

§64. A noun of multitude, when it conveys the idea of plurality, requires verbs and pronouns to agree with it in the plural number; but when it conveys the idea of unity or wholeness, in the singular number.

We ought to consider whether the term will immediately suggest the idea of the number it represents, or whether it exhibits to the mind the idea of the whole as one thing. In the former case, the verb ought to be plural; in the latter, it ought to be singular. Thus, it seems improper to say, "The peasantry goes barefoot, and the middle sort makes use of wooden shoes." It would be better to say, "The peasantry go barefoot, and the middle sort make use," &c., because the idea in both these cases, is that of a number. On the contrary, there is a harshness in the following sentences, in which nouns of number have verbs plural, because the ideas they represent seem not to be
sufficiently divided in the mind: "The court of Rome were not without solicitude," "The house of commons were of small weight," "The house of lords were so much influenced by these reasons," "Stephen's party were entirely broken up by the captivity of their leader." "An army of twenty-four thousand were assembled." "What reason have the church of Rome for proceeding in this manner?" "There is indeed no constitution so tame and careless of their own defence." "All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few fingers, but his follies and vices are innumerable." Is not mankind, in this place, a noun of multitude, and such as requires the pronoun referring to it to be in the plural number, their?

[The people rejoices in that which should give it sorrow.—The flock, and not the fleece, are, or ought to be, the objects of the shepherd's care.—This people draweth near to me with their mouth, and honoreth me with their lips, but their heart is far from me.—The corporation of York consist of a mayor, aldermen, and a common council.—The British parliament are composed of king, lords and commons.—When the nation complain, the rulers should listen to their voice.—In the days of youth, the multitude eagerly pursues pleasure as its chief good.—The fleet were seen sailing up the channel.—The regiment consist of a thousand men.—The meeting have established several salutary regulations.—The council was not unanimous, and it separated without coming to any determination.]

AGREEMENT OF PRONOUNS.

§65. Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number and person.

Of this rule there are many violations to be met with; a few of which may be sufficient to put the learner on his guard. "Each of the sexes should keep within its particular bounds; and content themselves with the advantages of their particular districts," better thus, "The sexes should keep within their particular bounds," &c. "Can any one, on their entrance into the world, be fully secure that they shall not be deceived?" "on his entrance," and "that he shall." "One should not think too favorably of ourselves;" "of one's self;" "He had one acquaintance which poisoned his principles;" "who poisoned."

Every relative must have an antecedent to which it refers, either expressed or implied; as, "Who is fatal to others, is so to himself; that is, "the man who is fatal to others."

Who, which, what, and the relative that, though in the objective case, are always placed before the verb; as are also their compounds, whosoever, whosoever, &c.; as, "He whom you seek;" "This is what, or
the thing which, or that you want;" "Whomsoever you please to appoint;"

What is sometimes applied in a manner which appears to be exceptionable; as, "All fevers, except what are called nervous," &c. It would at least be better to say, "except those which are called nervous."

[The mind of man cannot be long without some food to nourish the activity of his thoughts.—Rebecca took goodly raiment which were with her in the house, and put them upon Jacob.—The wheel killed another man, which is the sixth which have lost their lives by this means.—In religious concerns, or what is conceived to be such, every man must stand or fall by the decision of the great Judge.—Something like what have been here premised, are the conjectures of Dryden.]

1. Personal pronouns, being used to supply the place of the noun, are not employed in the same part of the sentence as the noun which they represent; for it would be improper to say, "The king he is just;" "I saw her the queen;" "The men they were there;" "Many words they darken speech;" "My banks they are furnished with bees." These personals are superfluous, as there is not the least occasion for a substitute in the same part where the principal word is present. The nominative case they, in the following sentence, is also superfluous: "Who, instead of going about doing good, they are perpetually intent upon doing mischief."

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

2. Many persons are apt, in conversation, to put the objective case of the personal pronouns, in the place of these and those; as, "give me them books," instead of "those books." We may sometimes find this fault even in writing: as, "Observe them three there." We also frequently meet with those instead of they, at the beginning of a sentence, and where there is no particular reference to an antecedent; as "Those that sow in tears, sometimes reap in joy;" "They that, or they who sow in tears."

It is not, however, always easy to say, whether a personal pronoun or a demonstrative is preferable, in certain constructions. "We are not acquainted with the calumny of them [or those] who openly make use of the warmest professions."

[Which of them two persons has most distinguished himself?—Them oxen sold for fifty dollars apiece.—Wipe them dishes.—See them cows run.]

3. In some dialects, the word what is improperly used for that, and sometimes we find it in this sense in writing: "They will never believe but what I have been entirely to blame." "I am not satisfied but what;" &c., instead of "but that." The word something, in the
AGREEMENT OF PRONOUNS.

following sentence, seems to be used improperly: "These punishments seem to have been exercised in somewhat an arbitrary manner." Sometimes we read, "In somewhat of." The meaning is, "in a manner which is, in some respects, arbitrary."

4. The pronoun relative who is so much appropriated to persons, that there is generally harshness in the application of it, except to the proper names of persons, or the general terms man, woman, &c. A term which only implies the idea of persons, and expresses them by some circumstance or epiteth, will hardly authorize the use of it; as, "The faction in England who most powerfully opposed his arbitrary pretensions." "That faction which," would have been better; and the same remark will serve for the following examples: "France, who was in alliance with Sweden." "The court who;" &c. "The cavalry who," &c. "The cities who aspired at liberty." "That party among us who," &c. "The family whom they consider as usurpers."

[He instructed and fed the crowds who surrounded him.—Sidney was one of the wisest and most active governors whom Ireland had enjoyed for several years.—He was the ablest minister whom James ever possessed.—The court, who gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary.]

5. We hardly consider little children as persons, because that term gives us the idea of reason and reflection; and therefore, the application of the personal relative who, in this case, seems to be harsh: "A child who." It is still more improperly applied to animals: "A lake frequented by that fowl whom nature has taught to dip the wing in water."

[The child whom we have just seen, is wholesomely fed, and not injured by bandages or clothing.—He is like a beast of prey, who destroys without pity.]

6. When the name of a person is used merely as a name, and it does not refer to the person, the pronoun who ought not to be applied. "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." Better thus: "whose name was but another word for prudence," &c. The word whose begins likewise to be restricted to persons; yet it is not done so generally, but that good writers, even in prose, use it when speaking of things. The construction is not, however, generally pleasing, as we may see in the following instances: "Pleasure, whose nature," &c. "Call every production, whose parts and whose nature," &c.

In one case, however, custom authorizes us to use which, with respect to persons; and that is, when we want to distinguish one person of two, or a particular person among a number of others. We should then say, "Which of the two," or "Which of them is he or she?"

[Having once disgusted him, he could never regain the favor of Nero, who was indeed another name for cruelty.—Flattery, whose nature is to deceive and betray, should be avoided as the poisonous adder.—Who of those men came to his assistance?]
7. As the pronoun relative has no distinction of number, we sometimes find an ambiguity in the use of it; as, when we say, "The disciples of Christ, whom we imitate," we may mean the imitation either of Christ, or of his disciples. The accuracy and clearness of the sentence depend very much upon the proper and determinate use of the relative, so that it may readily present its antecedent to the mind of the hearer or reader, without any obscurity or ambiguity.

8. The pronouns whiscsoever, whosoever, and the like, are elegantly divided by the interposition of the corresponding substantives: thus, "On whiscsoever side the king cast his eyes," would have sounded better, if written, "On which side soever," &c.

[Howsoever beautiful they appear, they have no real merit.—In whatsoever light we view him, his conduct will bear inspection.—On whiscsoever side they are contemplated, they appear to advantage.]

9. The pronoun it, by an idiom peculiar to the English language, is frequently joined in explanatory sentences, with a noun or pronoun of the masculine or feminine gender; as, "It was I;" "It was the man or woman that did it."

The pronoun it is sometimes omitted and understood: thus we say, "As appears, as follows," for "As it appears, as it follows;" and "May be," for "It may be."

It is and it was are often used in a plural construction, and by some of our best writers; as, "It is either a few great men who decide for the whole, or it is the rabble that follow a seditious ring-leader;" "It is they that are the real authors, though the soldiers are the actors of the revolution;" "It was the heretics that first began to rail," &c.; "’Tis these that early taint the female mind."

10. The pronoun it is sometimes employed to express,

1st. The subject of any discourse or inquiry; as, "It happened on a summer’s day;" "Who is it calls on me?"

2d. The state or condition of any person or thing; as, "How is it with you?"

3d. The thing, whatever it be, that is the cause of any effect or event; or any person, considered merely as a cause; "We heard her say it was not so;" "The truth is, it was I that helped her."

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§66. The relative is the nominative case to the verb, when no nominative case comes between it and the verb; but when a nominative case comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is nominative case to, or governed by, some word in its own member of the sentence.

A few instances of erroneous construction will illustrate both branches of this rule. The three following refer to the first part: "How
can we avoid being grateful to those whom, by repeated kind offices, have proved themselves our real friends?” “These are the men whom, you might suppose, were the authors of the work.” “If you were here, you would find three or four, whom you would say passed their time agreeably.” In all these places, it should be who, instead of whom. The two latter sentences contain a nominative between the relative and the verb; and, therefore, seem to contravene the rule; but the student will reflect, that it is not the nominative of the verb with which the relative is connected.—The remaining examples refer to the second part of the rule: “Men of fine talents are not always the persons who we should esteem.” “The persons who you dispute with are precisely of your own opinion.” “Our tutors are our benefactors, who we owe obedience to, and who we ought to love.” In these sentences, whom should be used instead of who.

[They who have labored to make us wise and good, are the persons who we ought to love and respect, and who we ought to be grateful to.—The persons, who, conscience and virtue support, may smile at the caprices of fortune.—From the character of those who you associate with, your own will be estimated.—We are dependent on each other’s assistance: whom is there that can subsist by himself?—If he will not hear his best friend, whom shall be sent to admonish him?—They who much is given to, will have much to answer for.—It is not to be expected that they whom in early life have been dark and deceitful, should afterwards become fair and ingenuous.]

1. When both the antecedent and relative become nominatives, each to different verbs, the relative is the nominative to the former, and the antecedent to the latter verb; as, “True philosophy, which is the ornament of our nature, consists more in the love of our duty, and the practice of virtue, than in great talents and extensive knowledge.”

2. When the relative pronoun is of the interrogative kind, the noun or pronoun containing the answer, must be in the same case as that which contains the question: “Whose books are these?” “They are John’s.” “Who gave them to him?” “We.” “Of whom did you buy them?” “Of a bookseller; him who lives at the Bible and Crown.” “Whom did you see there?” “Both him and the shopman.” The learner will readily comprehend this rule, by supplying the words which are understood in the answers. Thus to express the answers at large, we should say, “They are John’s books;” “We gave them to him;” “We bought them of him who lives,” &c.; “We saw both him and the shopman.” As the relative pronoun, when used interrogatively, refers to the subsequent word or phrase containing the answer to the question, that word or phrase may properly be termed the subsequent to the interrogative.

[Of whom were the articles bought? Of a mercer; he who resides near the mansion-house.—Was any person besides the mercer present? Yes both him and his clerk.—Who was the money paid to? To the mercer and his clerk.—Who counted it? Both the clerk and him.]
RELATIVES PRECEDED BY TWO NOMINATIVES.

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

The form of the first of the two preceding sentences expresses the meaning rather obscurely. It would be more perspicuous to say, "I, who command you, am the man." Perhaps the difference of meaning produced by referring the relative to different antecedents, will be more evident to the learner in the following sentences: "I am the general who gives the orders to-day;" "I am the general, who give the orders to-day;" that is, "I, who give the orders to-day, am the general."

When the relative and the verb have been determined to agree with either of the preceding nominatives, that agreement must be preserved throughout the sentence; as in the following instance: "I am the Lord, that maketh all things: that stretcheth forth the heavens alone." Isa. xlii. 24. Thus far is consistent: the Lord, in the third person, is the antecedent, and the verb agrees with the relative in the third person. If I were made the antecedent, the relative and verb should agree with it in the first person; as, "I am the Lord, that make all things; that stretch forth the heavens alone." But should it follow, "that spreadeth abroad the earth by myself;" there would arise a confusion of persons, and a manifest solecism.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS AND NUMERALS.

§68. Adjective pronouns and numerals must agree in number with the nouns to which they belong.

A few instances of the breach of this rule are here exhibited: "I have not traveled this twenty years." "these twenty." "I am not recommending these kind of sufferings." "this kind." "Those set of books was a valuable present." "that set."

[These kind of indulgences soften and injure the mind.—Instead of improving yourselves, you have been playing this two hours.—Those sort of favors did real injury, under the appearance of kindness.—The chasm made by the earthquake was twenty foot broad, and one hundred fathom in depth.—He saw one or more persons enter the garden.]

1. When two persons or things are spoken of in a sentence, and there is occasion to mention them again for the sake of distinction, that is used in reference to the former, and this, in reference to the latter; as, "Self-love, which is the spring of action in the soul, is ruled by reason: but for that, man would be inactive; and but for this, he would be active to no end."
ADJECTIVE AND ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

[Religion raises men above themselves; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes: *that* binds them down to a poor, pitiable speck of perishable earth; *this* opens for them a prospect to the skies.—Rex and Tyrannus are of very different characters. The one rules his people by laws to which they consent; the other, by his absolute will and power; *this* is called freedom; *that* tyranny.]

2. The distributive adjective pronouns *each*, *every*, *either*, agree with the nouns, pronouns and verbs, of the singular number only; as, "The king of Israel and Jehosaphat, the king of Judah, sat *each* on his throne;" "*Every* tree is known by its fruit;" unless the plural noun convey a collective idea; as, "*Every* six months," "*Every* hundred years." The following three phrases are exceptionable; "Let *each* esteem others better than themselves;" it ought to be, "*himself;"" "The language should be both perspicuous and correct: in proportion as *either* of these two qualities are wanting, the language is imperfect;" it should be, "*is* wanting." "*Every* one of the letters bear regular dates, and contain proofs of attachment;" "*bears* a regular date and contains." "*Every* town and village were burned; *every* grove and *every* tree were cut down;" "*was* burned, and *was* cut down."

*Either* is often used improperly, instead of *each*; as, "The king of Israel, and Jehosaphat the king of Judah, sat *either* of them on his throne;" "Nadab and Abihu, the sons of Aaron, took *either* of them his censer." *Each* signifies both of them taken distinctly or separately; *either* properly signifies only the one or the other of them taken disjointively.

[Every person, whatever be *their* station, are bound by the duties of morality and religion.—*Every* leaf, *every* twig, every drop of water, *seem* with life.—*Every* man’s heart and temper is productive of much inward joy or bitterness. Whatever he undertakes, either his pride or his folly disgust us.—*Every* man and *every* woman were numbered.—Neither of those men *seem* to have any idea that *their* opinions may be ill founded.—On either side of the river was there the tree of life.]

ADJECTIVES AND ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS BELONG TO NOUNS.

§69. Adjectives and adjective pronouns belong to nouns or pronouns, which they qualify, describe or point out.

1. The adjective is usually placed before its substantive; as, "*A generous* man;" "*How amiable* a woman!" The instances in which it comes after the substantive, are the following:

1st. When something depends upon the adjective; and when it gives a better sound, especially in poetry; as, "*A man generous* to his
enemies;" "Feed me with food convenient for me;" "A tree three feet thick;" "A body of troops fifty thousand strong;" "The torrent tumbling through rocks abrupt;" 2d. When the adjective is emphatic; as, "Alexander the Great;" "Lewis the Bold;" "Goodness infinite;" "Wisdom unsearchable;" 3d. When several adjectives belong to one substantive; as, "A man just, wise, and charitable;" "A woman modest, sensible, and virtuous;" 4th. When the adjective is preceded by an adverb; as, "A boy regularly studious;" "A girl unaffectedly modest;" 5th. When the verb to be, in any of its variations, comes between a substantive and an adjective, the adjective may frequently either precede or follow it; as, "The man is happy," or, "Happy is the man, who makes virtue his choice;" "The interview was delightful," or, "Delightful was the interview;" 6th. When the adjective expresses some circumstance of a substantive placed after an active verb; as, "Vanity often renders its possessor despicable;" In an exclamatory sentence, the adjective generally precedes the substantive; as, "How despicable does vanity often render its possessor;" There is sometimes great beauty, as well as force, in placing the adjective before the verb, and the substantive immediately after it; as, "Great is the Lord! just and true are thy ways, thou King of saints!" Sometimes the word all is emphatically put after a number of particulars comprehended under it. "Ambition, interest, honor, all concurred." Sometimes a substantive, which likewise comprehends the preceding particulars, is used in conjunction with the adjective; as, "Royalists, republicans, churchmen, secretaries, courtiers, all parties, concurred in the illusion;" A substantive, with its adjective, is reckoned as one compound word; whence they often take another adjective, and sometimes a third, and so on; as, "An old man; a good old man; a very learned, judicious, good old man;" Though the adjective always relates to a substantive, it is, in many instances, put as if it were absolute; especially where the noun has been mentioned before, or easily understood, though not expressed. 2. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided: such as "a worser conduct;" "on lesser hopes;" "a more serener temper;" "the most straitest sect;" "a more superior work." They should be, "worse conduct;" "less hopes;" "a more serene temper;" "the straitest sect;" "a superior work;" "Tis more easier to build two chimneyes than to maintain one.—The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries.—The Most Highest hath created us for his glory, and our happiness.—The pleasures of the understanding are more preferable than those of the imagination, or of sense.—The nightingale sings: hers is the most sweetest voice in the grove.—The Supreme Being is the most powerfulllest, and the best of beings.]

3. Adjectives that have in themselves a superlative signification, do not properly admit of the superlative or comparative form superadded;
ADJECTIVE AND ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

such as chief, extreme, perfect, right, universal, supreme, &c.; which are sometimes improperly written chiefeft, extremest, perfectest, rightest, most universal, most supreme, &c. The following expressions are, therefore, improper: "He sometimes claims admission to the chiefeft offices." "The quarrel became so universal and national." "A method of attaining the rightest and greatest happiness." The phrases "so perfect," "so right," "so extreme," &c., are incorrect; because they imply that one thing is less perfect, less extreme, &c., than another, which is not possible.

[Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man; and should be his chiefeft desire.—His assertion was more true than that of his opponent; nay, the words of the latter were most untrue.—His work is perfect; his brother's more perfect; and his father's, the most perfect of all.]

4. Inaccuracies are often found in the way in which the degrees of comparison are applied and construed. The following are examples of wrong construction in this respect: "This noble nation hath, of all others, admitted fewer corruptions." The word fewer is here construed precisely as if it were the superlative. It should be, "This noble nation hath admitted fewer corruptions than any other." We commonly say, "This is the weaker of the two," or, "the weakest of the two," but the former is the regular mode of expression, because there are only two things compared. "The vice of covetousness is what enters deepest into the soul of any other." "He celebrates the church of England as the most perfect of all others." Both these modes of expression are faulty: we should not say, "the best of any man," or "the best of any other man," for "the best of men." The sentences may be corrected by substituting the comparative in the room of the superlative: "The vice, &c., is what enters deeper into the soul than any other." "He celebrates, &c., as more perfect than any other." It is also possible to retain the superlative, and render the expression grammatical: "Covetousness, of all vices, enters the deepest into the soul." "He celebrates, &c, as the most perfect of all churches." These sentences contain other errors, against which it is proper to caution the learner. The words deeper and deepest, being intended for adverbs, should have been more deeply, most deeply. The phrases more perfect and most perfect are improper; because perfection admits of no degrees of comparison. We may say, nearer or nearest to perfection, or more or less imperfect.

5. In some cases, adjectives should not be separated from their substantives, even by words which modify their meaning, and make but one sense with them; as, "A large enough number, surely." It should be, "A number large enough." "The lower sort of people are good enough judges of one not very distant from them."

[He spoke in a distinct enough manner to be heard by the whole assembly.—Thomas is equipped with a new pair of shoes, and a new pair of gloves: he is the servant of an old rich man.—The two first in the row are cherry-trees, the two others are pear trees.]

6. The adjectives a and the are often properly omitted: when used,
they should be justly applied, according to their distinct nature; as, "Gold is corrupting; the sea is green; a lion is bold."

The following passage will serve as an example of the different uses of *a* and *the*, and of the force of the substantive without either of them: "*Man* was made for society, and ought to extend his good will to all men; but *a man* will naturally entertain a more particular kindness for *the man* with whom he has the most frequent intercourse; and enter into a still closer union with *the man* whose temper and disposition suit best with his own."

As *a* and *the* are sometimes misapplied, it may be of some use to exhibit a few instances; "And I persecuted this way unto *the* death." The apostle does not mean any particular sort of death, but death in general: *the*, therefore, is improperly used; it ought to be, "unto death."

"When he, the Spirit of truth, is come, he will guide you into all truth;" that is, according to this translation, "into all truth whatsoever, into truth of all kinds;"—very different from the meaning of the evangelist, and from the original, "into all *the* truth;" that is, "into all evangelical truth, all truth necessary for you to know."

"Who breaks a butterfly upon *a* wheel?" it ought to be "*the* wheel," used as an instrument for the particular purpose of torturing criminals.

"The Almighty hath given reason to *a* man to be a light unto him:" it should rather be, "*to man," in general. "This day is salvation come to this house, forasmuch as he also is *the* son of Abraham:" it ought to be, "*a* son of Abraham."

7. A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made by the use or omission of *a*. If I say, "He behaved with a little reverence," my meaning is positive. If I say, "He behaved with little reverence," my meaning is negative. And these two are by no means the same, or to be used in the same cases. By the former, I rather praise a person; by the latter, I dispraise him. For the sake of this distinction, which is a very useful one, we may better bear the seeming impropriety of the definitive *a* before nouns of number. When I say, "There were few men with him," I speak diminutively, and mean to represent them as inconsiderable: whereas, when I say, "There were a few men with him," I evidently intend to make the most of them.

[He has been much censured for conducting himself with a little attention to his business.—So bold a breach of order called for little severity in punishing the offender.—His error was accompanied with so little contrition and candid acknowledgement, that he found *a* few persons to intercede for him.—As his misfortunes were the fruit of his own obstinacy, a few persons pitied him.]

In common conversation, and in familiar style, we frequently omit the definitive *the*, which might be inserted with propriety in writing, especially in a grave style. "At worst, time might be gained by this expedient." "At *the* worst," would have been better in this place. "Give me here John Baptist's head." There would have been more dignity in saying, "John *the* Baptist's head;" or, "The head of John the Baptist."

The has sometimes a good effect in distinguishing a person by an epithet. "In the history of Henry the Fourth, by Father Daniel, we
ADJECTIVES USED AS ADVERBS.

ADJECTIVES USED AS ADVERBS.

§ 70. Adjectives are often used as adverbs, and, as such, qualify and belong to like parts of speech.

1. "Open thy hand wide." We observe in this passage, that wide has a connection with the verb open; for it is not "open thy wide hand;" but the attribute is supposed to be the effect of the act of opening. Nor can the modifier, widely, be used; for it is not simply the manner of the act which is intended, but the effect.

"Let us write slow and exact." We might perhaps substitute slowly for slow, as describing only the manner of writing; but exactly cannot be substituted for exact; for this word is intended to denote the effect of writing, in the correctness of what is written. The attribute expresses the idea with a happy precision and brevity.

As this is one of the most common, as well as most beautiful idioms of our language, which has hitherto escaped due observation, the following authorities are subjoined to illustrate and justify the rule.

"We could hear distinctly the bells—which sounded sweetly soft and pensive."—Chandler’s Travels, ch. 2.

"A southerly wind succeeded blowing fresh."—Ib. v. 2. 3.

"His provisions were grown very short."—Burchet’s Nav. Hist. 357.

"When the caloric exists ready combined with the water of solution."—Lavoisier, Trans. ch. 5.

"The purest clay is that which burns white."—Ency. Art. Chemistry.

"Drink deep or taste not the Pierian spring."—Pope.


"The victory of the ministry cost them dear."—Hume, Contin. II. 9.

"And just as short of reason he must fall."—Pope.

"Thick and more thick the steely circle grows."—Hoole’s Tasso, b. 8.


"The cakes eat short and crisp."—Vicar of Wakefield.

"A steep ascent of steps which were cut close and deep into the rocks."—Hampton’s Polybius, 2, 65.

"It makes the plow go deep or shallow."—Ency. Art. Agri.

"The king’s ships were getting ready."—Lusior. 1. 91.

"After growing old in attendance."—Spect. No. 232.

"The sun shineth watery."—Bacon, Apoph.

"Soft sighed the flute."—Thompson, Spring.

"I made him just and right."—Milton, 3. 98.

"He drew not nigh unheard."—Ib. 645.

"When the vowel of the preceding syllable is pronounced short."—Murray.
"Here grass is cut close and gravel rolled smooth. Is not that trim?"
—Boswell, Johnson, 3.

"Slow tolls the village clock—deep mourns the turtle."—Beattie's Minstrel.

"If you would try to live independent."—Pope, Let.
"Full many a gem with purest ray serene."—Gray.
"Some deemed him somnous wise."—Beattie's Minstrel.
"He is a trifle larger than his brother."

Authors, misguided by Latin Rules, and conceiving that every word which is used to qualify a verb, must be an adverb, have pronounced many of the passages here recited and similar ones to be incorrect—and in such as are too well established to bear censure, they call the adjective an adverb. Were it not for this influence in early education, which impresses a notion that all languages must be formed with the like idioms, we should never have received an idea that the same word may not modify a noun, an adjective, a verb, and an adverb.

So far are the words here used from being adverbs, that they cannot be changed into adverbs, without impairing the beauty, weakening the force or destroying the meaning of the passages. Let the sentences be put to the test—Magnesia feels smoothly—the cakes cut shortly and crisply—the apples boil softly or hardly—glows not her blush the more fairly. Every English ear rejects this alteration at once—the sentences become nonsense. Nor can the attribute be separated from the verb—"Amid her smiles, her blushes, being lovelier, glow"—this is not the sense—nor will it answer to say, "her lovelier blushes glow"—this is not the idea. The sense is, that the attribute expressed by lovelier, is not only a quality of blushes, but a quality derived, in a degree, from the action of the verb, glow.*

2. Adjectives are sometimes improperly applied as adverbs; as, "indifferent honest; excellent well; miserable poor;" instead of "indifferently honest; excellently well; miserably poor." "He behaved himself conformable to that great example;" "conformably." "Endeavor to live hereafter suitable to a person in thy station;" "suitably." "I can never think so mean of him;" "meanly." "He describes the river agreeable to the common reading;" "agreeably." "Agreeable to my promise, I now write;" "agreeably." "Thy exceeding great reward." When united to an adjective, or adverb not ending in ly, the word exceeding has ly added to it; as, "exceedingly dreadful; exceedingly great; exceedingly well; exceedingly more active." but when it is joined to an adverb or adjective, having that termination, the ly is omitted: as, "Some men think exceeding clearly, and reason exceeding forcibly;" "She appeared, on this occasion, exceeding lovely."—"He acted in this business bolder than was expected." "They behaved the noblest, because they were disinterested." They should have been, "more boldly, most nobly." The adjective pronoun such is often misapplied; as, "He was such an extravagant young man, that he spent his whole patrimony in a few years;" it should be, "so extravagant a young man." "I never before saw such large trees;" "saw trees so large." When we refer to the species or nature of a thing, the word such is properly applied; as, "Such a temper is seldom found;" but when degree is signified, we use the word so; as, "So bad a temper is seldom found."

The verb to be, in all its modes and tenses, generally requires the word immediately connected with it to be an adjective, not an adverb.

*The foregoing remarks of this section are from the Grammar of N. Webster.
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Adverbs are likewise improperly used as adjectives; as, “The tutor addressed him in terms rather warm, but suitably to the offence;” “suitable.”

[She reads proper, writes very neat, and composes accurate.—He was extreme prodigal, and his property is now near exhausted.—The conspiracy was the easier discovered, from its being known to many.—Not being fully acquainted with the subject, he could affirm no stronger than he did.—He was so deeply impressed with the subject, that few could speak nobler upon it.—We may credit his testimony, for he says express, that he saw the transaction.—Use a little wine for thy stomach’s sake, and thine often infirmities.—From these favorable beginnings, we may hope for a soon and prosperous issue.—He addressed several exhortations to them suitably to their circumstances.]

Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive Case.

§ 71. A noun or pronoun, denoting possession, and placed before another noun limiting its meaning, is in the possessive case.

[My ancestors virtue is not mine.—His brothers offence will not condemn him.—I will not destroy the city for ten sake.—Nevertheless, Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord.—A mothers tenderness and a fathers care are natures gifts for mans advantage.—A mans manners frequently influence his fortune.—Wisdoms precepts form the good mans interest and happiness.]

1. If several nouns come together in the possessive case, the apostrophe with s is annexed to the last, and understood of the rest; as, “John and Eliza’s book;” “This was my father, mother and uncle’s advice.” But when any words intervene, perhaps on account of the increased pause, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each; as, “They are John’s as well as Eliza’s books;” “I had the physician’s, the surgeon’s and the apothecary’s assistance.”

[It was the men’s, women’s and children’s lot to suffer great calamities. Peter’s, John’s and Andrew’s occupation was that of fishermen.—This measure gained the king, as well as the people’s approbation.—Not only the counsel’s and attorney’s, but the judge’s opinion also, favored his cause.]

2. In poetry, the additional s is frequently omitted, but the apostrophe retained, in the same manner as in substantives of the plural number, ending in s; as, “The wrath of Peleus’ son.” This seems not so allowable in prose, which the following erroneous examples will demonstrate: “Moses’ minister;” “Phinehas’ wife;” “Festus came
into Felix' room;"  "These answers were made to the witness' questions."  But in cases which would give too much of the hissing sound, or increase the difficulty of pronunciation, the omission takes place even in prose; as, "For righteousness' sake;" "For conscience' sake."

[And he cast himself down at Jesus feet.—Moses rod was turned into a serpent.—For Herodias sake, his brother Philip's wife.—If ye suffer for righteousness's sake, happy are ye.—You should be subject for conscience's sake.]

3. Little explanatory circumstances are particularly awkward between a possessive case and the word which usually follows it; as, "She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding." It ought to be, "the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

[They very justly condemned the prodigal's, as he was called, senseless and extravagant conduct.—They implicitly obeyed the protector's, as they called him, imperious mandates.]

4. When a sentence consists of terms signifying a name and an office, or of any expressions by which one part is descriptive or explanatory of the other, it may occasion some doubt to which of them the sign of the possessive case should be annexed; or whether it should be subjoined to them both. Thus, some would say, "I left the parcel at Smith's, the bookseller;" others, "at Smith the bookseller's;" and perhaps others, "at Smith's, the bookseller's." The first of these forms is most agreeable to the English idiom; and if the addition consists of two or more words, the case seems to be less dubious; as, "I left the parcel at Smith's, the bookseller and stationer."

A phrase in which the words are so connected and dependent, as to admit of no pause before the conclusion, necessarily requires the possessive sign at or near the end of the phrase; as, "Whose prerogative is it? It is the king of Great Britain's;" "This is the duke of Bridgewater's canal;" "The bishop of Landaff's excellent book;" "The lord mayor of London's authority;" "The captain of the guard's house."

When words in apposition follow each other in quick succession, it seems also most agreeable to our idiom, to give the sign of the possessive a similar situation; especially if the noun which governs the possessive be expressed; as, "The emperor Leopold's;" "Dionysius the tyrant's;" "For David my servant's sake;" "Give me John the Baptist's head;" "Paul the apostle's advice." But when a pause is proper, and the governing noun not expressed; and when the latter part of the sentence is extended; it appears to be requisite that the sign should be applied to the first possessive, and understood of the other; as, "I reside at Lord Stormont's, my old patron and benefactor;" "Whose glory did he emulate? He emulated Caesar's, the greatest general of antiquity."

[I bought the knives at Johnson's the cutler's.—The silk was purchased at Brown's the mercer's and haberdasher's.—Lord Feversham's the general's tent.—This palace had been
the grand sultan's Mahomet's.—I will not for David's thy father's sake.—He took refuge at the governor, the king's representative's.—Whose works are these? They are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's.]  

5. The possessive has often an unpleasant sound; so that we daily make more use of the particle of, to express the same relation. There is something awkward in the following sentences, in which this method has not been taken: "The general, in the army's name, published a declaration;" "The commons' vote;" "The lords' house;" "Unless he is very ignorant of the kingdom's condition;" It were certainly better to say, "In the name of the army;" "The vote of the commons;" "The house of lords;" "The condition of the kingdom." It is also rather harsh to use two English possessives with the same substantive; as, "Whom he acquainted with the pope's and the king's pleasure." "The pleasure of the pope and the king," would have been better.  

We sometimes meet with three substantives dependent on one another, and connected by the preposition of applied to each of them; as, "The severity of the distress of the son of the king, touched the nation;" but this mode of expression is not to be recommended. It would be better to say, "The severe distress of the king's son touched the nation." We have a striking instance of this laborious mode of expression in the following sentence: "Of the books of some of each of these classes of literature, a catalogue will be given at the end of the work."  

The preposition of, joined to a substantive, is not always equivalent to the possessive case. It is only so when the expression can be converted into the regular form of the possessive case. We can say, "The reward of virtue," and "Virtue's reward;" but though it is proper to say, "A crown of gold," we cannot convert the expression into the possessive case, and say, "Gold's crown."  

6. In some cases we use both the possessive termination and the preposition of; as, "It is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's." Sometimes, indeed, unless we throw the sentence into another form, this method is absolutely necessary, in order to distinguish the sense, and to give the idea of property, strictly so called, which is the most important of the relations expressed by the possessive case;—for the expressions, "This picture of my friend," and "This picture of my friend's," suggest very different ideas. The latter only is that of property, in the strictest sense. The idea would, doubtless, be conveyed in a better manner by saying, "This picture, belonging to my friend."  

[That picture of the king's does not much resemble him. These pictures of the king were sent to him from Italy.—This estate of the corporation's is much encumbered.—That is the eldest son of the king of England's.]  

7. When an entire clause of a sentence, beginning with a participle of the present tense, is used as one name, or to express one idea or circumstance, the noun on which it depends may be put in the possessive case: thus, instead of saying, "What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily?" that is, "What is the reason of
this person in dismissing his servant so hastily?" we may say, and perhaps ought to say, "What is the reason of this person's dismissing of his servant so hastily?" just as we say, "What is the reason of this person's hasty dismissal of his servant?" So also we say, "I remember it being reckoned a great exploit;" or, more properly, "I remember its being reckoned," &c. The following sentence is correct and proper: "Much will depend on the pupil's composing, but more on his reading frequently."

[What can be the cause of the parliament neglecting so important a business?—Much depends on this rule being observed.—The time of William making the experiment, at length arrived.—Such will ever be the effect of a young man associating with vicious companions.]

TRANSITIVE VERBS AND THEIR PARTICIPLES.

§ 72. Active transitive verbs and their participles are followed by the objective case.

1. In English, the nominative case, denoting the subject, usually goes before the verb; and the objective case, denoting the object, follows the verb active; and it is the order that determines the case in nouns; as, "Alexander conquered the Persians." But the pronoun, having a proper form for each of those cases, is sometimes, when it is in the objective case, placed before the verb; and, when it is in the nominative case, follows the object and the verb; as, "Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you."

This position of the pronoun sometimes occasions its proper case and government to be neglected; as in the following instances: "Who should I esteem more than the wise and good?" "By the character of those who you choose for your friends, your own is likely to be formed." "Those are the persons who he thought true to his interest." "Who should I see the other day but my old friend?" "Whosoever the court favors." In all these places, it ought to be whom, the relative being governed in the objective case by the verb esteem, choose, thought, &c. "He, who, under all proper circumstances, has the boldness to speak truth, choose for thy friend;" it should be, "him, who," &c.

[They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of nature.—You have reason to dread his wrath, which one day will destroy ye both.—Who have I reason to love so much as this friend of my youth?—Ye, who were dead, hath he quickened.—She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.—Who did they send to him on so important an errand?—Who did they entertain so freely?—The man who he raised from obscurity, is dead.—Ye only have I known of all the families of the earth.—He and they we know, but who are you?]

2. Some writers, however, use certain inactive or intransitive verbs as if they were transitive, putting after them the objective case, agree-
ably to the French construction of reciprocal verbs; but this custom is so foreign to the idiom of the English tongue, that it ought not to be adopted or imitated. The following are some instances of this practice: "Repenting him of his design." "The king soon found reason to repent him of his provoking such dangerous enemies." "The popular lords did not fail to enlarge themselves on the subject." "The nearer his success approached him to the throne." "I think it by no means a fit and decent thing to vie charities," &c. "Go, flee thee away into the land of Judah." "They have spent their whole time and pains to agree the sacred with the profane chronology."

Active transitive verbs are sometimes as improperly made inactive or intransitive; as, "I must premise with three circumstances;" "Those who think to ingrati ate with him by calumniating me."

3. The present participle, with a definitive before it, becomes a noun, and must have the preposition of after it; as, "These are the rules of grammar, by the observing of which, you may avoid mistakes." It would not be proper to say, "by the observing which," nor, "by observing of which;" but the phrase, without either definitive or preposition, would be right; as, "by observing which." "This was a betray ing of the trust reposed in him."

This rule arises from the nature and idiom of our language, and from as plain a principle as any on which it is founded; namely, that a word which has a definitive before it, and the possessive preposition of after it, must be a noun; and, if a noun, it ought to follow the construction of a noun, and not to have the regimen of a verb. It is the participial termination of this sort of words, that is apt to deceive us, and make us treat them as if they were of an amphibious species, partly nouns and partly verbs.

The following are a few examples of the violation of this rule: "He was sent to prepare the way by preaching of repentance;" it ought to be, "by the preaching of repentance," or, "by preaching repentance." "By the continual mortifying our corrupt affections;" it should be, "by the continual mortifying of," or, "by continually mortifying our corrupt affections." "They laid out themselves towards the advancing and promoting the good of it;" "towards advancing and promoting the good." "It is an overvaluing ourselves;" "an overvaluing of ourselves." "Keeping of one day in seven," &c.; it ought to be, "the keeping of one day;" or, "keeping one day."

A phrase in which the definitive precedes the present participle, and the possessive preposition follows it, will not, in every instance, convey the same meaning as would be conveyed by the participle without the definitive and preposition. "He expressed the pleasure he had in the hearing of the philosopher," is capable of a different sense from, "He expressed the pleasure he had in hearing the philosopher." When, therefore, we wish, for the sake of harmony or variety, to substitute one of these phraseologies for the other, we should previously consider whether they are perfectly similar in the sentiments they convey.

§73. Two or more nouns or pronouns in the same sentence, signifying the same thing, are put by apposition in the same case.
The following sentences contain deviations from this rule, and exhibit the pronoun in a wrong case. "It might have been him, but there is no proof of it." "Though I was blamed, it could not have been me." "I saw one whom I took to be she." "She is the person, who I understood it to have been." "Who do you think me to be?" "Whom do men say that I am?" "And whom think ye that I am?"

[Well may you be afraid; it is him indeed.—I would act the same part, if I were him, or in his situation.—Search the Scriptures, for in them you think you have eternal life; and they are them which testify of me.—Be composed: it is me: you have no cause for fear.—I cannot tell who has befriended me, unless it is him from whom I have received many benefits.—I know not whether it were them who conducted the business; but I am certain it was not him.—He so much resembled my brother, that, at first sight, I took it to be he.—After all their professions, is it possible to be them?—It could not have been her, for she always behaves discreetly.—If it was not him, who do you imagine it to have been?—Who do you think him to be?—Whom do the people say that I am?]

USE OF WORDS AND PHRASES IN RESPECT TO TIME.

§74. In the use of words and phrases which, in point of time, relate to each other, a due regard to that relation should be observed. Instead of saying, "The Lord hath given, and the Lord hath taken away," we should say, "The Lord gave, and the Lord hath taken away."

1. It is not easy to give particular rules for the management of the modes and tenses of verbs with respect to one another, so that they may be proper and consistent. The best rule that can be given, is this very general one—"To observe what the sense necessarily requires." It may, however, be of use to give a few examples of irregular construction. "The last week I intended to have written," is a very common phrase; the infinitive being in the past time, as well as the verb which it follows. But it is certainly wrong; for how long soever it now is since I thought of writing, to write was then present to me, and must still be considered as present, when I bring back that time, and the thoughts of it. It ought, therefore, to be, "The last week I intended to write." The following sentences are also erroneous: "I cannot excuse the remissness of those whose business it should have been, as it certainly was their interest, to have interposed their good offices." "There were two circumstances which made it necessary for them to have lost no time." "History painters would have found it difficult to have invented such a species of beings." They ought to be, to interpose, to lose, to invent. "On the morrow, because he would
have known the certainty wherefore he was accused of the Jews, he loosed him." It ought to be, "because he would know," or, rather, "being willing to know." "The blind man said unto him, Lord, that I might receive my sight." "If by any means I might attain unto the resurrection of the dead." May, in both places, would have been better. "From his biblical knowledge he appears to study the Scriptures with great attention;" "to have studied," &c. "I feared that I should have lost it, before I arrived at the city;" "should lose it." "I had rather walk;" it should be, "I would rather walk." "It would have afforded me no satisfaction, if I could perform it;" it should be," if I could have performed it;" or, "It would afford me no satisfaction if I could perform it."

[The next new year's day I shall be at school three years. —And he that was dead sat up and began to speak.—I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular. —They maintained that scripture conclusion, that all mankind rise from the dead.—John will earn his wages when his service is completed.—Ye will not come unto me that ye might have life.—Be that as it will, he cannot justify his conduct.—I have been at London a year, and seen the king last summer.]

2. It is proper to inform the learner, that, in order to express the past time with the defective verb ought, the perfect of the infinitive must always be used; as, "He ought to have done it." When we use this verb, this is the only way to distinguish the past from the present.

It is proper further to observe, that verbs in the infinitive mode in the following form—to write, to be writing, and to be written—always denote something contemporary with the time of the governing verb, or subsequent to it; but when verbs of that mode are expressed as follows—to have been writing, to have written, and to have been written—they always denote something antecedent to the time of the governing verb. This remark is thought to be of importance; for, if duly attended to, it will, in most cases, be sufficient to direct us in the relative application of these tenses.

The following sentence is properly and analogically expressed: "I found him better than I expected to find him." "Expected to have found him," is irreconcilable alike to grammar and to sense. Indeed, all verbs expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command, must invariably be followed by the present, and not the perfect of the infinitive. Every person would perceive an error in the expression—"It is long since I commanded him to have done it;" yet "expected to have found," is no better. It is as clear that the finding must be posterior to the expectation, as that the obedience must be posterior to the command.

3. As the perfect participle and the past tense are sometimes different in their form, care must be taken that they be not indiscriminately used. It is frequently said, "He begun," for "he began;" "He done it," for "he did it;" "He run," for "he ran;" "He drunk," for "he drank;" the participle being here used instead of the past tense: and much more frequently the past tense instead of the participle; as, "I had wrote," for "I had written;" "His words were interwove with sighs;" "were interwoven." "He would have spoke;" "spoken."
"He hath bore witness to his faithful servants;" "borne." "By this means he overrun his guide;" "overran." "The sun has rose;" "risen." "His constitution has been greatly shook, but his mind is too strong to be shook by such causes;" "shaken," in both places. "They were verses wrote on glass;" "written." "Philosophers have often mistook the source of true happiness;" it ought to be "missetaken."

The participle ending in ed is often improperly contracted by changing ed into t; as, "In good behavior he is not surpast by any pupil of the school;" "She was much distrest;" they ought to be, "surpassed," "distressed."

[He would have went with us, had he been invited.—He returned the goods which he had stole, and made all the reparation in his power.—His vices have weakened his mind, and broke his health.—He had mistook his true interest, and found himself forsook by his former adherents.—No contentions have arose amongst them since their reconciliation.—He has not yet wore off the rough manners which he brought with him.—You who have forsook your friends, are entitled to no confidence.—They who have bore a part in the labor, shall share the rewards.—He writes as the best authors would have wrote, had they writ on the same subject.—He heapt up great riches, but past his time miserably.—He talkt and stamp't with such vehemence, that he was suspected to be insane.—I always intended to have rewarded my son according to his merit.—It would, on reflection, have given me great satisfaction, to relieve him from that distressed situation.—It required so much care, that I thought I should have lost it before I reached home.—We have done no more than it was our duty to have done.—I purpose to go to London in a few months, and after I shall finish my business there, to proceed to America.—These prosecutions of William seem to be the most iniquitous measures pursued by the court during the time that the use of parliaments was suspended.—From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of letters.]

4. We shall conclude our observations under this rule, by remarking, that, though it is often proper to use the perfect of the infinitive after the governing verb, yet there are particular cases in which it would be better to give the expression a different form. Thus, instead of saying, "I wish to have written to him sooner," "I then wished to have written to him sooner," "He will one day wish to have written sooner," it would be more perspicuous and forcible, as well as more agreeable to the practice of good writers, to say, "I wish that I had written to him sooner," "I then wished that I had written to him sooner," "He will one day wish that he had written sooner." Should the justness of these strictures be admitted, there would still be nu-
POSITION OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs, though they have no government or agreement, require an appropriate situation in the sentence: they are, for the most part, placed before adjectives, after verbs, and frequently between the auxiliary and the verb.

A few instances of erroneous positions of adverbs may serve to illustrate this rule. "He must not expect to find study agreeable always;" "always agreeable." "We always find them ready when we want them;" "we find them always ready," &c. "Dissertations on the prophecies which have remarkably been fulfilled;" "which have been remarkably." "Instead of looking contemptuously down on the crooked in mind or in body, we should look up thankfully to God, who hath made us better;" "instead of looking down contemptuously," &c., "we should thankfully look up," &c. "If you are blessed naturally with a good memory, continually exercise it;" "naturally blessed," &c., "exercise it continually."

Sometimes the adverb is placed, with propriety, before the verb, or at some distance after it; sometimes between the two auxiliaries, and sometimes after them both; as in the following examples: "Vice always creeps by degrees, and insensibly twines around us those concealed fetters, by which we are at last completely bound." "He encouraged the English barons to carry their opposition further;" "They compelled him to declare that he would abjure the realm forever;" instead of "to carry farther their opposition; and to abjure forever the realm." "He has generally been reckoned an honest man;" "The book may always be had at such a place;" "in preference to "has been generally," and "may be always." "These rules will be clearly understood after they have been diligently studied," is preferable to "These rules will clearly be understood, after they have diligently been studied."

From the preceding remarks and examples, it appears that no exact and determinate rule can be given for the placing of adverbs, on all occasions. The general rule may be of considerable use; but the easy flow and perspicuity of the phrase, are the things which ought to be chiefly regarded.

[He was pleasing not often, because he was vain.—William nobly acted, though he was unsuccessful.—We may happily live, though our possessions are small.—From whence we may date likewise the period of this event.—These things
should be never separated.—Unless he have more govern-
ment of himself, he will be always discontented.—Not only
he found her employed, but pleased and tranquil also.—We
always should prefer our duty to our pleasure.—It is impos-
sible continually to be at work.—The heavenly bodies are
in motion perpetually.—Having not known, or having not
considered, the measures proposed, he failed of success.]  

1. The adverb there is often used as an expletive, or as a word that
adds nothing to the sense; in which case it precedes the verb and the
nominative noun; as, “There is a person at the door;” “There are
some thieves in the house;” which would be as well, or better, expressed
by saying, “A person is at the door;” “Some thieves are in
the house.” Sometimes it is made use of to give a small degree of em-
phasis to the sentence; as, “There was a man sent from God, whose
name was John.” When it is applied in its strict sense, it principally
follows the verb and the nominative case; as, “The man stands
there.”

2. The adverb never generally precedes the verb; as, “I never was
there;” “He never comes at a proper time.” When an auxiliary is
used, it is placed indifferently, either before or after this adverb; as,
“He was never seen (or never was seen) to laugh from that time.
Never seems to be improperly used in the following passages: “Ask
me never so much dowry and gift.” “If I make my hands never so
clean,” “Charm he never so wisely.” The word ever would be more
suitable to the sense.

3. In imitation of the French idiom, the adverb of place where is
often used instead of the pronoun relative and a preposition. “They
framed a protestation, where they repeated all their former claims;
” i. e. “in which they repeated.” “The king was still determined to
run forwards, in the same course where he was already, by his precipi-
tate career, too fatally advanced;” i. e. “in which he was.” But it
would be better to avoid this mode of expression.

The adverbs hence, thence, and whence, imply a preposition; for they
signify “from this place,” “from that place,” “from what place.” It
seems, therefore, strictly speaking, to be improper to join a preposi-
tion with them, because it is superfluous; as, “This is the leviathan,
from whence the wits of our age are said to borrow their weapons;”
“An ancient author prophesies from hence.” But the origin of these
words is little attended to, and the preposition from so often used in
construction with them, that the omission of it, in many cases, would
seem stiff, and be disagreeable.

The adverbs here, there, where, are often improperly applied to verbs
signifying motion, instead of the adverbs hither, thither, whither; as,
“He came here hastily;” “They rode there with speed.” They should
be, “He came hither;” “They rode thither,” &c.

[He drew up a petition where he too freely represented
his own merits.—His follies had reduced him to a situation
where he had much to fear, and nothing to hope.—It is re-
ported that the prince will come here to-morrow.—George
was active; he walked there in less than an hour.—Where
are you all going in such haste?—Whither have they been since they left the city?]

4. We have some examples of adverbs being used for substantives: "In 1687, he erected it into a community of regulars, since when it has begun to increase in those countries as a religious order;" i.e. "since which time." "A little while, and I shall not see you," i.e. "a short time." "It is worth their while;" i.e. "it deserves their time and pains." But this use of the word suits a familiar rather than a grave style. The same may be said of the phrase, "To do a thing anyhow;" i.e. "in any manner:" or, "somehow;" i.e. "in any manner." "Somehow, worthy as these people are, they are under the influence of prejudice."

TWO NEGATIVES IN THE SAME SENTENCE.

§ 76. Two negatives, in the same simple sentence, are equivalent to an affirmative.

It is better to express an affirmation by a regular affirmative, than by two separate negatives; but when one of the negatives is joined to another word, the two negatives form a pleasing and delicate variety of expression.

Some writers have improperly employed two negatives instead of one; as in the following instances: "I never did repent of doing good, nor shall not now;" "nor shall I now." "Never no imitator grew up to his author;" "never did any," &c. "I cannot by no means allow him what his argument must prove;" "I cannot by any means," &c; or, "I can by no means." "Nor let no comforter approach me;" "nor let any comforter," &c. "Nor is danger ever apprehended in such a government, no more than we commonly apprehend danger from thunder or earthquakes;" it should be, "any more." "Ariosto, Tasso, Galileo, no more than Raphael, were not born in republics:" "Neither Ariosto, Tasso, nor Galileo, any more than Raphael, was born in a republic."

[Neither riches nor honors, nor no such perishing goods, can satisfy the desires of an immortal spirit.—Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise.—We need not, nor do not, confine his operations to narrow limits.—I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present, nor at any other time.—There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity.—Nothing never affected her so much, as this misconduct of her child.—Do not interrupt me yourselves, nor let no one disturb my retirement.—These people do not judge wisely, nor take no proper measure to effect their purpose.—The measure is so exceptionable, that we cannot by no means permit it.—I have received no information on the subject, neither from him nor his friend.—Precept nor discipline is not so forcible as example.—The king nor the queen was not at all deceived in the business.]
§77. Prepositions show the relation between words, and must be followed by the objective case.

The following are examples of the nominative case being used instead of the objective: "Who servest thou under?" "Who do you speak to?" "We are still much at a loss who civil power belongs to." "Who dost thou ask for?" "Associate not with those who none can speak well of." In all these places, it ought to be "whom."

[We are all accountable creatures, each for himself,—They willingly, and of themselves, endeavored to make up the difference.—He laid the suspicion upon somebody, I know not who, in the company.—I hope it is not I who he is displeased with.—To poor we, there is not much hope remaining.—Does that boy know who he speaks to?—Who does he offer such language to?—It was not he that they were so angry with.—What concord can subsist between those who commit crimes, and they who abhor them?—The person who I travelled with, has sold the horse which he rode on during our journey.]

1. The preposition is often separated from the relative which it governs: as, "Whom wilt thou give it to?" instead of, "To whom wilt thou give it?" "He is an author whom I am much delighted with;" "The world is too polite to shock authors with a truth, which generally their booksellers are the first that inform them of." This is an idiom to which our language is strongly inclined; it prevails in common conversation, and is suited very well to the familiar style in writing: but the placing of the preposition before the relative is more graceful, as well as more perspicuous, and agrees much better with the solemn and elevated style.

2. Some writers separate the preposition from its noun, in order to connect different prepositions with the same noun, as, "To suppose the zodiac and planets to be efficient of, and antecedent to, themselves." This, whether in the familiar or the solemn style, is always inelegant, and should generally be avoided. In forms of law, and the like, where fulness and exactness of expression must take the place of every other consideration, it may be admitted.

3. Different relations, and different senses, must be expressed by different prepositions, though in conjunction with the same verb or adjective. Thus we say, "To converse with a person, upon a subject, in a house," &c. We also say, "We are disappointed of a thing," when we cannot get it, "and disappointed in it," when we have it, and find it does not answer our expectations. But two different prepositions must be improper in the same construction, and in the same sentence; as, "To combat between thirty French against twenty English."

In some cases, it is difficult to say, to which of two prepositions the preference is to be given, as both are used promiscuously, and custom
has not decided in favor of either of them. We say, “Expert at,” and "Expert in a thing." "Expert at finding a remedy for his mistakes;" "Expert in deception."

When prepositions are subjoined to nouns, they are generally the same that are subjoined to the verbs from which the nouns are derived; as, “A compliance with,” “to comply with.” “A disposition to tyranny,” “disposed to tyrannize.”

4. As an accurate and appropriate use of the preposition is of great importance, we shall select a considerable number of examples of impropriety in the application of this part of speech.

1st. With respect to the preposition of. ‘He is resolved of going to the Persian court;’ ‘on going,’ &c. ‘He was totally dependent of the Papal crown;’ ‘on the Papal,’ &c. ‘To call of a person,’ and ‘to wait of him;’ ‘on a person,’ &c. ‘He was eager of recommending it to his fellow citizens;’ ‘in recommending,’ &c. Of is sometimes omitted, and sometimes inserted, after worthy; as, ‘It is worthy observation,’ or, ‘of observation.’ But it would have been better omitted in the following sentences: ‘The emulation, who should serve their country best, no longer subsists among them, but of who should obtain the most lucrative command.’ ‘The rain hath been falling of a long time;’ ‘falling a long time.’ ‘It is situation chiefly which decides of the fortune and character of men;’ ‘decides the fortune,’ or, ‘concerning the fortune,’ ‘He found the greatest difficulty of writing;’ ‘in writing,’ ‘It might have given me a greater taste of its antiquities.’ A taste of a thing implies actual enjoyment of it; but a taste for it, implies only a capacity for enjoyment. ‘This had a much greater share of inciting him, than any regard after his father’s commands;’ ‘share in inciting,’ and ‘regard to his father’s,’ &c.

2d. With respect to the prepositions, to, for, and at. ‘You have bestowed your favors to the most deserving persons;’ ‘upon the most deserving,’ &c. ‘He accused the ministers for betraying the Dutch;’ ‘of having betrayed,’ &c. ‘His abhorrence to that superstitious figure;’ ‘of that,’ &c. ‘A great change to the better;’ ‘for the better.’ Your prejudice to my cause;’ ‘against.’ ‘The English were very different people then, to what they are at present;’ ‘from what,’ &c. ’In compliance to the declaration;’ ‘with,’ &c. ‘It is more than they thought for;’ ‘thought of.’ ‘There is no need for it;’ ‘of it.’ ‘For is superfluous in the phrase, ‘More than he knows for.’ ‘No discouragement for the authors to proceed;’ ‘to the authors,’ &c. ‘It was perfectly in compliance to some persons;’ ‘with.’ ‘The wisest princes need not think any diminution to their greatness, or derogation to their sufficiency, to rely upon counsel;’ ‘diminution of,’ and ‘derogation from.’

The preposition to is made use of before nouns of place, when they follow verbs and participles of motion; as, ‘I went to London;’ ‘I am going to town.’ But the preposition at is generally used after the inactive verb to be; as, ‘I have been at London;’ ‘I was at the place appointed;’ ‘I shall be at Paris.’ We likewise say, ‘He touched, arrived at any place.’ The preposition in is set before countries, cities, and large towns; as, ‘He lives in France, in London, or in Birmingham.’ But before villages, single houses, and cities which are in different countries, at is used; as, ‘He lives at Hackney;’ ‘He resides at Montpellier.’

3d. With respect to the prepositions with and upon. ‘Reconciling himself with the king;’ ‘Those things which have the greatest resemblance with each other, frequently differ the most.’ ‘That such rejection should be consonant with our common nature;’ ‘Conformable with,’ &c. ‘The history of Peter is agreeable with the sacred texts.’ In all the above instances, it should be ‘to, instead of’ ‘with.’ ‘It is a use that, perhaps, I should not have thought on;’ ‘thought of.’ ‘A greater quantity may be taken from the heap, without making any sensible alteration upon it;’ ‘in it.’ ‘Intrusted to persons on whom the parliament could confide;’ ‘in whom.’ ‘He was made much of.”
on at Argos; 'much of,' 'If the policy can prevail upon force;' 'over force.' 'I do likewise dissent with the examiner;' 'from.'

4th. With respect to the prepositions in, from, &c. 'They should be informed in some parts of his character;' 'about;' or, 'concerning.' 'Upon such occasions as fell into their cognizance;' 'under.' 'That variety of fashions into which we are still engaged;' 'in which.' 'To restore myself into the favor;' 'to the favor.' 'Could he have profited from his repeated experiences;' 'by.' From seems to be superfluous after forbear; as, 'He could not forbear from appointing the pope,' &c. 'A strict observance after times and fashions;' 'oftimes.' 'The character which we may now value ourselves by drawing;' 'upon drawing.' 'Neither of them shall make me swerve out of the path;' 'from the path.' 'Ye blind guides, which strain at a gnat, and swallow a camel;' it ought to be, 'which strain out a gnat, or, take a gnat out of the liquor by straining it.' 'The impropriety of the preposition has wholly destroyed the meaning of the phrase.

The preposition among generally implies a number of things. It cannot be properly used in conjunction with the word every, which is in the singular number; as, 'Which is found among every species of liberty;' 'The opinion seems to gain ground among every body.'

It is a matter of indifference, with respect to the pronoun one another, whether the preposition of be placed between the two parts of it, or before them both. We may say, 'They were jealous of one another;' or, 'They were jealous one of another;' but perhaps the former is best.

[We can confide on none but the truly good.—I have no occasion of his services.—Many have profited from good advice.—This is a principle in unison to our nature.—We should entertain no prejudices to simple and rustic persons.—Forgive us of our sins.—They are at present resolved of doing their duty.—That boy is known under the name of the idler.—Though conformable with custom, it is not warrantable.—This remark is founded in truth.—His parents think on him and his improvements, with pleasure and hope.—His excuse was admitted of by his master.—More than a thousand of men were destroyed.—He lives opposite the royal exchange.—Their house is situated to the north east side of the road.—He was accused with having acted unfairly.—She has an abhorrence to all deceitful conduct.—The politeness of the world has the same resemblance with benevolence, that the shadow has with its substance.—When we have had a true taste for the pleasures of virtue, we can have no relish for those of vice.—Civility makes its way among every kind of persons.]

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 78. Conjunctions connect words and sentences, and sometimes sections or chapters.

1. Conjunctions frequently connect verbs of the same mode and tense, and nouns and pronouns of the same case. A few examples of
CONJUNCTIONS.

inaccuracy respecting this rule may further display its utility. "If he prefer a virtuous life, and is sincere in his profession, he will succeed;" "if he prefers." "To deride the miseries of the unhappy, is inhuman; and wanting compassion towards them, is unchristian;" "and to want compassion." "The parliament addressed the king, and has been prorogued the same day;" "and was prorogued." "His wealth and him bid adieu to each other;" "and he." "He entreated us, my comrade and I, to live harmoniously;" "comrade and me." "My sister and her were on good terms;" "and she." "We often overlook the blessings which are in our possession, and are searching after those which are out of our reach;" it ought to be, "and search after."

[Professing regard, and to act differently, discover a base mind.—Did he not tell me his fault, and entreated me to forgive him?—My brother and him are tolerable grammarians.—If he understand the subject, and attends to it industriously, he can scarcely fail of success.—You and us enjoy many privileges.—She and him are very unhappily connected.]

2. Conjunctions that are of a positive or absolute nature are followed by the indicative mode; as, "He is healthy, because he is temperate." "James performed the work, for he was commanded so to do." But when the conjunction implies contingency or doubt, it is followed by the subjunctive mode; as, "If I was to write, he would not regard it;" "If thou art afflicted, repine not;" "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him;" "He cannot be clean, unless he washes himself;" "A man can receive nothing, except it be given him from heaven;" "Whether it were I or they, so we preach."

3. Almost all the irregularities in the construction of our language, have arisen from the ellipsis of some words which were originally inserted in the sentence, and made it regular; and it is probable, that this has generally been the case with respect to the subjunctive form* of verbs, so called, now in use. This will appear from the following examples; "We shall overtake him, though he run," that is, "though he should run." "Unless he act prudently, he will not accomplish his purpose;" that is "unless he shall act prudently." "If he succeed, and obtain his end, he will not be the happier for it;" that is, "If he should succeed, and should obtain his end." From these examples, it appears pretty certain that there is no sufficient authority for this subjunctive form of the verb, contended for so strenuously by some grammarians; inasmuch as there is always an ellipsis of an auxiliary, which may be readily supplied. We may observe, therefore, in the form of a rule, that, The words if, though, unless, lest, whether, and except, may be followed by verbs in the future tense, without the usual signs, shall, will, or should.

4. Some conjunctions have corresponding conjunctions belonging to them, either expressed or understood; as,

1st. Though—yet, nevertheless; as, 'Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor.' 'Though powerful, he was meek.'

2d. Whether—or; as, 'Whether he will go or not, I cannot tell.'

*Contracted forms of the future tense. See § 44.
3d. *Either—or*; as, 'I will *either* send it, or bring it myself.'
4th. *Neither—or*; as, 'Neither he nor I am able to compass it.'
5th. *As—as*; expressing a comparison of equality; as, 'She is *as* amiable as her sister; and *as* much respected.'
6th. *As—so*; expressing a comparison of equality; as, 'As the stars, *so* shall thy seed be.'
7th. *As—so*; expressing a comparison of quality; as, 'As the one dieth, *so* dieth the other;' 'As he reads, they read.'
8th. *So—as*; with a verb expressing a comparison of quality; as, 'To see thy glory, *so* as I have seen thee in the sanctuary.'
9th. *So—as*; with a negative and an adjective expressing a comparison of quantity; as, 'Pompey was *not* so great a general as Caesar, *nor* so great a man.'
10th. *So—that*; expressing a consequence; as, 'He was *so* fatigued, *that* he could scarcely move.'

The conjunctions *or* and *nor* may often be used, with nearly equal propriety. 'The king, whose character was not sufficiently vigorous *nor* decisive, assented to the measure.' In this sentence, *or* would, perhaps, have been better; but in general, *nor* seems to repeat the negation in the former part of the sentence, and, therefore, gives more emphasis to the expression.

Conjunctions are often improperly used, both singly and in pairs. The following are examples of this impropriety: 'The relations are so uncertain, as that they require a great deal of examination;' it should be, 'that they require,' &c. 'There was no man so sanguine, who did not apprehend some ill consequences;' it ought to be, 'so sanguine as not to apprehend,' &c.; or, 'no man, how sanguine soever, who did not,' &c. 'To trust in him is no more but to acknowledge his power.' 'This is no other but the gate of paradise.' In both these instances, *but* should be *than.* 'We should sufficiently weigh the objects of our hope; whether they are such as we may reasonably expect from them what they propose,' &c.; it ought to be, 'that we may reasonably,' &c. 'The duke had not behaved with that loyalty as he ought to have done;' 'with which he ought.' 'In the order as they lie in the preface;' it should be, 'in order as they lie;' or, 'in the order in which they lie.' 'Such sharp replies that cost him his life;' 'as cost,' &c. 'If he were truly that scarecrow, as he is now commonly painted;' 'such a scarecrow,' &c. 'I wish I could do that justice to his memory, to oblige the painters,' &c.; 'do such justice as to oblige,' &c.

[The matter was no sooner proposed *but* he privately withdrew to consider it.—He has too much sense and prudence *than* to become a dupe to such artifices.—It is not sufficient that our conduct, *as* far as it respects others, appears to be unexceptionable.—The resolution was not the less fixed, *that* the secret was yet communicated to very few.—He opposed the most remarkable corruptions of the Church of Rome, *so as* *his* doctrines were embraced by great numbers.—He gained nothing further by his speech, *but only* to be commended for his eloquence.—He has little more of the scholar *besides* his name.—He has little of the scholar *than* his name.—They had no sooner risen, but they applied themselves to their studies.—From no other institution, besides the admirable one of juries, could so great a benefit be expected.—Those savage people seemed to have no other element *but* war.]
ELLIPSIS OF WORDS.

QUALITIES OF DIFFERENT THINGS COMPARED.

§ 79. When the qualities of different things are compared, the latter noun or pronoun, following the conjunction than, or as, is the subject or object of some verb, or preposition, expressed or understood; as, "Thou art wiser than I;" that is, "than I am." "They loved him more than me;" that is, "more than they loved me." "The sentiment is well expressed by Plato, but much better by Solomon than him;" that is, "than by him."

The propriety or impropriety of many phrases, in the preceding as well as in some other forms, may be discovered, by supplying the words that are not expressed; which will be evident from the following instances of erroneous construction: "He can read better than me." "He is as good as her." "Whether I be present or no." "Who did this? Me." By supplying the words understood, in each of these phrases, their impropriety and governing rule will appear; as, "better than I can read;" "as good as she is;" "present or not present;" "I did it." By not attending to this rule, many errors have been committed; a number of which is subjoined, as a further caution and direction to the learner: "Thou art a much greater loser than me by his death." "She suffers hourly more than me." "We contribute a third more than the Dutch, who were obliged to the same proportion more than us." "King Charles, and, more than him, the duke and the popish faction, were at liberty to form new schemes." "The drift of all his sermons was, to prepare the Jews for the reception of a prophet mightier than him, and whose shoes he was not worthy to bear." "It was the work of so eminent an author as him to whom it was first imputed." "A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both." "If the king give us leave, we may perform the office as well as them that do." In these passages, it ought to be, "I, he, we, they," respectively.

Whom, the objective of who, is used by some writers immediately after than; as, "Beelzebub, than whom, Satan excepted, none higher sat;" "Alfred, than whom, a greater king never reigned," &c. But this use of the word is anomalous in our language, and opposed to all the true principles of its foundation; and though it may be consonant with Latin rules or idioms, is in the highest degree objectionable in English, cannot be parsed, and should be entirely discarded.

ELLIPSIS OF WORDS.

§ 80. To avoid disagreeable repetitions, and to express our ideas in a few words, an ellipsis, or omission of some words, is frequent-
ly admitted. Instead of saying, "He was a learned man, he was a wise man, and he was a good man," we make use of the ellipsis, and say, "He was a learned, wise and good man."

When the omission of words would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with impropriety, they must be expressed. In the sentence, "We are apt to love who love us," the word them should be supplied. "A beautiful field and trees," is not proper language; it should be, "Beautiful fields and trees," or, "Beautiful fields and fine trees."

The force of these rules will be best exemplified by considering the parts of speech separately and in their order. Almost all compound sentences are more or less elliptical, as the student has had occasion before this to observe.

1. The noun is frequently omitted in the following manner: "The laws of God and man;" that is, "The laws of God and the laws of man." In some very emphatical expressions, the ellipsis should not be used; as, "Christ, the power of God, and the wisdom of God;" which is more emphatical than "Christ the power and wisdom of God."

[These counsels were the dictates of virtue, and the dictates of true honor.—Avarice and cunning may acquire an estate, but avarice and cunning cannot gain friends.—Without firmness, nothing that is great can be undertaken; that is difficult or hazardous, can be accomplished.—The anxious man is the votary of riches; the negligent, of pleasure.]

2. The ellipsis of the adjective is used in the following manner: "A delightful garden and orchard;" that is, "A delightful garden and a delightful orchard." "A little man and woman;" that is, "A little man and a little woman." In such elliptical expressions as these, the adjective ought to have exactly the same signification, and to be quite as proper, when joined to the latter substantive as to the former; otherwise the ellipsis should not be admitted.

Sometimes the ellipsis is improperly applied to nouns of different numbers; as, "A magnificent house and gardens." In this case it is better to use another adjective; as, "A magnificent house and fine gardens."

[His crimes had brought him into extreme distress and extreme perplexity.—He has an affectionate brother, and an affectionate sister, and they live in great harmony.—We must guard against too great severity, and facility of man-
ELLIPSES OF WORDS.

That species of commerce will produce great gain or loss.—Many days, and even weeks, pass away unimproved.—This wonderful action struck the beholders with exceeding astonishment.—The people of this country possess a healthy climate and soil.—They enjoy also a free constitution and laws.

3. The following is the ellipsis of the pronoun: "I love and fear him;" that is, "I love him, and I fear him." "My house and lands;" that is, "My house, and my lands." In these instances, the ellipsis may take place with propriety; but if we would be more express and emphatical, it must not be used; as, "His friends and his foes;" "My sons and my daughters."

In some of the common forms of speech, the relative pronoun is usually omitted; as, "This is the man they love," instead of "This is the man whom they love." "These are the goods they bought," for "These are the goods which they bought."

In complex sentences, it is much better to have the relative pronoun expressed; as it is more proper to say "The posture in which I lay," than "In the posture I lay;" "The horse on which I rode, fell down," than "The horse I rode, fell down."

The antecedent and the relative connect the parts of a sentence together; and, to prevent obscurity and confusion, they should answer to each other with great exactness. "We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen." Here the ellipsis is manifestly improper, and ought to be supplied; as, "We speak that which we do know, and testify that which we have seen."

[His reputation and his estate were both lost by gaming.—This intelligence not only excited our hopes, but fears too.—His conduct is not scandalous; and that is the best can be said of it.—This was the person whom calumny had greatly abused, and sustained the injustice with singular patience.—He discovered some qualities in the youth of a disagreeable nature, and to him were wholly unaccountable.—The captain had several men died in his ship, of the scurvy.—He is not only sensible and learned, but is religious too.—The Chinese language contains an immense number of words; and who would learn them must possess a great memory.—By presumption and by vanity, we provoke enmity, and we incur contempt.—In the circumstances I was at that time, my troubles pressed heavily upon me.—He had destroyed his constitution, by the very same errors that so many have been destroyed.]

4. The ellipsis of the verb is used in the following instances: "The man was old and crafty;" that is, "The man was old, and the man was crafty." "She was young, and beautiful, and good;" that is, "She was young, she was beautiful, and she was good." "Thou art poor, and wretched, and miserable, and blind, and naked." If we would fill
up the ellipsis in the last sentence, *thou art* ought to be repeated before each of the adjectives.

If, in such enumeration, we choose to point out one property above the rest, that property must be placed last, and the ellipsis supplied; as, "She is young and beautiful, and she is good."

"I went to see and hear him;" that is, "I went to see, and I went to hear him." In this instance, there is not only an ellipsis of the governing verb, *I went*, but likewise of the sign of the infinitive mode, which is governed by it.

*Do, did, have, had, shall, will, may, might,* and the rest of the auxiliaries of the compound tenses, are frequently used alone, to spare the repetition of the verb; as, "He regards his word, but you do not;" that is, "do not regard it." "We succeeded, but they did not;" that is, "did not succeed." "I have learned my task, but you have not;" "have not learned." "They must, and they shall be punished;" that is, "they must be punished."

[He is temperate, he is disinterested, he is benevolent; he is an ornament to his family, and a credit to his profession.—Genuine virtue supposes our benevolence to be strengthened, and to be confirmed by principle.—The sacrifices of virtue will not only be rewarded hereafter, but recompensed even in this life.—All those possessed of any office, resigned their former commission.—Perseverance in laudable pursuits will reward all our toils, and will produce effects beyond our calculation.—It is happy for us, when we can calmly and deliberately look back on the past, and can quietly anticipate the future.—If young persons were determined to conduct themselves by the rules of virtue, not only would they escape innumerable dangers, but command respect from the licentious themselves.—Charles was a man of learning, knowledge, and benevolence, and, what is still more, a true Christian.]

5. The ellipsis of the *adverb* is used in the following manner: "He spoke and acted wisely;" that is, "He spoke wisely, and he acted wisely." "Thrice I went and offered my service;" that is, "Thrice I went, and thrice I offered my service."

[The temper of him who is always in the bustle of the world, will be often ruffled, and be often disturbed.—We often commend imprudently, as well as censure imprudently.—How a seed grows up into a tree, and the mind acts upon the body, are mysteries which we cannot explain.—Verily there is a reward for the righteous! there is a God that judgesth in the earth.

6. 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 also went through all
ELLIPSIS OF WORDS.

The streets and lanes of the city;" that is, "through all the streets, and through all the lanes," &c. "He spoke to every man and woman there;" that is, "to every man, and to every woman." "This day, next month, last year;" that is, "On this day, in the next month, in the last year." "The Lord do that which seemeth him good;" that is, "which seemeth to him."

[Changes are almost continually taking place, in men and in manners, in opinions and in customs, in private fortunes and public conduct.—Averse either to contradict or blame, the too complaisant man goes along with the manners that prevail.—By this habitual indelicacy, the virgins smiled at what they blushed before.—They are now reconciled to what they could not formerly be prompted, by any considerations.—Censure is the tax which a man pays the public for being eminent.—Reflect on the state of human life, and the society of men, as mixed with good and with evil.]

7. The ellipsis of the conjunction is as follows: "They confess the power, wisdom, goodness, and love of their Creator;" that is, "the power, and wisdom, and goodness, and love of, &c. "Though I love him, I do not flatter him;" that is, "Though I love him, yet I do not flatter him."

[In all stations and conditions, the important relations take place, of masters and servants, and husbands and wives, and parents and children, and brothers and friends, and citizens and subjects.—Destitute of principle, he regarded neither his family, nor his friends, nor his reputation.—Religious persons are often unjustly represented as persons of romantic character, visionary notions, unacquainted with the world, unfit to live in it.—No rank, station, dignity of birth, possessions, exempt men from contributing their share to public utility.]

8. The ellipsis of the interjection is not very common; though it sometimes occurs; as, "Oh, pity and shame!" that is, "Oh, pity! oh, shame!"

[Oh, my father! Oh, my friend! how great has been my ingratitude!—Oh, piety! virtue! how insensible have I been to your charms!]

9. As the ellipsis occurs in almost every sentence in the English language, numerous examples of it might be given; but only a few more can be admitted here.

In the following instance, there is a very considerable one: "He will often argue, that if this part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from one nation; and if another, from another;" that is, "He will often argue, that if this part of our trade were well cultiva-
ted, we should gain from one nation; and if another part of our trade
were well cultivated, we should gain from another nation."

The following instances, though short, contain much of the ellipsis:
"Wo is me;" i. e. "wo is to me." "To let blood;" i. e. "to let out
blood." "To let down;" i. e. "to let it fall or slide down." "To
walk a mile;" i. e. "to walk through the space of a mile." "To sleep
all night;" i. e. "to sleep through all the night." "To go a fishing;"
"To go a hunting;" i. e. "to go on a fishing voyage or business;"
"to go on a hunting party." "I dine at two o'clock;" i. e. "at two
of the clock." "By sea, by land, on shore;" i. e. "by the sea, by the
land, on the shore."

10. The examples that follow, are produced to show the impropri-
ety of ellipses in some particular cases. "The land was always pos-
sessed, during pleasure, by those intrusted with the command;" it
should be, "those persons intrusted;" or, "those who were intrusted."
"If he had read farther, he would have found several of his objections
might have been spared;" that is, "he would have found that several
of his objections, &c." "There is nothing men are more deficient in,
than knowing their own characters;" it ought to be, "nothing in which
men," and, "than in knowing." "I scarcely know any part of natu-
ral philosophy would yield more variety and use;" it should be, "which
would yield," &c. "In the temper of mind he was then;" that is,
"in which he then was." "The little satisfaction and consistency to
be found in most of the systems of divinity I have met with, made me
betake myself to the sole reading of the Scriptures;" it ought to be,
"which are to be found," and, "which I have met with." "He de-
sired they might go to the altar together, and jointly return their
thanks to whom only they were due;" that is, "to him to whom," &c.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

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

The first example under this rule presents a most irregular construction,
viz: "He was more beloved as Cinthio." The words more and so much are
very improperly stated as having the same regimen. In correcting such sen-
tences, it is not necessary to supply the latter ellipsis; because it cannot
lead to any discordant or improper construction, and the supply would often
be harsh or inelegant.

As this rule comprehends all the preceding rules, it may, at the first view,
appear to be too general to be useful. But, by ranging under it a number of
sentences peculiarly constructed, we shall perceive that it is calculated to
ascertain the true grammatical construction of many modes of expression,
which none of the particular rules can sufficiently explain.

'This dedication may serve for almost any book, that has, is, or shall be
published; it ought to be, 'that has been, or shall be published.' 'He was guided by interests always different, sometimes contrary to, those of the community; different from,' or, 'always different from those of the community, and sometimes contrary to them.' 'Will it be urged that these books are as old, or even older than tradition?' the words 'as old,' and 'older,' cannot have a common regimen; it should be, 'as old as tradition, or even older.' 'It requires few talents to which most men are not born, or at least may not acquire;' or, 'which, at least, they may not acquire.' 'The court of chancery frequently mitigates and breaks the teeth of the common law.' In this construction, the first verb is said to 'mitigate the teeth of the common law,' which is an evident solecism. 'Mitigates the common law, and breaks the teeth of it,' would have been grammatical.

'They presently grow into good humor and good language towards the crown; they grow into good language,' is very improper. 'There is never wanting a set of evil instruments, who, either out of mad zeal, private hatred, or filthy lucre, are always ready,' &c. We say properly, 'A man acts out of mad zeal,' or, 'out of private hatred;' but we cannot say, if we would speak English, 'he acts out of filthy lucre.' 'To double her kindness and caresses of me:' the word 'kindness requires to be followed by either 'to or 'for,' and cannot be construed with the preposition 'of.' 'Never was a man so 'teased, or suffered half the 'nessiness. As I have done this evening, the first and third clauses, namely, 'never was man so 'teased,' 'as I have done this evening,' cannot be joined without an impropriety; and to connect the second and third, the word 'that must be substituted for 'as;' or suffered half the 'nessiness that I have done;' or else, 'half so much un 'nessiness as I have suf fered.'

The first part of the following sentence abounds with adverbs, and those of a character hardly consistent with one another: 'How much soever the reformation of this degenerate age is almost utterly to be despised of, we may yet have a more comfortable prospect of future times.' The sentence would be more correct in the following form: 'Though the reformation of this degenerate age is nearly to be despised of,' &c.

'Oh! shut not up my soul with the sinners, nor my life with the bloodthirsty; in whose hands is wickedness, and their right hand is full of gifts.' As the passage introduced by the copulative conjunction and, was not intended as a continuation of the principal and independent part of the sentence, but of the dependent part, the relative whose should have been used instead of the possessive their; namely, 'and whose right hand is full of gifts.'

'Eye hath not seen, neither have entered into the heart of man, the things which God hath prepared for them that love him.' There seems to be an impropriety in this instance, in which the same noun serves in a double capacity, performing at the same time the offices both of the nominative and objective cases. 'Neither hath it entered into the heart of man to conceive the things,' &c. would have been regular.

'We have the power of retaining, altering and compounding those images which we have once received, into all the varieties of picture and vision.' It is very proper to say, 'altering and compounding those images which we have once received, into all the varieties of picture and vision;' but we cannot with propriety say, 'retaining them into all the varieties;' and yet according to the manner in which the words are ranged, this construction is unavoidable; for retaining, altering and compounding are participles, each of which equally refers to and governs the subsequent noun, those images; and that noun, again, is necessarily connected with the following preposition, into. The construction might easily have been rectified, by disjoining the participle retaining from the other two participles, in this way: 'We have the power of retaining those images which we have once received, and of altering and compounding them into all the varieties of picture and vision;' or, perhaps, better thus: 'We have the power of retaining, altering, and compounding those images which we have once received, and of forming them into all the varieties of picture and vision.'
[Several alterations and additions have been made to the work.—The first proposal was essentially different, and inferior to the second.—He is more bold and active, but not so wise and studious as his companion.—Thou hearest the sound of the wind, but thou canst not tell whence it cometh, and whither it goeth.—Neither has he, nor any other persons, suspected so much dissimulation.—The court of France or England was to have been the umpire.—The first project was to shorten discourse, by cutting polysyllables into one.—I shall do all I can to persuade others to take the same measures for their cure which I have.—The greatest masters of critical learning differ among one another.—By intercourse with wise and experienced persons, we may improve and rub off the rust of a private and retired education.—Sincerity is as valuable, and even more valuable, than knowledge.]

CHAPTER III.

OF PUNCTUATION.*

§82. Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, for the purpose of marking the different pauses which the sense, and an accurate pronunciation require.

The following are the principal points, or marks, for this purpose: the Comma [,], the Semicolon [;], the Colon [:], the Period [.], the Dash [—], the Point of Interrogation [?], and the Point of Exclamation [!].

The Comma represents the shortest pause; the Semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the Colon, double that of the semicolon; and the Period double that of the colon.

The precise quantity or duration of each pause, cannot be defined; for it varies with the time of the whole. The same composition may be rehearsed in a quicker or slower time; but the proportion between the pauses should be ever invariable.

* Though Punctuation has, in general, been assigned a place independent of the fundamental parts of Grammar, yet its close connection with the proper structure of sentences, and its necessity for their right understanding, warrant it a situation under Syntax. Its importance certainly will allow it no humble position.
Punctuation is a modern art. The ancients were not only entirely unacquainted with it, but wrote without any distinction of members and periods, and even without distinction of words; which custom continued till some time after the birth of our Savior. How they could read their works written in this manner, it is not easy to conceive. After the practice of joining words together had ceased, notes of distinction were placed at the end of every word. This practice, with some variation, continued for considerable time. The first character, introduced for the purpose of marking pauses, was the point, or period; and this denoted pauses of different lengths, according as its position was at the bottom, middle, or top of the letter after which it followed. As it appears that the present usage of stops, did not take place, whilst manuscripts and monumental inscriptions, were the only methods of conveying knowledge, we must conclude it was introduced with the art of printing. The introduction, however, was gradual: all the points did not appear at once. The colon, semicolon, and mark of admiration, were produced sometime after the others. The whole set, as they are now used, came to be established, only when learning and refinement had made considerable progress.

The different degrees of connection between the several parts of sentences, and the different pauses in a just pronunciation, which express those degrees of connection according to their proper value, admit of great variety. When, therefore, we take into consideration the various kinds of style, the different manners of rehearsal and modes of pronunciation, it will readily be perceived that the doctrine of Punctuation must be very imperfect. Few precise rules can be given, which hold, without exception, in all cases. Much must be left to the judgment and taste of the writer. It remains, therefore, that we be content with the Rules of Punctuation, laid down with as much exactness as the nature of the subject will admit: such as may serve for general directions; to be accommodated to different occasions; and to be supplied, when deficient, by the writer’s judgment.

OF THE COMMA.

§83. The Comma usually separates those parts of a sentence, which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

Rule 1. With respect to a simple sentence, the several words of which it consists have so near a relation to each other, that in general, no points are requisite, except a full stop at the end of it; as, “The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.” “Every part of matter swarms with living creatures.”

A simple sentence, however, when it is a long one, and the nominative case is accompanied by inseparable adjuncts, may admit of a pause immediately before the verb; as, “The good taste of the present age, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language: “To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character.”
The simple sentences, or members, of a compound sentence, in general, require a comma at the end of them.

In most cases, when a short pause will give distinctness to the ideas, a comma is well placed after an important word; as, "To mourn without measure, is folly; not to mourn at all, insensibility."

**Rule II.** When the connection of the different parts of a simple sentence is interrupted by an imperfect phrase, a comma is usually introduced both at the beginning, and at the end of this phrase; as, "I remember, with gratitude, his goodness to me;" "His work is, in many respects, very imperfect. It is, therefore, not much improved." But when these interruptions are slight and unimportant, the comma is better omitted; as, "Flattery is certainly pernicious;" "There is surely a pleasure in beneficence."

In the generality of compound sentences, there is frequent occasion for commas. This will appear from the rules following.

**Rule III.** When two or more nouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, or adverbs, occur in the same construction, they are separated by commas; as, "The husband, wife, and children, suffered extremely;" "Plain, honest truth, wants no artificial covering;" "David was a brave, wise, and pious man;" "Virtue supports in adversity, moderates in prosperity;" "A man, fearing, serving, and loving his Creator;" "Success generally depends on acting prudently, steadily, and vigorously, in what we undertake."

When two words, or terms, however, are closely connected by a conjunction, they are not parted by commas; as, "Virtue and vice form a contrast to each other;" "True worth is modest and retired;" "The study of natural history expands and elevates the mind;" "By being admired and flattered, we are often corrupted;" "Some men sin deliberately and presumptuously."

The conjunction subordinative, in general, admits a comma immediately before it: "We are virtuous, or else vicious."

**Rule IV.** When two words connected have several adjuncts, a comma is inserted; as, "Honesty in his dealings, and attention to his business, procured him both esteem and wealth."

**Rule V.** When successive words are joined in pairs by conjunctions, they should be separated in pairs by the comma; as, "Interest and ambition, honor and shame, friendship and enmity, gratitude and revenge, are the prime movers of public transactions."

**Rule VI.** Adjectives and participles, when something depends on them, or when they have the import of a dependent clause, should, with their adjuncts, be separated...
from the rest of the sentence by a comma; as, "The Governor, humane to a fault, pardoned the offender;" "The king, approving the plan, put it in execution;" "All mankind compose one family, assembled under the eye of one common Father."

When an adjective or participle immediately follows its noun, and is taken in a restrictive sense, the comma should not be inserted before it; as, "On the coast averse from entrance;" "A man renowned for repartee."

RULE VII. When a conjunction is separated by a phrase or sentence from the verb to which it belongs, such intervening phrase has usually a comma at each extremity; as, "They set out early, and, before the close of the day, arrived at the destined place."

RULE VIII. Expressions in a direct address, are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "My son, give me thy heart;" "I am obliged to you, my friends, for your many favors."

RULE IX. The case absolute, and the infinitive mode absolute, are, with their adjuncts, separated by commas from the body of the sentence; as, "His father dying, he succeeded to the estate;" "At length, their ministry performed, and race well run, they left the world in peace;" "To confess the truth, I was much in fault."

RULE X. Nouns in apposition, that is, nouns added to other nouns in the same case, by way of explanation or illustration, when accompanied with adjuncts, are set off by commas; as, "Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal and knowledge;" "The butterfly, child of the summer, flutters in the sun."

But if such nouns are single, or only form a proper name, they are not divided; as, "Paul the apostle;" "The emperor Antoninus wrote an excellent book."

When, also, a pronoun is added to another word, for the sake of emphasis, it is not parted; as, "Ye men of Athens"—"I myself"—"Thou minister of wrath."

RULE XI. Prepositions and their objects, when they interrupt the connection of a simple sentence, or when they do not closely follow the words on which they depend, are generally set off by the comma; as, "Fashion is, for the most part, nothing but the ostentation of riches;" "By reading, we add the experience of others to our own."

RULE XII. Interjections are sometimes distinguished by the comma; as, "For lo, I will call all the families of the kingdoms of the north."
Rule XIII. Simple members of sentences, connected by comparatives, are for the most part distinguished by a comma; as, "As the hart panteth after the water brooks, so doth my soul pant after thee;" "Better is a dinner of herbs with love, than a stalled ox with hatred with it."

If the members in comparative sentences are short, the comma is, in general, better omitted; as, "How much better is it to get wisdom than gold!" "Mankind act oftener from caprice than reason."

Rule XIV. When words are placed in opposition to each other, or with some marked variety, they require to be distinguished by a comma; as, "Good men, in this frail, imperfect state, are often found, not only in union with, but in opposition to, the views and conduct of one another."

"Tho' deep, yet clear; tho' gentle, yet not dull; Strong, without rage; without o'erflowing, full."

Sometimes when the word with which the last preposition agrees, is single, it is better to omit the comma before it; as, "Many states were in alliance with, and under the protection of Rome."

The same rule and restrictions must be applied when two or more nouns refer to the same preposition; as, "He was composed both under the threatening, and at the approach, of a cruel and lingering death;" "He was not only the king, but the father of his people."

Rule XV. A remarkable expression, or a short observation, somewhat in the manner of a quotation, may be properly marked with a comma; as, "It hurts a man's pride to say, I do not know;" "Plutarch calls lying, the vice of slaves."

Rule XVI. Relative pronouns are connective words, and generally admit a comma before them; as, "He preach-es sublimely, who lives a sober, righteous, and pious life;" "There is no charm in the female sex, which can supply the place of virtue."

But when two members, or phrases, are closely connected by a relative, restraining the general notion of the antecedent to a particular sense, the comma should be omitted; as, "Self-denial is the sacrifice which virtue must make;" "A man who is of a detracting spirit, will misconstrue the most innocent words that can be put together." In the latter example, the assertion is not of "a man in general," but of "a man who is of a detracting spirit;" and therefore they should not be separated.

The sixteenth rule applies equally to cases in which the relative is not expressed, but understood; as, "It was from piety, warm and unaffected, that his morals derived strength;" "This sentiment, habitual and strong, influenced his whole conduct." In both these examples, the relative and verb which was, are understood.

Rule XVII. A simple sentence, or member, contained
within another, or following another, must be distinguished by the comma; as, "To improve time, whilst we are blessed with health, will smooth the bed of sickness;" "Very often, while we are complaining of the vanity, and the evils of human life, we make that vanity, and we increase the evils."

If, however, the members succeeding each other, are very closely connected, the comma is unnecessary; as, "Revelation tells us how we may attain happiness."

**Rule XVIII.** When the verb to be is followed by a verb in the infinitive mode, which by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the former is generally separated from the latter verb, by a comma; as, "The most obvious remedy is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men."

When a verb in the infinitive mode, follows its governing phrase or sentence, there should generally be a comma at the end of such phrase or sentence; as, "It ill becomes good and wise men, to oppose and degrade one another."

**Rule XIX.** When adjuncts or circumstances are of importance, and often when their natural order is inverted, a comma is properly introduced; as, "Virtue must be formed and supported, not by unfrequent acts, but by daily and repeated exertions." "Vices, like shadows, towards the evening of life, grow great and monstrous." "By threads innumerable, our interests are interwoven."

**Rule XX.** When a verb or other part of speech is understood, a comma is often properly inserted; as, "From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge." In this example, the verb "arises" is understood before curiosity and knowledge; at which words a considerable pause is necessary.

**Rule XXI.** Modifying words and phrases, as, nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now, lastly, once more, above all, on the contrary, in the next place, in short, and all other words and phrases of the same kind, must generally be separated from the context by a comma; as, "Remember thy best and first friend; formerly, the supporter of thy infancy, and the guide of thy childhood; now, the guardian of thy youth, and the hope of thy coming years." "He feared want; hence, he over-valued richesa."

"This conduct may heal the difference; nay, it may constantly prevent any in future." *Finally, I shall only repeat what has been often justly said."* "If the spring put forth no blossoms, in
summer there will be no beauty, and in autumn, no fruit; so, if youth be trifled away without improvement, riper years may be contemptible, and old age miserable.

In many of the foregoing rules and examples, great regard must be paid to the length of the clauses, and the proportion which they bear to one another. An attention to the sense of any passage, and to the clear, easy communication of it, will, it is presumed, with the aid of the preceding rules, enable the student to adjust the proper pause, and the places for inserting the commas. The same remarks apply, with like force, to the rules following.

OF THE SEMICOLON.

§84. The Semicolon is used for dividing a compound sentence into two or more parts, not so closely connected as those which are separated by the comma, nor yet so little dependent on each other, as those which are distinguished by the colon.

1. The semicolon is sometimes used, when the preceding member of the sentence does not of itself give a complete sense, but depends on the following clause: and sometimes when the sense of that member would be complete without the concluding one; as in the following instances: "As the desire of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable part of our species in every thing that is laudable; so, nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly." "Experience teaches us, that an entire retreat from worldly affairs, is not what religion requires; nor does it even enjoin a long retreat from them." "Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom."

"But all subsists by elemental strife;
And passions are the elements of life."

2. When several members of a sentence have a dependence on each other, by means of a substitute for the same principal word, and the clauses, in other respects, constitute distinct propositions, the semicolon may be used; as, "Wisdom hath built 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."

3. When the first part of a sentence, containing a complete proposition, is followed by a clause, assigning a cause, or drawing an inference, the two parts of the sentence are separated by a semicolon; as, "Love thy neighbor as thyself; for this is the law of Christ."
4. The semicolon must precede the word as, introducing an illustration, or example; if as is omitted, the colon is to be used.

OF THE COLON.

§85. The Colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon; but not so independent as to form separate distinct sentences.

The Colon may be properly applied in the three following cases.

1. When a member of a sentence is complete in itself, but followed by some supplemental remark, or further illustration of the subject; as, "Nature felt her inability to extricate herself from the consequences of guilt: the gospel reveals the plan of Divine interposition and aid." "Nature confessed some atonement to be necessary: the gospel discovers that the necessary atonement is made."

2. When several semicolons have preceded, and a still greater pause is necessary, in order to mark the connecting or concluding sentiment; as, "A divine legislator, uttering his voice from heaven; an almighty governor, stretching forth his arm to punish or reward; informing us of perpetual rest prepared hereafter for the righteous, and of indignation and wrath awaiting the wicked: these are the considerations which overawe the world, which support integrity, and check guilt."

3. The Colon is commonly used when an example, a quotation, or a speech is introduced; as, "The Scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: 'God is love.'" "He was often heard to say: 'I have done with the world, and am willing to leave it.'"

The propriety of using a colon, or semicolon, is sometimes determined by a conjunction's being expressed, or not expressed; as, "Do not flatter yourselves with the hope of perfect happiness: there is no such thing in the world." "Do not flatter yourselves with the hope of perfect happiness; for there is no such thing in the world."

OF THE PERIOD.

§86. When a sentence is complete and independent, and not connected in construction with the following sentence, it is marked with a period.

Some sentences are independent of each other, both in their sense and construction; as, "Fear God. Honor the
king. Have charity towards all men." Others are independent only in their grammatical construction; as, "The Supreme Being changes not, either in his desire to promote our happiness, or in the plan of his administration. One light always shines upon us from above. One clear and direct path is always pointed out to man."

A period may sometimes be admitted between two sentences, though they are joined by a disjunctive or copulative conjunction. For the quality of the point, does not always depend on the connective particle, but on the sense and structure of sentences; as, "Recreations, though they may be of an innocent kind, require steady government, to keep them within a due and limited province. But such as are of an irregular and vicious nature, are not to be governed, but to be banished from every well-regulated mind."

The period should be used after every abbreviated word; as, "M. S. P. S. N. B. A. D. O. S. N. S. ult. i.e. Protom. Me." §c.

OF THE DASH.

§87. The Dash, though often used improperly by hasty and incoherent writers, may be introduced with propriety, where the sentence breaks off abruptly; where a significant pause is required; or where there is an unexpected turn in the sentiment; as, "If thou art he, so much respected once—but, oh! how fallen! how degraded!" "If acting conformably to the will of our Creator;—if promoting the welfare of mankind around us;—if securing our own happiness;—are objects of the highest moment;—then we are loudly called upon, to cultivate and extend the great interests of religion and virtue."

A dash following a stop, denotes that the pause is to be greater than if the stop were alone; and when used by itself, requires a pause of such length as the sense alone can determine.

"Here lies the great—False marble, where?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here."

OF THE INTERROGATION POINT.

§88. A note of Interrogation is used at the end of an interrogative sentence; that is, when a question is asked; as, "Who will accompany me?" "Shall we always be friends?"

Questions which a person asks himself in contemplation, ought to be terminated by points of interrogation; as, "Who adorned the heavens with such exquisite beauty?" "At whose command do the planets perform their constant revolution?"

A point of interrogation is improper after sentences which are not questions, but only expressions of admiration, or of some other emo-
tion; as, "How many instances have we of chastity and excellence in the fair sex!"

A note of interrogation should not be employed, in cases where it is only said a question has been asked, and where the words are not used as a question: "The Cyprians asked me, why I wept." To give this sentence the interrogative form, it should be expressed thus: "The Cyprians said to me, Why dost thou weep?"

OF THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

§89. The note of Exclamation is applied to expressions of sudden emotion, surprise, joy, grief, &c., and also to invocations or addresses; as, "My friend! this conduct amazes me!" "Bless the Lord, O my soul! and forget not all his benefits!"

"Oh! had we both our humble state maintain'd,
And safe in peace and poverty remain'd!"

"Here me, O Lord! for thy loving kindness is great!"

As a sign of great wonder, the exclamation point may be repeated; as, "What! abandon your friends, and then your God!"

It is difficult, in some cases, to distinguish between an interrogative and exclamatory sentence; but a sentence, in which any wonder or admiration is expressed, and no answer either expected or implied, may always be properly terminated by a note of exclamation; as, "How much vanity in the pursuits of men!" "Who can sufficiently express the goodness of our Creator!" "What is more amiable than virtue!"

The interrogation and exclamation points are indeterminate as to their quantity or time, and may be equivalent, in that respect, to a semicolon, a colon, or a period, as the sense may require. They often mark an elevation of the voice.

The utility of the points of Interrogation and Exclamation, appears from the following example, in which the meaning is signified and discriminated solely by the points.

"How great was the sacrifice!"
"How great was the sacrifice?"

OF OTHER MARKS.

§90. There are other characters, which are frequently made use of in written composition for various purposes. They are the following:

1. [ ( ) ] The Parenthesis is a mark containing some necessary information, or useful remark, introduced into the body of a sentence obliquely, and which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction; as,

"Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,) Virtue alone is happiness below."

"To gain a posthumous reputation, is to save four or five letters (for what is a name besides?) from oblivion." "Know
ye not, brethren, (for I speak to those that know the law,) how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth?"

If the incidental clause is short, or perfectly coincides with the rest of the sentence, it is not proper to use the parenthetical characters. The following instances are therefore improper uses of the parenthesis: "Speak you (who saw) his wonders in the deep." "Every planet (as the Creator has made nothing in vain) is most probably inhabited."
The parenthesis marks a moderate depression of the voice, and may be accompanied with every point which the sense would require, if the parenthetical characters were omitted. It ought to terminate with the same kind of stop which the member has, that precedes it; and to contain that stop within the parenthetical marks. We must, however, except cases of interrogation and exclamation; as, "While they wish to please, (and why should they not wish it?) they disdain dishonorable means." "It was represented by an analogy, (Oh, how inadequate!) which was borrowed from paganism."

2. [ ' ] The Apostrophe shows that a word or words are abbreviated, or shortened; and is placed over where the letters are omitted; as, 'tis for it is; tho' for though; e'en for even; judg'd for judged. Its chief use is to mark the possessive case of nouns; as, "A man's property; a woman's ornament." In this use it shows the omission of i; the ancient Saxon termination for the possessive being is.

3. [ - ] The Hyphen is employed in connecting compounded words; as, lap-dog, tea-pot, pre-existence, self-love, to-morrow, mother-in-law.

It is also used when a word is divided, and the former part is written or printed at the end of one line, and the latter part at the beginning of another. In this case, it is placed at the end of the first line, not at the beginning of the second.

4. [ ... ] The Dieresis consists of two points placed over one of the two vowels that would otherwise make a diphthong, and divides them into two syllables; as,creator, coadjutor, aerial.

5. [ ' ] The Acute Accent is used to mark the syllable which requires the principal stress in pronunciation; as, fancy, equity. It is sometimes used in opposition to the grave accent, to distinguish a close vowel, or to denote the rising inflection of the voice.

6. [ ' ] The Grave Accent is used in opposition to the acute, to distinguish an open vowel, or to denote the falling inflection.

The stress is laid on long and short syllables indiscriminately. In order to distinguish the one from the other, some writers of dictiona-
PUNCTUATION—CIRCUMFLEX, &c. 155

ries have placed the grave on the former, and the acute on the latter, in this manner: "Minór, mineral, lively, livid, rival, river."

7. [⁰] The Circumflex generally denotes the broad sound of a vowel; as, eclá, fáther.

8. [ ] The Macron is used to distinguish a long syllable; as, rósy.

9. [ɔ] The Breve distinguishes a short syllable; as, sóly.

10. [⁰] The Caret is placed where some words or letters have been omitted, which are inserted over the line.

11. [——] or [****] The Ellipsis denotes the intentional omission of some words or letters; as, k—g, for king.

12. [—] The Brace serves to unite a triplet; or to connect several terms with something to which they are all related.

13. [§] The Section marks the smaller divisions of a discourse, or chapter.

14. [Π] The Paragraph denotes the beginning of a new subject, or a sentence not connected with the foregoing. This character is chiefly used in the Old, and New Testaments.

15. [""] The Quotation distinguishes words that are taken from another author, or speaker; as, "The proper study of mankind is man."

A quotation within a quotation is marked with single points; which, when both are employed, are placed within the others.

16. [()] Crochets or Brackets serve to enclose a word or sentence, which is to be explained in a note, or the explanation itself, or a word or sentence which is intended to supply some deficiency, or to rectify some mistake.

17. [§] The Index or Hand points out some remarkable passage, or something that requires particular attention.

18. [*] The Asterisk, [†] the Obelisk, [††] the Double Dagger, [||] and the Parallels; together with the letters of the alphabet and figures, are used as references to the margin, or bottom of the page.

RULES RESPECTING THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

§91. It was the custom, until the middle of the last century, as may be seen by reference to old books, to begin every noun with a capital;* but as this practice was troublesome, and gave the writing a crowded and confused appear-

*See §55.
ance, it has been discontinued. It is proper now to begin
with a capital,—

I. All proper names; as,

1. Names of persons, tribes and nations; as, William,
Henry, Creeks, Germans, French.

2. Names of natural and political divisions, in Geogra-
phy; as, America, Africa, Pacific, Scotland, United States,
Vermont, Coos, Paris, Andes, Borneo.

3. Names of religious denominations, and of assemblies
in general; as, Episcopalians, Congregationalists, Method-
ists, Parliament, Congress.

4. Names of colleges, books, languages, arts and scienc-
es; as, Oxford, Dartmouth, Bible, Iliad, Paradise Lost,
Latin, English, Mathematics, Geology.

5. Names of months and days, titles of officers, and names
of orders and classes in animals and plants; as, May, Fri-
day, King, General, Bishop, Chief Justice.

6. Names and titles of the Supreme Being and our Sav-
or; as, God, Jehovah, Lord, Christ, Redeemer; also names
of religions; as, Christianity, Mahomedanism.

II. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places;
as, Grecian, Roman, English, French, and Italian.

III. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a
colon, or when it is in direct form; as, Always remember
this ancient maxim: "Know thyself." Our great Law-
giver says, "Take up thy cross daily, and follow me." But
not when a quotation is brought in obliquely after a comma;
as, Solomon observes, "that pride goes before destruction."
The first word of an example may also very properly begin
with a capital; as, "Temptation proves our virtue."

IV. The first word after a period; and, if the two sen-
tences are totally independent, after a note of interrogation
or exclamation.

But if a number of interrogative or exclamatory sentences are thrown
into one general group; or if the construction of the latter sentences
depends on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with
a small letter; as, "How long, ye simple ones, will ye love simplicit-
ty? and the scorner delight in their scorning? and fools hate knowl-
edge?" "Alas! how different! yet how like the same!"

V. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note,
or any other piece of writing.

VI. The first word of every line of poetry.
VII. The pronoun I, and the interjection O, are written in capitals; as, "I write;" "Hear, O earth!"

Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

EXERCISE ON PUNCTUATION.

[The student is required to punctuate the following sentences in accordance with the foregoing rules; and also to tell where there should be capital letters, and where they are used erroneously.]

When Socrates was asked what man approached the nearest to perfect happiness he Answered that Man who has the fewest Wants. Addison has remarked with equal Piety and Truth that the Creation is a perpetual Feast to the Mind of a good man.

between Fame and true Honor a Distinction is to be made the former; is a loud and noisy Applause the latter a more silent and internal Homage. Fame floats on the Breath of the Multitude Honors rests on the Judgement of the Thinking Fame may give Praise while it withholds Esteem true Honor implies Esteem mingled with respect. The one regards Particular distinguished Talents the other looks up to the whole character.

Xenophon was reproached with being timorous because he would not venture his money in a Game at Dice made this manly and sensible Reply I confess I am exceedingly timorous for I dare not Commit an evil Action.

He loves nobly I speak of Friendship who is not jealous when he has Partners of love.

Let me repeat it He only is great who has the Habits of Greatness.

The proper and rational Conduct of Men with regard to Futurity is regulated by two Absolutely Unknown Next that there are also Some Events in it which may be certainly known and foreseen.

how many Rules and maxims of Life might be spared could we fix a principle of Virtue within and inscribe the living Sentiment of the Love of God in the affections he who loves righteousness is Master of all the distinctions in Morality.

Anxiety is the poison of Human Life it is the Parent of many Sins and of more Miseries in a World where every thing is so doubtful where we may succeed in our Wish be miserable where we may be disappointed and be blessed in the Disappointment what mean this restless Stir and Commotion of Mind Can our Solicitude alter the Course or unravel the Intricacy of Human Events Can our Curiosity pierce through the Cloud which the Supreme Being hath made impenetrable to Mortal Eye.

By the unhappy Excesses of Irregular Pleasure in Youth how many amiable Dispositions are corrupted or destroyed how many rising Capacities and Powers are suppressed How many flattering Hopes of Parents and Friends are totally extinguished who but must drop a Tear over Human Nature When he beholds that Morning which arose so bright overcast with such untimely Darkness that Sweetness of Temper which once engaged many Hearts that Modesty which was so prepossessing those Abilities which promised extensive Usefulness all sacrificed at the shrine of low Sensuality.

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PART IV.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of Pronunciation, or Utterance, and Versification.

CHAPTER I.

OF PRONUNCIATION.

§92. Pronunciation comprises Accent, Quantity, Emphasis, Tone, and Pause.

OF ACCENT.

§93. Accent is the laying of a peculiar stress of voice, on a certain letter or syllable in a word, that it may be better heard than the rest, or distinguished from them; as, in the word presume, the stress of voice must be on the letter u, and second syllable, sume, which take the accent.

As words may be formed of a different number of syllables, from one to eight or nine, it is necessary to have some peculiar mark to distinguish them from mere syllables; otherwise speech would be only a continued succession of syllables, without conveying ideas; for, as words are the marks of ideas, any confusion in the marks, must cause the same in the ideas for which they stand. It is, therefore, necessary that the mind should at once perceive what number of syllables belongs to each word, in utterance. This might be done by a perceptible pause at the end of each word in speaking, as we form a certain distance between them in writing and printing. But this would make discourse extremely tedious; and though it might render words distinct, would make the meaning of sentences confused. Syllables might also be sufficiently distinguished by a certain elevation or depression of voice upon one syllable of each word, which was anciently the practice with some nations. But the English tongue has, for this purpose, adopted a mark of the easiest and simplest kind, which is called accent, and which effectually answers the end.

Every word in our language, of more than one syllable, has one of them distinguished from the rest in this manner; and some writers assert, that every monosyllable of two or more letters, has one of its letters thus distinguished.

Accent is either principal or secondary. The principal accent is that which necessarily distinguishes one syllable in a word from the rest. The secondary accent is that stress which we may occasionally place upon another syllable, besides that which has the principal accent; in order to pronounce every part of the word more distinctly, forcibly, and harmoniously:
thus, complaisant, caravan, and violin, have frequently an accent on the first as well as on the last syllable, though a somewhat less forcible one. The same may be observed of repartee, referee, privateer, domineer, &c. But it must be observed, that though an accent is allowed on the first syllable of these words, it is by no means necessary: they may all be pronounced with one accent, and that on the last syllable, without the least deviation from propriety.

**OF QUANTITY.**

§ 94. The quantity of a syllable is that time which is occupied in pronouncing it. It is considered as long or short.

A vowel or syllable is long, when the accent is on the vowel; which occasions it to be slowly joined in pronunciation with the following letters; as, full, bale, mood, house, feature.

A syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant; which occasions the vowel to be quickly joined to the succeeding letter; as, ant, bonnet, hungir.

A long syllable generally requires double the time of a short one in pronouncing it; thus, mäte and nöte should be pronounced as slowly again as mät and nöt.

Unaccented syllables are generally short; as, admite, boldness, sinär. But to this rule there are many exceptions; as, alsö, exile, gangrene, umpire, &c.

When the accent is on a consonant, the syllable is often more or less short, as it ends with a single consonant, or with more than one; as, adly, robber; persist, matheless.

When the accent is on a semi-vowel, the time of the syllable may be protracted, by dwelling upon the semi-vowel: as, cur', can', fulfill; but when the accent falls on a mute, the syllable cannot be lengthened in the same manner; as, bubble, captain, totter.

**OF EMPHASIS.**

§ 95. By emphasis is meant a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word or words in a sentence from the rest, on account of their importance. Sometimes the emphatic words must be distinguished by a particular tone of voice, as well as by a greater stress.

On the right management of the emphasis depends the life of pronunciation. If no emphasis be placed on any words, not only will discourse be rendered heavy and lifeless, but the meaning often left ambiguous. If the emphasis be placed wrong, we shall pervert and confound the meaning wholly. To give a common instance: such a simple question as this, "Do you ride to town to day?" is capable of no fewer than four different acceptations, according as the emphasis is differently placed on the words. If it be pronounced thus: 'Do you ride to town to day?' the answer would naturally be, 'No, we send a servant in our stead.' If thus: 'Do you ride to town to day?' answer, 'No, we intend to walk.' 'Do you ride to town to day?' 'No, we ride into the country.' 'Do you ride to town to day?' 'No, but we shall tomorrow.' In like manner, in solemn discourse, the whole force and beauty of an expression often depend on the emphatic word; and we may present to the hearers quite different views of the same sentiment, by placing the emphasis differently. In the following words of our Savior, observe in what different lights the thought is placed, according as the words are pronounced.

'Judas, betrayest thou the son of man with a kiss?' 'Betrayest thou,' makes the reproach turn on the infamy of treachery. 'Betrayest thou,' makes it cast upon Judas's connexion with his master. 'Betrayest thou the son of man.'
rests it upon our Savior's personal character and eminence, 'Betrayest thou the son of man with a kiss?' turns it upon his prostituting the signal of peace and friendship to the purpose of destruction. Or take again, our Savior's words to the disciples on their way to Emmaus; "O fools, and slow of heart to believe all that the Prophets have spoken!" (Luke XXIV. 25.) As the emphasis is placed on the word slow or all, our Lord is made to blame them for believing, or for not believing all that the Prophets had spoken.

The emphasis often lies on the word that asks a question; as, 'Who said so?' 'When will be come?' 'What shall I do?' 'Whither shall I go?' 'Why dost thou weep?' And when two words are set in contrast, or in opposition to one another, they are both emphatic; as, 'He is the tyrant, not the father, of the people;' 'His subjects fear him, but they do not love him.'

Some sentences are so full and comprehensive, that almost every word is emphatical; as, 'Ye hills and dales, ye rivers, woods and plains;' or, as that pathetic expostulation in the prophecy of Ezekiel, 'Why wilt ye die!' In the latter short sentence, every word is emphatical; and on whichever word we lay the emphasis, whether on the first, second, third or fourth, it strikes out a different sense, and opens a new subject of moving expostulation.

As accent dignifies the syllable on which it is laid, and makes it more distinguished by the ear than the rest; so emphasis ennobles the word to which it belongs, and presents it in a stronger light to the understanding. Were there no accents, words would be resolved into their original syllables; were there no emphasis, sentences would be resolved into their original words; and, in this case, the hearer would be under the painful necessity, first, of making out the words, and afterwards, their meaning.

OF TONES.

§96. Tones are those modulations of the voice, depending upon the feelings of the speaker, which are employed in the expression of our sentiments.

To show the use and necessity of tones, we need only observe, that the mind, in communicating its ideas, is in a continual state of activity, emotion, or agitation, from the different effects which those ideas produce in the speaker. Now the end of such communication being, not merely to lay open the ideas, but also the different feelings which they excite in him who utters them, there must be other signs than words, to manifest those feelings; as words uttered in a monotonous manner, can represent only a similar state of mind, perfectly free from all activity or emotion. As the communication of these internal feelings, was of much more consequence in our social intercourse, than the mere conveyance of ideas, the Author of our being did not, as in that conveyance, leave the invention of the language of emotion, to man; but impressed it upon our nature in the same manner as he has done with regard to the rest of the animal world; all of which express their various feelings, by various tones. Ours indeed, from the superior rank that we hold, are in a high degree more comprehensive; as there is not an act of the mind, an exertion of the fancy, or an emotion of the heart, which has not its peculiar tone, or note of the voice, by which it is to be expressed; and which is suited exactly to the degree of internal feeling. It is chiefly in the proper use of these tones, that the life, spirit, beauty and harmony of delivery consist.

An extract from the beautiful lamentation of David over Saul and Jonathan, may serve as an example of what has been said on this subject. 'The beauty of Israel is slain upon thy high places. How are the mighty fallen! Tell it not in Gath; publish it not in the streets of Askelon; lest the daughters of the Philistines rejoice; lest the daughters of the uncircumcised triumph. Ye mountains of Gilboa, let there be no dew, nor rain upon you, nor fields of offerings; for there the shield of the mighty was vilely cast away; the shield of Saul, as though he had not been appointed with oil!' The first of these divisions expresses sorrow and lamentation; therefore the note is low. The next contains a spirited command, and should be pronounced
much higher. The other sentence, in which he makes a pathetic address to the mountains where his friends were slain, must be expressed in a note quite different from the two former; not so low as the first, nor so high as the second; in a manly, firm, and yet plaintive tone.

This correct and natural language of the emotions, is not so difficult to be attained, as most readers seem to imagine. If we enter into the spirit of the author’s sentiments, as well as into the meaning of his words, we shall not fail to deliver the words in properly varied tones. For there are few people, who speak English without a provincial tone, that have not an accurate use of emphasis, pauses and tones, when they utter their sentiments in earnest discourse; and the reason that they have not the same use of them, in reading aloud the sentiments of others, may be traced to the very defective and erroneous method, in which the art of reading is taught; whereby all the various, natural, expressive tones of speech, are suppressed, and a few artificial, unmoving, reading notes, are substituted for them.

But when we recommend to readers an attention to the tone and language of emotions, we must be understood to do it with proper limitation. Moderation is necessary in this point, as it is in other things.

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

Pauses are equally necessary to the speaker, and the hearer. To the speaker, that he may take breath, without which he cannot proceed far in delivery; and that he may, by these temporary rests, relieve the organs of speech, which otherwise would soon be tired by continued motion: to the hearer, that the ear also may be relieved from the fatigue, which it would otherwise endure from a continuity of sound; and that the understanding may have sufficient time to mark the distinction of sentences, and their several members.

There are two kinds of pauses; first, emphatic pauses; and next, such as mark the distinctions of the sense. An emphatic pause is made after something has been said of peculiar moment, on which we desire to fix the hearer’s attention. Sometimes, before such a thing is said, we usher it in with a pause of this nature. Such pauses have the same effect as a strong emphasis; and are subject to the same rules; especially to the caution just now given, of not repeating them too frequently. For as they excite uncommon attention, and of course raise expectation, if the importance of the matter is not fully answerable to such expectation, they occasion disappointment and disgust.

But the most frequent and the principal use of pauses, is, to mark the divisions of the sense, and at the same time to allow the speaker to draw his breath; and the proper and delicate adjustment of such pauses, is one of the most nice and difficult articles of delivery. In all reading, and public speaking, the management of the breath requires a good deal of care, so as not to oblige us to divide from one another, words which have so intimate a connexion, that they ought to be pronounced with the same breath, and without the least separation. Many sentences are miserably mangled, and the force of the emphasis totally lost, by the divisions being made in the wrong place. To avoid this, every one, while he is speaking or reading, should be very careful to provide a full supply of breath for what he has to utter. It is a great mistake to imagine, that the breath must be drawn only at the end of a period, when the voice is allowed to fall. It may easily be gathered at the intervals of the period, when the voice is only suspended for a moment; and, by this management, one may always have a sufficient stock for carrying out the longest sentence, without improper interruptions.

Pauses in reading, and public discourse, must be formed upon the manner in which we utter ourselves in ordinary sensible conversation; and not upon
the stiff, artificial manner which we acquire, from reading books according to the common punctuation. It will by no means be sufficient to attend to the points used in printing; for these are far from marking all the pauses which ought to be made in speaking. A mechanical attention to these resting-places has perhaps been one cause of monotony, by leading the reader to a similar tone at every stop, and a uniform cadence at every period. The primary use of points is, to assist the reader in discerning the grammatical construction; and it is only as a secondary object, that they regulate his pronunciation.

To render pauses pleasing and expressive, they must not only be made in the right place, but also accompanied with a proper tone of voice, by which the nature of these pauses is limited much more than by their length, which can seldom be exactly measured. Sometimes only a slight and simple suspension of voice is proper; sometimes a degree of cadence in the voice is required; and sometimes that peculiar tone and cadence which denote the sentence to be finished. In all these cases, we are to regulate ourselves, by attending to the manner in which nature teaches us to speak, when engaged in real and earnest discourse with others.

It is a general rule, that the suspending pause should be used when the sense is incomplete; and the closing pause, when it is finished. But there are phrases, in which, though the sense is not completed, the voice takes the closing rather than the suspending pause; and others, in which the sentence finishes by the pause of suspension.

The closing pause must not be confounded with that fall of the voice, or cadence, with which many readers uniformly finish a sentence. Nothing is more destructive of propriety and energy than this habit. The tones and inflections of the voice at the close of a sentence, ought to be diversified, according to the general nature of the discourse, and the particular construction and meaning of the sentence. In plain narrative, and especially in argumentation, a small attention to the manner in which we relate a fact, or maintain an argument, in conversation, will show, that it is frequently more proper to raise the voice, than to let it fall, at the end of a sentence. Some sentences are so constructed, that the last words require a stronger emphasis than any of the preceding; while others admit of being closed with a soft and gentle sound. Where there is nothing in the sense which requires the last sound to be elevated or emphatic, an easy fall, sufficient to show that the sense is finished, will be proper. And in pathetic pieces, especially those of the plaintive tender, or solemn kind, the tone of the passion will often require a still greater cadence of the voice. The best method of correcting a uniform cadence, is frequently to read select sentences, in which the style is pointed, and in which antitheses are frequently introduced; and argumentative pieces, or such as abound with interrogatives, or earnest exclamation.

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CHAPTER II.

OF VERSIFICATION.

§98. Versification is the art of composing poetic verse, and consists in adjusting the long and short syllables, and forming feet into harmonious measure.

The constituent parts of verse are Feet, Pauses and Expression. Rhyme is the correspondence of the last sound of one line to the last sound of another.

Blank verse wants rhyme.
VERSIFICATION—POETICAL FEET.

§ 99. A certain number of syllables connected, form a foot.

They are called feet, because it is by their aid that the voice, as it were, steps through the verse, in a measured pace; and it is necessary that the syllables which mark this regular movement of the voice, should, in some manner, be distinguished from the others.

All feet used in poetry consist either of two, or three syllables; and are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dissyllable</th>
<th>Trissyllable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An Iambus</td>
<td>An Amphibrach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Trochee</td>
<td>A Tribach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Spondee</td>
<td>A Dactyl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Pyrrhic</td>
<td>An Anapest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I. An Iambic foot, which is the ground of English numbers, consists of two syllables, the first short and the second long. This foot is admitted into every place of the line. Example, all Iambics.

"Wheres slaves once more their native land behold,
No fiends torment, no Christiuns thirst for gold."—Pope.

II. The Trochee is a foot consisting of two syllables, the first long and the second short. Example.

"Warms in the sun, refreshes in the breeze,
Glores in the stars, and blossoms in the trees."—Pope.

The Trochee is not admissible into the second place of the line; but in the third and fourth it may have beauty, when it creates a correspondence between the sound and sense.

"Eve, rightly call’d mother of all mankind."
"Aud staggered by the stroke, drops the large ox."

III. The Spondee is a foot consisting of two long syllables. This may be used in any place of the line.

1. "Good life be now my task, my doubts are done."—Dryden.
2. "As some lone mountain’s monstrous growth he stood."—Pope.

But it has a greater beauty when preceded by a Trochee.

"Load the tall bark and launch into the main."

3. "The mountain goats came bounding o’er the lawn."
4. "He spoke, and speaking in proud triumph spread,
The long-contended honors of her head."—Pope.
5. "Singed are his brows, the scorching lids grow black."—Pope.

IV. The Pyrrhic is a foot of two short syllables; it is graceful in the first and fourth places, and is admissible into the second and third.

1. "Nor in the helpless orphan dread a foe."—Pope.
3. "The two extremes appear like man and wife, coupled together for the sake of strife."—Churchill.

*The rules for the composition of English verse contained in this chapter, are copied from Webster’s Manual. "They are drawn," says Dr. Webster, "from the writings of Dryden, Pope, and other great masters of poetry, chiefly by the late Judge Trumbull, of Connecticut, who was, probably, the most accurate critic, in this department of literature, which the present age has produced."
But this foot is most graceful in the fourth place.

"The dying gales that pant upon the trees."

"To farthest shores the ambrosial spirit flies,
Sweet to the world and grateful to the skies."

V. The Amphibrach is a foot of three syllables, the first and third short, and the second long. It is used in heroic verse only when we take the liberty to add a short syllable to a line.

"The piece you say is incorrect, why take it,
I'm all submission, what you'd have it, make it."

This foot is hardly admissible in the solemn or sublime style. Pope has indeed admitted it into his Essay on Man.

"What can ennable sors or slaves or cowards,
Alas! not all the blood of all the Howards."

Again:

"To sigh for ribbands, if thou art so silly,
Mark how they grace Lord Umbra or Sir Billy."

But these lines are of the high burlesque kind, and in this style the Amphibrach closes lines with great beauty.

VI. The Tribrach is a foot of three syllables, all short; and it may be used in the third and fourth places.

"And rolls impetiuous to the plain."

Or thus:

"And thunder down impetiuous to the plain."

VII. The Dactyl, a foot of three syllables, the first long and the last two short, is used principally in the first place of the line.

"Furious he spoke, the angry chief replied."

"Murmuring, and with him fled the shades of night."

VIII. The Anapest, a foot consisting of three syllables, the first two short and the last long, is admissible into every place of the line.

"Cân à bò-tham sô gëntë rëmán,
Unmoved when her Córydun sighs;
Will a nymph that is fond of the plains,
These plains and these valleys despise!
Dear regions of silence and shade,
Soft scenes of contentment and ease,
Where I could have pleasantly stay'd,
If sought in her absence could please."

Trisyllabic feet have suffered most by the general ignorance of critics; most of them have been mutilated by apostrophes, in order to reduce them to the Iambic measure.

Thus in the line before repeated,

"Murmuring, and with him fled the shades of night,"

we find the word in the copy reduced to two syllables, murm'ring; and the beauty of the Dactyl is destroyed.

Thus in the following:

"On every side with shadowy squadrons deep,"

by apostrophizing every and shadowy, the line loses its harmony.—

The same remark applies to the following:

"And hosts infinite shake the shudd'ring plain."

"But fashion so directs, and moderns raise
On fashion's mold'ring base, their transient praise."—Churchill.
Poetic lines which abound with these trisyllabic feet, are the most
flowing and melodious of any in the language; and yet the poets them-
selves, or their printers, murder them with numberless unnecessary
contractions.

It requires but little judgment, and an ear indifferently accurate, to
distinguish the contractions which are necessary, from those which
are needless and injurious to the versification. In the following pas-
sage we find examples of both.

"She went from op'ra, park, assembly, play,
To morning walks and prayers, three times a day;
To pass her time 'twixt reading and bobeo
To muse and spill her solitary tea;
Or o'er cold coffee tripe with a spoon,
Count the slow clock, and dine exact at noon;
Divert her eyes with pictures in the fire,
Ham half a tune, tell stories to the 'quire;
Up to her godly gutter after sev'n,
There starve and pray, for that's the way to heav'n."—Pope's Epistles.

Here e in opera ought not to be apostrophized, for such a contrac-
tion reduces an Amphibrachic foot to an Iambic. The words prayers,
seven and heaven, need not the apostrophe of e; for it makes no dif-
ference in the pronunciation. But the contraction of over and betwixt is
necessary; for without it the measure would be imperfect.

OF POETICAL PAUSES.

§100.Pauses are of two kinds, viz:—the cesural pause, which
divides the line into two equal or unequal parts; and final pause,
which closes the verse. These pauses are called musical, because
their sole end is melody of verse.

The pauses which mark the sense, and for this reason are denomi-
nated sentential, are the same in verse as in prose. They are marked
by the usual stops, a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a period, as the
sense requires, and need no particular explanation.

The cesural pause is not essential to verse, for the shorter kinds of
measure are without it; but it improves both the melody and the
harmony.

Melody in music is derived from a succession of sounds: harmony
from different sounds in concord. A single voice can produce melody;
a union of voices is necessary to form harmony. In this sense harmo-
ny cannot be applied to verse, because poetry is recited by a single
voice. But harmony may be used in a figurative sense, to express the
effect produced by observing the proportion which the members of
verse bear to each other.

The cesural pause may be placed in any part of the verse; but has
the finest effect upon the melody, when placed after the second or
third foot, or in the middle of the third.

After the second:

"In what retreat, inglorious and unknown,
Did genius sleep when dullness seiz'd the throne."

After the third:

"O say what stranger cause, yet unexplored,
Could make a gentle belle reject a lord?"

In the middle of the third:

"Great are his perils, in this stormy time,
Who rashly ventures on a sea of rhyme."
In these examples we find a great degree of melody, but not the same degree in all. In comparing the divisions of verse, we experience the most pleasure in viewing those which are equal: hence, those verses which have the pause in the middle of the third foot, which is the middle of the verse, are the most melodious. Such is the third example above.

In lines where the pause is placed after the second foot, we perceive a smaller degree of melody, for the divisions are not equal; one containing four syllables, the other six, as in the first example.

But the melody in this example, is much superior to that of the verses which have the cesural pause after the third foot; for this obvious reason: when the pause bounds the second foot, the latter part of the verse is the greatest, and leaves the most forcible impression upon the mind; but when the pause is at the end of the third foot, the order is reversed. We are fond of proceeding from small to great, and a climax in sound pleases the ear, in the same manner as a climax in sense delights the mind. Such is the first example.

It must be observed further, that when the cesural pause falls after the second and third feet, both the final and cesural pauses are on accented syllables; whereas, when the cesural pause falls in the middle of the third foot, this is on a weak syllable, and the final pause on an accented syllable. This variety in the latter, is another cause of the superior pleasure we derive from verses divided into equal portions.

The pause may fall in the middle of the fourth foot; as,

"Let favor speak for others, worth for me:"

but the melody, in this case, is almost lost. At the close of the first foot, the pause has a more agreeable effect.

"That's vile, should we a parent's fault adore,
And err, because our father's err'd before?"

In the middle of the second foot, the pause may be used, but it produces little melody.

"And who but wishes to invert the laws
Of order, sins against the eternal cause."

Harmony is produced by a proportion between the members of the same verse, or between the members of different verses. Example.

"Thy forests, Windsor, and thy green retreats,
At once the monarch's and the muse's seats,
Invite my lays. Be present sylvan maids,
Unlock your springs, and open all your shades."

Here we observe, the pause in the first couplet is in the middle of the third foot: both verses are in this respect similar. In the last couplet, the pause falls after the second foot. In each couplet, separately considered, there is a uniformity; but when one is compared with the other, there is a diversity. This variety produces a pleasing effect. The variety is further increased, when the first lines of several succeeding couplets are uniform as to themselves, and different from the last lines, which are also uniform as to themselves. Churchill, speaking of reason, lord chief justice in the court of man, has the following lines:

"Equally form'd to rule, in age or youth,
The friend of virtue, and the guide to truth;
To her I bow, whose sacred power I feel,
To her decision make my last appeal;
Condemn'd by her, applauding worlds in vain
Should tempt me to take up my pen again;
By her absolv'd the cause! If still pursue;
If Reason's for me, God is for me too."
VERSIFICATION—EXPRESSION.

The first line of three of these couplets, has the pause after the second foot; in this consists their similarity. The last line in three of them, has the pause in the middle of the third foot: they are uniform as to themselves, but different from the foregoing lines. This passage, which on the whole is very beautiful, suffers much by the sixth line, which is not verse, but rather hobbling prose.

The foregoing remarks are sufficient to illustrate the use and advantages of the cesural pause.

The final pause marks the close of a line or verse, whether there is a pause in the sense or not. Sentential pauses should be marked by a variation of tone; but the final pause, when the close of one line is intimately connected with the beginning of the next, should be merely a suspension of the voice, without elevation or suppression. Thus:

"Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe," &c.

When these lines are read without a pause after the words fruit and taste, they degenerate into prose. Indeed, in many instances, particularly in blank verse, the final pause is the only circumstance which distinguishes verse from prose.

§ 101. Expression consists in such a choice and distribution of poetic feet as are best adapted to the subject, and best calculated to impress sentiments on the mind. Those poetic feet, which end in an accented syllable, are the most forcible. Hence the iambic measure is best adapted to solemn and sublime subjects. This is the measure of the Epic, of poems on grave moral subjects, of elegies, &c. The Spondees, a foot of two long syllables, when admitted into the iambic measure, adds much to the solemnity of the movement.

"While the clear sun, rejoicing still to rise,
In pomp rolls round immeasurable skies."—Dwight.

The Dactyl, rolls round, expresses beautifully the majesty of the sun in his course.

It is a general rule, that the more important syllables there are in a passage, whether of prose or verse, the more heavy is the style.—For example:

"A past, vamp'd, future, old, reviv'd new piece."

"Men bearded, bald, cow'ld, uncow'ld, shod, unshe'd."

Such lines are destitute of melody, and are admissible only when they suit the sound to the sense. In the high burlesk style, of which kind is Pope's Dunciad, they give the sentiment an ironical air of importance, and from this circumstance derive a beauty. On the other hand, a large proportion of unaccented syllables or particles, deprives language of energy; and it is this circumstance principally which in prose constitutes the difference between the grave historical, and the familiar style. The greatest number of long syllables ever admitted into heroic verse, is seven, as in the foregoing: the smallest number is three.

"Or to a sad variety of woe."

The Trochilic measure, in which every foot closes with a weak syllable, is well calculated for lively subjects.

"Softly sweet in Lydian measures,
Soon he sooth'd his soul to pleasures;"
War, be sung, is toil and trouble,
Honor but an empty bubble." 6c.

The Anapestic measure, in which there are two short syllables to one long, is best adapted to express the impetuosity of passion or action. Shenstone has used it to great advantage in his inimitable pastoral ballad. It describes beautifully the strong and lively emotions which agitate the lover, and his anxiety to please, which continually hurry him from one object and one exertion to another.

"I have found out a gift for my hair,
I have found where the wood pigeons breed;
Yet let me that plunder forbear,
She will say 'twas a barbarous deed.
For he ne'er could prove true, she aver'd,
Who could rob a poor bird of her young?
And I lov'd her the more when I heard
Such tenderness fall from her tongue."

The Amphibrachic measure, in which there is a long syllable between two short ones, is best adapted to lively comic subjects; as in Addison's Rosamond.

"Since conjugal passion
Has come into fashion,
And marriage so blest on the throne is,
Like Venus I'll shine,
Be fond and be fine,
And Sir Tristram shall be my Adonis."

Such a measure gives to sentiment a ludicrous air, and consequently is ill adapted to serious subjects.

Great art may be used by a poet in choosing words and feet adapted to his subject. Take the following specimen:

"Now here, now there, the warriors fall; amain
Grous'murmur, armor sounds, and shows convulses the plain."

The feet in the last line are happily chosen. The slow Spondees, in the beginning of the verse, fixes the mind upon the dismal scene of woe; the solemnity is heightened by the pauses in the middle of the second, and at the end of the third foot: but when the poet comes to shake the plains, he closes the line with three forcible lamoses.

Of a similar beauty take the following example:

"She all night long, her amorous descent sung."

The poet here designs to describe the length of the night, and the music of the nightingale's song. The first he does by two slow Spondees, and the last by four very rapid syllables.

The following lines from Gray's Elegy, written in a country churchyard, are distinguished by a happy choice of words.

"For who, to dumb forgetfulness a prey,
This pleasing anxious being e'er resigned?
Left the warm precincts of the cheerful day,
Nor cast one longing, lingering look behind?"

The words longing and lingering express most forcibly the reluctance with which mankind quit this state of existence.

Pope has many beauties of this kind.

"And grace and reason, sense and virtue split,
With all the rash dexterity of wit."

The mute articulations with which these lines end, express the idea of rendering asunder, with great energy and effect. The words rash and dexterity are also judiciously chosen.
VERSIFICATION—READING VERSE.

In describing the delicate sensations of the most refined love, Pope is remarkable for the choice of smooth flowing words. There are some passages in his Eloisa and Abelard, which are extended to a considerable length, without a single mute consonant or harsh word.

OF READING VERSE.

§ 102. With respect to the art of reading verse, we can lay down but a few simple rules; but these may perhaps be useful.

1. Words should be pronounced as in prose and in conversation; for reading is but rehearsing another's conversation.

2. The emphasis should be observed as in prose. The voice should bound from accent to accent, and no stress should be laid on little unimportant words, nor on weak syllables.

3. The sentential pauses should be observed as in prose: these are not affected by the kind of writing, being regulated entirely by the sense. But as the cesural and final pauses are designed to increase the melody of verse, the strictest attention must be paid to them in reading.—They mark a suspension of voice without rising or falling.

To read prose well, it is necessary to understand what is read; and to read poetry well, it is further necessary to understand the structure of verse. For want of this knowledge, most people read all verse like the Iambic measure. The following are pure Iambics.

"Above how high progressive life may go!
Around how wide, how deep extend below!"

It is so easy to lay an accent on every second syllable, that any school boy can read this measure with tolerable propriety. But the misfortune is, that when a habit of reading this kind of metre is once formed, persons do not vary their manner to suit other measures. Thus, in reciting the following line,

"Load the tall bark, and launch into the main;"

many people would lay the accent on every second syllable; and thus read, our poetry becomes the most monotonous and ridiculous of all poetry in the world.

Let the following line be repeated without its pauses, and it loses its principal beauty:

"Bold, as a hero, as a virgin mild."

So in the following.

"Reason, the card, but passion is the gale."
"From storms, a shelter, and from heat, a shade."

The harmony, in all these instances, is much improved by the semi-pauses, and at the same time the sense is more clearly understood.

Considering the difficulty of reading verse, it is not surprising to find but few who are proficient in this art. A knowledge of the structure of verse, of the several kinds of feet, of the nature and use of the final, the cesural, and the semi-cesural pauses, is essential to a graceful manner of reading poetry; and even this, without the best examples, will hardly effect the purpose. It is for this reason that children should not be permitted to read poetry of the more difficult kind, without the best examples for them to imitate. They frequently contract, in early life, either a monotony or a sing-song cant, which, when grown into a habit, is seldom if ever eradicated.

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APPENDIX.

ON THE SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

§ 103. A has five sounds; the long or slender, the short, the broad, the middle, and the short sound of o.

It has the long sound, as heard in name, fate; the short, as in fancy, fat; the broad, as in wall, ball; the middle, as in far, ask, father; and the short sound of o, as in what.

The diphthong as generally sounds like a short in proper names; as in Balaam, Canaan, Isaac; but not in Baal, Gaal.

As has the sound of long e. It is sometimes found in Latin words. Some authors retain this form; as, enigma, equator, &c.; but others have laid it aside, and write enigma, Cesar, Eneas, &c.

The diphthong at has exactly the long slender sound of a, as in tail, &c.; pronounced pale, tale, &c.; except plaid, Britain, and a few others.

Aus is generally sounded like the broad a; as in taught, caught, &c.

It has the sound of long e in hautboy.

Away has always the sound of broad a; as in awl, scrawl, crawl.

Ay, like its near relation, ai, is pronounced like the long slender sound of a; as in pay, day, delay.

E keeps one unvaried sound, at the beginning, middle, and end of words; as in baker, number, rhubarb, &c.

In some words it is silent; as in thumb, debtor, subtle, &c.

O has two different sounds.

A hard sound like k, before a, o, u, r, l, t; as in cart, cottage, curious, craft, tract, cloth, &c.; and when it ends a syllable; as in victim, faccid.

A soft sound like s before e, i, and y, generally; as in centre, face, civil, cymbal, mercy, &c. It has sometimes the sound of sh, as in ocean, social.

C is mute in czar, czarina, victuals, &c.

Ch is commonly sounded like tsh, as in church, chin, chaff, charter; but in words derived from the Greek, has the sound of k, as in chimist, scheme, chorus, chyle; and in foreign names, as Achish, Baruch, Enoch, &c.

Ch, in some words derived from the French, takes the sound of sh, as in chaise, chagrin, chevalier, machine.

Ch in arch, before a vowel, sounds like k, as in arch-angel, archives, Archipelago; except in arched, archery, archer, and arch-enemy; but before a consonant it always sounds like tsh, as in archbishop, archduke, archpresbyter, &c. Ch is silent in schism, and yacht.
APPENDIX—ORTHOGRAPHY.

D keeps one uniform sound, at the beginning, middle, and end of words; as in death, bandage, kindred.

E has three different sounds.
A long sound; as in scheme, glebe, severe, pulley.
A short sound; as in men, bed, clemency.
An obscure and scarcely perceptible sound; as, open, lucre, participle.
E is always mute at the end of a word, except in monosyllables that have no other vowel; as, me, be, she; or in substantives derived from the Greek; as, catastrophe, epitome, Penelope. It is used to soften and modify the foregoing consonant; as, force, rage, since, oblige; or to lengthen the preceding vowel; as, can, cane; pin, pine; rob, robe.
The diphthong as is generally sounded like a long, as in appear, beaver, creature, &c. It has also the sound of short a, as in breath, meadow, treasure. And it is sometimes pronounced like the long and slender a, as in bear, break, great.

Eau has the sound of long o, as in beau, flambeau, portmanteau.—In beauty and its compounds, it has the sound of long u.

Et, in general, sounds the same as long and slender a, as in design, vein, neighbor, &c. It has the sound of long e in seize, deceit, receive, either, neither, &c. It is sometimes pronounced like short i, as in foreign, forget, sovereign, &c.

Es is pronounced like e long; as in people; and sometimes like e short; as in leopard, jeopardy. It has also the sound of short u; as in dungeon, sturgeon, puncheon, &c.

Ee is almost always pronounced like long w; as in few, new, dew.
Ew is always sounded like long u or ew; as in feud, deuce.
Ey, when the accent is on it, is always pronounced like a long; as in bey, grey, convey; except in key, ley, where it is sounded like long e.
When this diphthong is unsounded, it takes the sound of e long; as, alley, valley, barley.

F keeps one pure unvaried sound, at the beginning, middle, and end of words; as, fancy, muffin, mischief, &c.; except in of, in which it has the sound of v; but not in composition; as, whereof, thereof, &c. We should not pronounce, a wife’s jointure, a calf’s head; but a wife’s jointure, a calf’s head.

G has two sounds: one hard; as in gay, go, gun; the other soft as in gem, giant.
At the end of a word it is always hard; as in bag, snug, frog. It is hard before a, o, u, l and r; as, game, gone, guilt, glory, grandeur.
G before e, i and y, is soft; as in genius, gesture, ginger, Egypt; except in get, gewith, finger, craggy, and some others.
G is mute before n; as in gnash, sign, foreign, &c.
Gh, at the end of a word or syllable, accented, gives the preceding vowel a long sound; as in resign, impugn, oppugn, impregn, impugned; pronounced impune, imprene, &c.
Ga, at the beginning of a word, has the sound of the hard g; as in ghost, ghostly: in the middle, and sometimes at the end, it is quite silent; as in right, high, mighty.
At the end it has often the sound of f; as in laugh, cough, tough. Sometimes only the g is sounded; as in burgh, burgher.

H. The sound signified by this letter, is an artificial sound, and not merely an aspiration. It is heard in the words hat, horse, bull,—
SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

It is seldom mute at the beginning of a word. It is always silent after r; as in rhetoric, rheum, rhubarb.

H final, preceded by a vowel, is always silent, as ah! fah! oh! foh! Sarah, Messiah.

From the faintness of the sound of this letter, in many words, and its total silence in others, added to the negligence of tutors, and the inattention of pupils, it has happened, that many persons have become almost incapable of acquiring its just and full pronunciation. It is, therefore, incumbent on teachers, to be particularly careful to inculcate a clear and distinct utterance of this sound.

X has a long sound; as in fine; and a short one; as in fin.

The long sound is always marked by the c final in monosyllables; as thin, thine; except give, live. Before r it is often sounded like a short u; as flirt, first. In some words it has the sound of e long; as in machine, bombazine, magazine.

The diphthong ia is frequently sounded like ya; as in christian, filial, poniard; pronounced christ-yan, &c. It has sometimes the sound of short i; as in carriage, marriage, parliament.

IE sounds in general like e long; as in grief, thief, grenadier. It has also the sound of long i; as in die, pie, lie; and sometimes that of short i; as in siege.

Iew has the sound of long u; as in lieu, adieu, purlieu.

Io, when the accent is upon the first vowel, forms two distinct syllables; as, priory, violet, violent. The terminations tion and sion, are sounded exactly like shun, except when the t is preceded by s or x; as in question, digestion, combustion, mixture, &c.

The triphthong iou is sometimes pronounced distinctly in two syllables; as in various, abstemious. But these vowels often coalesce into one syllable; as in precious, factious, noxious.

J is pronounced exactly like soft g.

K has the sound of c hard, and is used before s and i, where, according to English analogy, c would be soft; as, kept, king, skirts.—It is not sounded before n; as in knife, knell, knocker. It is never doubled, except in Habakkuk.

L has always a soft liquid sound; as in love, billow, quarrel. It is sometimes mute; as in half, talk, psalm. The custom is to double the l at the end of monosyllables; as, mill, will, fall; except where a diphthong precedes it; as, hail, toil, soil.

Le, at the end of words, is pronounced like a weak el, in which the e is almost mute; as, table, shuttle.

M has always the same sound; as, murmur, monumental.

N has two sounds; the one pure; as in man, noble; the other a ringing sound, like ng; as in thank, banquet, &c.

N is mute when it ends a syllable, and is preceded by m; as in hymn, solemn, autumn.

The participial ing must always have its ringing sound; as, writing, reading, speaking. Some writers have supposed that when ing is preceded by m, it should be pronounced in; as, singing, bringing, should be pronounced singin, bringin; but this practice is unauthorized and absurd.
\[\text{O} \text{ has a long sound; as in note, bone, obedient, over; and a short one; as in not, got, lot, rot, trot. It has sometimes the short sound of \text{u}; as, son, come, attorney. — And in some words it is sounded like oo; as in prove, move; and often like \text{au}; as in not, for, lord. The diphthong \text{ou} is regularly pronounced as the long sound of \text{o}; as, boat, oat, coal; except in broad, abroad, great, where it takes the sound of broad \text{a}; as in broad, \&c. \]

\[\text{O} \text{ has almost universally a double sound of a broad and a long united; as in boy; as, boil, toil, spoil, joint, point, anoint; which should never be pronounced as if they were written bile, splice, tile, \&c. \text{Oo} \text{ almost always preserves its regular sound; as in moon, soon, food. It has a shorter sound in wool, good, foot, and a few others. — In blood and flood it sounds like short \text{u}. Door and floor should always be pronounced, as if written dore and flore. The diphthong \text{ou} has six different sounds. The first and proper sound is equivalent to \text{ow} in down; as in bound, found, surround. The second is that of short \text{u}; as in enough, trouble, journey. The third is that of \text{oo}; as in soup, youth, tournament. The fourth is that of long \text{o}; as in though, mourn, poultice. The fifth is that of short \text{o}; as in cough, trough. The sixth is that of \text{auce}; as in ought, brought, thought. \text{Oo} \text{ is generally sounded like \text{ou} in thou; as in brown, dowry, shower. It has also the sound of long \text{o}; as in show, grown, bestow. The diphthong \text{oy} is but another form for \text{oi}, and is pronounced exactly like it.} \]

\[\text{P} \text{ has always the same sound. It is sometimes mute; as in psalm, psalter, Ptolemy; and between \text{a} and \text{t}; as, tempt, empty, presumptuous. \text{A} \text{ is generally pronounced like } f; \text{ as in philosophy, philanthropy, Philip. In Stephen, it has the sound of } v. \text{ In apophthism, phthisis, phthisian, both letters are entirely silent.} \]

\[\text{Q} \text{ is always followed by } \text{u}; \text{ as in quadrant, queen, quire. } \text{Qu} \text{ is sometimes sounded like } k; \text{ as, conquer, liquor, risque; and sometimes like } k\text{w, as in question.} \]

\[\text{R} \text{ has a rough sound; as in Rome, river, rage; and a smooth one; as in hard, card, regard. } \text{Rs, at the end of many words, is pronounced like a weak } \text{er}; \text{ as in acre, lucre, massacre.} \]

\[\text{S} \text{ has two different sounds: A soft and flat sound, like } z; \text{ as, besom, nasal, dismal. A sharp hissing sound; as, saint, sister, cyprus. It is always sharp at the beginning of words. At the end of words, it takes the soft sound; as, his, was, trees, eyes; except in the words this, thus, us, yes, rebus, surplus, &c.; and in words terminating with } \text{ous. It sounds like } z \text{ before } \text{ow}, \text{ if the vowel goes before; as, intrusion; but like } s \text{ sharp, if it follows a consonant; as, conversion. It also sounds like } z \text{ before } s \text{ mute; as, amuse; and before } y \text{ final; as, rose; and in the words, bosom, desire, wisdom, &c. } \text{S is mute in isle, island, demesne, viscount.} \]
SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

T generally sounds, as in take, tempter. **T** before a vowel, has the sound of **sh**; as in salvation; except in such words as tierce, tiara, &c., and unless an **s** goes before; as, question; and excepting also derivatives from words ending in **ty**; as, mighty, mightier.

**Th** has two sounds; the one soft and flat; as, thus, whether, heathen; the other hard and sharp; as, thing, think, breath.

**Th**, at the beginning of words, is sharp; as in thank, thick, thunder; except in that, then, thus, thither, and some others. **Th**, at the end of words, is also sharp; as, death, breath, mouth; except in with, booth, beneath, &c.

**Th**, in the middle of words, is sharp; as, panther, orthodox, misanthrope; except worthy, farthing, brethren, and a few others.

**Th**, between two vowels, is generally flat, in words purely English; as, father, heathen, together, neither, mother.

**Th**, between two vowels, in words from the learned languages, is generally sharp; as, apathy, sympathy, Athens, apothecary.

**Th** is sometimes pronounced like simple **t**; as, Thomas, thyme, Thames.

U has three sounds, viz:

A long sound; as in mule, tube, cubic.
A short sound; as in dull, gull, custard.
An obtuse sound, like **oo**; as in bulb, full, bushel.

The strangest deviation of this letter from its natural sound, is in the words, busy, business, bury, and burial; which are pronounced, bizzy, bizness, berry, and berrial.

**A** is now often used before words beginning with **u** long; as, always before those that begin with **u** short: as, a union, a university, a useful book; an uproar, an usher, an umbrella.

The diphthong **ua**, has sometimes the sound of **wa**; as in assuage, persuade, antiquary. It has also the sound of middle **a**; as in guard, guardian, guaranty.

**Ui** is frequently pronounced **wi**; as in languid, anguish, extinguish. It has sometimes the sound of **i** long; as in guide, guile, disguise; and sometimes that of **i** short; as in guilt, guinea, Guildhall. In some words it is sounded like long **u**; as in juice, suit, pursuit; and after **r**, like **oo**; as in bruise, fruit, recruit.

**Ue** is pronounced like **wo**; as in quote, quorum, quandam.

**Uy** has the sound of long **e**; as in obloque, soliloquy; pronounced obloquee, &c.; except buy, and its derivatives.

V has the sound of flat **f**; and bears the same relation to it, as **b** does to **p**, **d** to **t**, and **g** to **k**, and **z** to **s**. It has also one uniform sound; as, vain, vanity, love.

W has nearly the sound of **oo**; as water resembles the sound of **oo**. In some words it is not sounded; as in answer, wholesome; it is always silent before **r**; as in wrap, wreck, wrinkle, wrist, wry, &c.

**W** before **h** is pronounced as if it were after the **k**; as, why, hwy when, hwen; what, hwat.

**W** is often joined to **a** at the end of a syllable, without affecting the sound of that vowel; as in crow, blow, grow, know, row, flow, &c.

**W** has often the sound of **u**; as in draw, saw, crew, view, vowel, outlaw, etc.
X has three sounds, viz.
It is sounded like z, at the beginning of proper names, of Greek original; as in Xanthus, Xenophon, Xerxes.
It has a sharp sound like ks, when it ends a syllable with the accent upon it; as, exit, exercise, excellence; or when the accent is on the next syllable, if it begins with a consonant: as, excuse, extent, expense.
It has generally a flat sound like gz, when the accent is not on it, and the following syllable begins with a vowel; as, exert, exist, example; pronounced, egzert, egzist, egzample.

Y, when a consonant, has nearly the sound of ee; as youth, York, resemble the sounds of eeouth, eerk: but that this is not its exact sound, will be clearly perceived, by pronouncing the words, ye, yes, new year; in which, its just and proper sound is ascertained. It not only requires a stronger exertion of the organs of speech to pronounce it, than is required to pronounce ee; but its formation is essentially different. It will not admit of ae before it, as ee will in the following example: an eet. The opinion that y, when it begins a word or syllable, takes exactly the sound of ee, has induced some grammarians to assert, that this letter is always a vowel or diphthong.

When y is a vowel, it has exactly the same sound as i would have in the same situation; as, rhyme, system, justify, pyramid, party, fancy, hungry.

Z has the sound of an s, uttered with a closer compression of the palate by the tongue: it is the flat s; as, freeze, frozen, brazen.

It may be proper to remark, that the sounds of letters vary, as they are differently associated, and that the pronunciation of these associations depends upon the position of the accent. It may also be observed, that, in order to pronounce accurately, great attention must be paid to the vowels which are not accented. There is scarcely any thing which more distinguishes a person of a bad education, from a person of a good one, than the pronunciation of the unaccented vowels.—

When vowels are under the accent, the best speakers and the lowest of the people, with very few exceptions, pronounce them in the same manner; but the unaccented vowels in the mouths of the former, have a distinct, open, and specific sound, while the latter often totally sink them, or change them into some other sound.
RULES FOR SPELLING.

§104. RULE I. When a syllable, or syllables, are added to a word ending in a consonant, the orthography of the word is rarely altered. Thus, from amend are formed amended, amending, amendable, amendatory, amendment; the original word remaining without any change of letters.

RULE II. The terminations ful, less, ric, trick, dom, some, ard, head, or hood, ride, lock, ship, and generally ment, are added without any change of the original word. In general, ly is added after a vowel, without a change of the original word; as, love, lovely; home, homely.

RULE III. When the original word ends in e, and the termination, or syllable added, begins with e, one of these letters is omitted. Thus, from accuse, we form accused, accuser, not accuse-ed, accuse-er. So when once, ent, or out, is added; as in diverge, divergence, divergent; adherence, adherent; adduce, adducent; rapture, rapturous.

RULE IV. When the original word ends in e, and the termination begins with i, the letter e is omitted; as in compose, composing. The exceptions are drying, singeing, in which e is retained to distinguish these words from dying, singing. Before ty, e is changed to i; as in fertile, fertility; hostile, hostility.

RULE V. When the original word ends in the single vowel y, and the termination begins with e or i, the letter y is omitted, and i is substituted; as in deny, denied, denter, fortified; glory, glorious. But when the termination begins with i, the letter y is retained; as in denying, fortifying, complying. But before ous, y is sometimes changed to e; as in duty, duceous; plenty, plesious; beauty, beauteous.

RULE VI. When the original word ends in ee, and the termination begins with e, one e is omitted, as in Rule III, an example of which occurs in agree, agreed. But when the termination begins with i, or with a consonant, both letters, ee, are retained; as in agreeing, agreement; so also, before able, as in agreeable.

RULE VII. When the original word ends in ay, ey, oy, ow, it suffers no change of orthography in the derivatives. Thus we write delay, delayed, delaying; alloy, alloyage, allowed, allying; survey, surveyed, surveyor, surveying; allow, allowable, allowed, allowing; annoyance.

To this rule, usage has improperly established the following exceptions: laid, paid, said. These ought to have been written layed, payed, sayed; as in allayed, decayed, stayed.

RULE VIII. Before a, the letter e is omitted; as in arrive, arrival; reserve, reversal; assure, assurance; resemble, resemblance.

RULE IX. Before a the letter y is omitted, and i substituted; as in defy, defiance, rely, reliance.

RULE X. The letter i is substituted for the terminating y, before consonants; as in certify, certificate; fortify, fortification; holy, holiness; bounty, bountiful.

RULE XI. The final e is omitted before able and ible; as in abate, abatable; move, movable. So is reconcilable, rattle, scalable.

Exceptions. After c and g, the final e is retained, to prevent a wrong pronunciation; as in peaceable, chargeable.

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RULE XII. Monosyllables ending in a single consonant after a single vowel, have the last consonant doubled in the derivatives; as in beg, begged, begging, beggar; rob, robbed, robber, robbing.

RULE XIII. When words of more syllables than one, end in a single accented consonant, after a single vowel, that consonant is doubled in the derivatives; as abet, abettet, abetting, abettor. So in admit, permit, regret. This rule is intended to prevent a wrong pronunciation, to which we should be liable, if the words were written abeted, abeting; admitted, admitting.

RULE XIV. But when the accent does not fall on the last consonant of the words described in the foregoing rule, the last consonant is not to be doubled, as there is no danger of a wrong pronunciation. Examples: label, labeled, labeling; libel, libeled, libeler, libeling, libelous; worship, worshiped, worshiper, worshiping. So in caril, cancel, travel.

When the last consonant is preceded by a digraph, (two vowels, one only being pronounced,) the final consonant is never doubled; as in conceal, concealing.

RULE XV. The termination iv, after a consonant, does not change the original word; as effect, effective; but after the vowels, this letter is omitted; as in diffusive, repulse, repressive.

RULE XVI. The letter e after bl, gl, pl, tl, is omitted before y, as in peaceable, peaceably; single, singly; ample, amply; gentle, gently.

RULE XVII. The final e is omitted before ly in duly, truly, before ism in favoritism, before ish in rivish, whirlish. When ism is added after e the pronunciation of e is changed to that of s, as in stoicism, from stoic: and in catholicism, from catholic.

RULE XVIII. Nouns take the feminine termination ess, in most cases, without any change of spelling; as heir, heiress; lion, lioness. But to this rule there are several exceptions; as actor, actress, instead of actoress; abbess, abbes; duke, duchess, and others which are not reducible to rule.

RULE XIX. Adjectives ending in ete, have corresponding nouns, ending in acy, as effeminacy. Some adjectives ending in ent, have nouns in ence; as excellent, excellence: others have nouns in ency; as efficient, efficiancy. Some nouns ending in ce, have adjectives ending in cious; as grace, gracious; space, spacious. Abundance has its corresponding noun, abundance, and redundance has redundance.

RULE XX. When nouns end in a consonant, the termination ice, denoting to make, is added without a change of the original word; as civil, civilize; moral, moralize; legal, legalize; system, systemize. But when the original word ends in a vowel, the letter t is inserted before ice; as in dogma, dogmatize; anathema, anathematize; stigma, stigmatize. [Systematize is wrong and ought to be rejected.]

RULE XXI. The letters in the original word, and in the derivatives, should be the same, unless the pronunciation, or some special reason, requires a difference, as uniformity is a prime rule in orthography. Thus defense, offense, expense, pretense, recompense, should be written with s, for the derivatives are always thus written; as defensive, offensive, expensive, pretension, recompensable.

RULE XXII. As the old orthography of author, ancestor, and others, is obsolete, and u omitted, all words of similar form should, for the sake of uniformity, and in agreement with the originals, be written without u; as armor, candor, favor, ardor, color, labor, clamor, error, honor, parlor, splendor, rigor, vapor, vigor, valor, inferior, interior, exterior, superior. This practice is demanded by another reason; some of the derivatives of these words, are never written with u; as laborious, invigorate, inferiority.

RULE XXIII. The double t in befall, install, inlet, recall, forestall, miscall, should be retained in the derivatives; as it is a rule that u has its broad
sound before *ll*, but not always before a single *l*; *shall* and *mall* are exceptions.

**Rule XXIV.** The letter *k* after *e*, is to be omitted in *music*, public, and all similar words, unless in *frolick*, *traffick*, whose derivatives, *frolicking*, *trafficked*, require this letter. It seems to be as absurd as unnecessary, to write *musical*, *publication*, without *k*, and *music*, public, with it.

**Rule XXV.** The words *connection*, *deflection*, *infection*, *reflection*, should not be written with *x*, but should follow their verbs, *connect*, *deflect*, *infect*, *reflect*.

**Rule XXVI.** The words *advise*, *comprise*, *devise*, *revise*, *enterprise*, *surprise*, *merchandise*, are written with *s*, in accordance with their French originals.

But the termination, *ize*, from the Latin and Greek, is more correct than *ise*, and it is convenient to retain it in all words in which it has the sense of *make*: as in *legalize*, to make legal; *moralize*, to make moral reflections. The words of this class are numerous.

**Rule XXVII.** When the termination, *ly*, is added to a word ending in *ll*, one *l* is omitted; as *full*, *fully*; *squal*, *squally*; *hill*, *hilly*.

**Rule XXVIII.** In several derivatives from the Greek, the word *tome* is changed into *tony*; as in *anatomy*, *bronchotomy*, *lithotomy*, *phlebotomy*. The same change ought to take place in *epitone*, *apotone*, which should be written *epitomy*, *apotomy*.

In like manner, from the Greek *graphe*, we write *geography*, *topography*, *biography*; but from *strophe*, we write *catastrophe*, *anastrophe*; and from *phone*, we write *euphony*, *symphony*; but inconsistently enough, we write *hyperbole*, *syncope*, *syncleptoc*. All these, to be regular, ought to end in *y*.

This change, in words thus derived, would not only produce regularity in the singular number, but also in the plural. To make *catastrophe* plural, we must now write *catastrophes*, which is irregular, or *catastrophies*, which is still more irregular. If the singular was written *catastrophy*, then we should form *catastrophies*, regularly, as in other words ending in *y*: *glory*, *glories*; *vanity*, *vanities*.

**Rule XXIX.** The letter *e*, of the original word, is omitted in *entrance*, from *enter*. So in *cumbrance*, *cumbrous*, *monstrous*, *incumbrance*, *remembrance*, *wondrous*. But *dangerous*, *ponderous*, *slanderous*, retain *e*.

**Rule XXX.** In most words from the French ending in *re*, these letters have, in English, been transposed. Thus *chastre*, *chambre*, *disastre*, *disordre*, *numbre*, *tigre*, &c., are written in English, *charter*, *chamber*, *disaster*, *disorder*, *number*, *tiger*. In like manner, we ought to write all other derivatives, with the same terminating letters: *fiber*, *center*, *meter*, *miler*, *osher*, *scepter*, *sepulcher*. *Acre* and *lure* must be exceptions.

In the derivatives, *e* is omitted; as in *fibric*, *fibrous*, *disastrous*, *central*, *lustrious*, *nitrous*, *sepulchral*.

**Rule XXXI.** In the following words, the letter *e* of the original is changed to *i* in the derivatives, as in the Latin: *bitumen*, *bituminous*; *omen*, *ominous*; *stamen*, *stamina*, *staminial*.

**Rule XXXII.** The plural of *staff*, should be *staffs*, to distinguish the word from *staves*, a word of different signification. Stationery, confectionery, should follow *stationer*, *confectioner*, and *copapener*, *copapener*.

**Rule XXXIII.** As in anglicized words, from foreign languages, diphthongs have been generally rejected, as in *economical*, *ecumenical*; it would be proper to extend the practice to other words; as *Cesar*, *Eneas*, *Atheneum*. Diphthongs are troublesome in writing.

**Rule XXXIV.** Certain gross errors in orthography, however common, ought to be rejected, as they have proceeded from mistakes, or in ignorance of the etymology of the words. Thus, *comptroller*, *furlough*, *redoubt*, *res.*
doubtable, are, etymologically, nonsense. The true words are controller, far-
low, redout, redoutable. Chymistry and chemistry are both wrong; the
genuine word is chymistry. Ton, a weight, is a gross mistake confounding
the word with the French ton, from tonus. The English word is tun, a cask,
which gave us the word when it signifies a weight. And so it was written
down to the reign of Henry VIII.

Mould is wrong spelling; the word is the Saxon mold, as written by Pope,
Goldsmith, Hook and others.
The word gangue, in mineralogy, is not only a mistaken orthography, but
barbarous. The word is gang, in all the languages on the continent, and so
it is in English, in common use, and so it is pronounced. In German, ein
erzreicher gang; in Danish, mineralisk gang; a metallic vein.

Oxide is a most wanton departure from original and analogical orthogra-
phy. The genuine word, as originally and correctly formed, isoxyd.
We ought to write ambassador with e, as we do embassy; and so it is al-
ways written by Blackstone and Coke.
Caberous is wrong spelling. The true spelling is cakarous. Heinous
is wrong spelling. The true word is hainous.
Build should be written, according to the original, bild. Feather and
leather, in the original were written differently; but the most general spelling
was fether, letter, as in German, feder, leder.

There is an unaccountable disposition in writers, to add e final to words,
without a show of reason: as in oxide, chlorine, deposites, reposites. In many
cases, English authors add it to foreign words, which are without it. This is
in bad taste. All our efforts should lead to the rejection of useless letters.

OF DERIVATION.

§ 105. Words are derived from one another in various ways, viz:
1. Substantives are derived from verbs.
2. Verbs are derived from substantives, adjectives, and sometimes
   from adverbs.
3. Adjectives are derived from substantives.
4. Substantives are derived from adjectives.
5. Adverbs are derived from adjectives.
1. Substantives are derived from verbs; as, from “to love,” comes
   “lover;” from “to visit, visitor;” from “to survive, survivor;” &c.
   In the following instances, and in many others, it is difficult to de-
terminate, whether the verb was deduced from the noun, or the noun
from the verb, viz: “Love, to love; hate, to hate; fear, to fear; sleep,
to sleep; walk, to walk; ride, to ride; act, to act,” &c.
2. Verbs are derived from substantives, adjectives, and sometimes
   from adverbs; as, from the substantive salt, comes, “to salt;” from
   the adjective warm, “to warm;” and from the adverb forward, “to
   forward.” Sometimes they are formed by lengthening the vowel, or
   softening the consonant; as, from “grass, to graze;” sometimes by
   adding en; as, from “length, to lengthen;” especially to adjectives;
as, from “short, to shorten;” “bright, to brighten.”
3. Adjectives are derived from substantives, in the following man-
   ner: Adjectives denoting plenty, are derived from substantives by
   adding y; as, from “Health, healthy; wealth, wealthy; might, migh-
ty,” &c.
Adjectives denoting the matter out of which any thing is made, are derived from substantives by adding en; as, from "oak, oaken; wood, wooden; wool, woolen," &c.

Adjectives denoting abundance are derived from substantives, by adding ful; as, from "joy, joyful; sin, sinful; fruit, fruitful," &c.

Adjectives denoting plenty, but with some kind of diminution, are derived from substantives, by adding some; as, from "light, lightsome; trouble, troublesome; toil, toilsome," &c.

Adjectives denoting want, are derived from substantives, by adding less; as, from "worth, worthless; care, careless; joy, joyless," &c.

Adjectives denoting likeness, are derived from substantives, by adding ly; as, from "man, manly; earth, earthly; court, courtly," &c.

Some adjectives are derived from other adjectives, or from substantives, by adding ish to them; which termination, when added to adjectives, imports diminution, or lessening the quality; as, "white, whitenish;" i.e. somewhat white. When added to substantives, it signifies similitude or tendency to a character; as, "child, childish; chief, thievish."

Some adjectives are formed from substantives or verbs, by adding the termination able; and those adjectives signify capacity; as, "answer, answerable; to change, changeable."

4. Substantives are derived from adjectives, sometimes by adding the termination ness; as, "white, whiteness; swift, swiftness;" sometimes by adding th or t, and making a small change in some of the letters; as, "long, length; high, height."

5. Adverbs of quality are derived from adjectives, by adding ly, or changing le into ly; and denote the same quality as the adjectives from which they are derived; as, from "base," comes "basely;" from "slow, slowly;" from "able, ably."

There are so many other ways of deriving words from one another, that it would be extremely difficult, and nearly impossible to enumerate them. The primitive words of any language are very few; the derivatives form much the greater number. A few more instances only can be given here.

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

Substantives ending in hood or head, are such as signify character, or qualities; as, "manhood, knighthood, falsehood," &c.

Substantives ending in ship, are those that signify office, employment, state, or condition; as, "lordship, stewardship, partnership," &c.

Some substantives ending in ship, are derived from adjectives; as, "hard, hardship," &c.

Substantives whose ending in ery, signify action or habit; as, "slavery, foolery, prudery," &c. Some substantives of this sort come from adjectives; as, "brave, bravery," &c.

Substantives ending in wick, rick, and dom, denote dominion, jurisdiction or condition; as, "bailiwick, bishoprick, kingdom, dukedom, freedom," &c.

Substantives which end in ian, are those that signify profession; as, "Physician, musician," &c. Those that end in ment and age, come generally from the French, and commonly signify the act or habit; as, "commandment, usage."
APPENDIX—ETYMOLOGY.

Some substantives ending in ard, are derived from verbs or adjectives, and denote character or habit; as, "drunk, drunkard; dote, dotard."

Some substantives have the form of diminutives; but these are not many. They are formed by adding the terminations, kim, ling, ing, eck, el, and the like; as, "lamb, lamblain; goose, gosling; duck, duckling; hill, hillock; cock, cockerel, &c.

From the foregoing general view of Derivation, we shall proceed to give the pupil a list of the chief Prefixes and Suffixes of words in the English language, with their origin and general significations. A careful study of them will do much towards determining the sense of a vast number of words; nevertheless, it must be acknowledged that an accurate and full understanding of the derivation and true meaning of many words, can only be obtained from a correct and complete dictionary of the English language.

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EXPLANATION OF THE PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

PREFIXES.

§ 106. A PREFIX is a letter, syllable, or word, added to the beginning of some other, to vary or modify its primitive meaning.

A list of the chief prefixes, varying the import of many thousand words.

[L. stands for Latin; Gr. for Greek; S. for Saxon, and Fr. for French.]

A, L. ad, to—implies on, to, in, at; as, add, adress, affir. It often denotes privation; as, apathy, want of feeling. In this sense it is peculiar to words derived from the Greek. Sometimes it has no specific meaning, but only adds force to the word; as abide, assure.

AB, ABS, L.—signifies separation, departure, privation, aversion; as, abscession, the act of cutting off; abstract, to take from; adverb, to have aversion to, or detest.

AD, L.—denotes union, addition; as, adjoin, to unite to. When ad is prefixed to words beginning with c, f, g, h, m, p, s, t, the letter d is changed into those letters respectively; as, affect, accede, appeal, instead of adfert, adcede, adpreal.

AMBI, L. ambo, both.—two, twofold, doubtful; ambidextrous, using both hands; ambiguous, of doubtful import.

AMPHI, Gr.—about, circular, two, doubtful; as, amphitheater, a building in a circular form; amphibious, living in two elements, air and water.

AM, L. ablaution of Gr. amphi, which see; as ambulant, walking around.

AN, Gr.—a primitive; as, anarchy, want of government.

ANA, Gr.—again, up, back, through; as, anabaptism, baptism again; anadromous, ascending up.

ANTE, L.—before, prior to; as, antedate, to date before the true time; antediluvian, previous to the deluge.

ANT, ANTI, L. ad, against—opposed to, against; as, antichrist, antilimax.

AFTER, S. aft, behind—later, behind; as, afternoon, afterpart.

ALL, S. eall, wholly, in a very great degree; as, all divine, all consuming.

APO, APHI, Gr.—from, remote from, off, distant; as, apoplexy, one sent; apogee, from the earth; aphelion, from the sun—that point in the earth's orbit farthest from the sun.

ARCH, Gr. archos, chief—highest chief; as, archbishop; chief bishop; archbishop, the highest architect.

ARCHE, Gr. arché—ancient; as, archeology, science of antiquities.

ASTRO, Gr. astron—a star; as, astronomy, the science of the stars.

* The original word is not given when it is the same as the prefix.
AUTO, Gr. autes—self; one's self; as, autograph, one's own handwriting; autobiography, biography of one's own life, written by himself.

BE, S. be or big—(same word as by,) meanness, about, on, to make; as, bedaub, to daub on or about; bedaub, to put under water.

BENE, L.—good, well; as, benevolent, well wishing; beneficien, doing good; benefaction, speaking well, or blessing.

BI, the name of a number—two; biform, two form; biennial, once in two years.

BIBLIO, Gr. biblos—a book; as, bibliomany, book-madness; bibliography, a description of books.

BIO, Gr. bios—life; as, biology, the science of life; biography.

BY, S. be—near, close, narrow; as, bystander, bypath.

CATA, Gr. kata, against—against, or pertaining to; as, Catabaptist, an opponent of baptism; Catalogues, pertaining to words.

CENT, L. centum—a hundred; as, centuple, a hundred-fold; centipede, an insect of a hundred feet.

CHIRO, Gr. cheir—the hand; as, chirography, one's own hand writing.

CHRONO, Gr. chronos—time; as, chronology, the science of time.

CHORO, Gr. choros—a particular place; as, chorography, the art of mapping a particular place.

CIRCUM, L.—round; as, circumnavigate, to sail round.

CIS, on this side; as, cissus, the Alpse.

CO, COM, CON, L. con, with—union, together; as, conjunction, to join with. Col, cog, and cor have the same signification, a being changed for l, g, or r; as, collect, to bring together.

CONTRA, COUNTER, L.—against, opposite; as, contradict, to come against; counteract, to act in opposition to.

COSMIO, Gr. kosmos—the world; as, cosmopolite, a citizen of the world.

DE, L.—from, down, separation, negation; as, debar, to go from a ship; debase, to lower down; detrompe, to put off from the throne.

DI, DIF, DIS, L. dis—from, out, not, separation, expansion; as, dismount, dilate, disbelieve.

DECA, Gr.—ten; as, decalogy, the ten commandments.

DEC, DECEM, L.—ten; as, decempectal, ten feet in length; decimal, tenth.

DEM, L.—half; as demitone, a half tone.

DI, DIA, DR, L. through; as, diameter, measuring through; dioptic, seeing through.

DUO, DENS, L.—two; as, duple, a two-fold; duodecim, two and ten; that is, twelve; twelve leaves a sheet.

DYS, Gr. dys, bad—evil, bad; as, dyspepsy, bad sight; dyspepsy, bad digestion.

E, EX, L.—out, of, beyond; as, evade, to escape from; exclude, to shut out; exceed, to go beyond. Ex, in some words is changed to of or ec.

EN, EM, French en for L. in—in, on, increase; as, embark, to go in; encumber, to place a weight on; enlighten, to afford more light.

ENT, L.—an insect; as, entomology, the science of insects.

EPI, Gr.—on, upon; as, epidermis, on the skin, the scar-fish; epigraph, an inscription on a monument.

EQUI, L. aequus—equal; as, equilateral, of equal sides.

EU, Gr.—good, well, praise; as, euseby, good digestion; eulogy, speech of praise.

EXTRA, L.—beyond, more than, without; as, extraordinary, more than ordinary; extravagant, going beyond the usual limits.

FOR, S.—not, against, depriving; as, forbid; to bid not to do; forbear, to abstain from.

FORE, S.—before, priority; as foreknow, foresee, foresworn.

GENEA, Gr. genos—race, kind; as, genealogy, a history of a race, or family.

GEO, Gr. ge—earth; as, geology, the science of the earth.

HELIO, Gr. helios—the sun; as, heliometer, a worshipper of the sun.

HEMI, Gr. hemi—half; as, hemispher, half a sphere.

HEX, L.—seven; as, heptarchy, a government of seven kings.

HETERO, Gr. heteros—another; as, heterogamy, of unlike kind; heterodox, opposed to the true faith.

HEX, HEXA, Gr.—six; as, hexagon, a figure of six angles.

HIGH, S. high; as, high-minded, high-born.

HIER, HIERO, Gr. hieros—sacred; as, hieroglyph, a sacred discourse.

HOMO, Gr. homo, same, equal—like of the same kind; as, homoeocentric, having the same centre.

HYDRO, Gr. hudor—water; as, hydrology, the science of water.

HYPER, Gr. hyper—over, beyond, excess; as, hypercritical, over-critical.

HYPO, Gr. hypo, under—under, below; as, hypocrism, one who deceives.

Ichthy, Gr. ichthys—a fish; ichthyology, the science of fishes; ichthyolite, fossil fish.
APPENDIX—ETYMOLOGY.

IN, L. (often changed to is, ig, il, ir, —net, when prefixed to adjectives; is, on, when prefixed to verbs, &c., giving force to the signification; igna, not noble, inseparg, not separable; in, to fix in, to fasten.

INTER, L.—among, between; as, interniz, to mix among; intellect, to put lines between.

INTRA, L.—— below; as, intramundane, lying below the world.

INTRO, INTRO, L.——within, into, nearness; as, introf产学ous, growing on the under side of a leaf; intercest, to turn within or inward; introduc, to bring in or into.

JURIS, L. jus, right—legal; as, jurisdiction, lawful right over; jurisprudence, legal science.

JUXTA, L. near by, next; as, juxtaposition, placed in near or close position.

LEXICO, Gr. lexicon—a dictionary; lexicography, the act or art of writing or compiling a dictionary.

LITHO, Gr. lithos—a stone; lithology, science of stones; lithocarp, fruit turned to stone, fossil fruit.

LOG, Gr. logos—speech, discourse, reason; as, logic, philology.

MALE, L. malus, Mal, Fr. mal—evil, bad; as, maladiction, evil-speaking; malformed, bad or wrong foundation.

MANU, L. manus—the hand; as, manufacture, something made by hand.

META, Gr. beyond, over, next, a change; as, metamorph, beyond the world; metath, a different form.

MIS, from mis, to err—bad, erroneous, wrong; as, misplace, to place wrong; misfortune, bad fortune.

MISO, MIS, Gr. mise, hatred, or mise, to hate; later, or hatred; as, my所謂, a woman hater; misanthropy, hatred of mankind.

MONO, MON, Gr. mono—one, single; as, monosyllable, a word of one syllable; monolith, a single stone; monarchy, a government of one person.

MULTI, MULTI, L. multus—many, multiform, having many forms; multipied, an insect having many feet.

MYTHO, Gr. mythos—a fable; as, mythographer, a composer of fables.

NOCT, L. noctis—night; as, noctiforms, bringing night.

NON, L. not, negation, as, nonelect, not elect; nonconforming, not conforming.

NOMA, L. nomus—nine; as, nonagon, a figure of nine angles.

OBJ, L. object, in front, against, toward, in the way, out; as, object, which is before us; objection, something brought against; obstruct, to thrust forward. B in ob, before e, f, and p, is changed to those letters respectively; as, occur, offered, opposes; before t it is changed to s, as in inestimable.

OCT, OCTO, OCTA, L. octo—eight; as, octomial, once in eight years; octogama, a person eighty years old; octagon, a figure of eight angles.

OMNI, L. omnis—all; as, omniform, of all forms; omnipotent, all powerful.

ORNITHO, Gr. ornithos—a fowl, a bird; as, ornithology, the science of birds; ornithoid, a petrified bird.

OPHIO, Gr. ophis—a serpent; ophimorphous, having the form of a serpent.

ORTHO, Gr. orthos—straight, right; as, orthodoxy, the right or true faith; orthovery, the right utterance of words.

OVEL, L. ove—above, beyond, excess; as, overflow, to flow over or beyond; overcome, to act to excess.

OUT, L. out—beyond, excess, without; as, outdo, to do beyond another; outdrink, to exceed in drinking.

OV, OVI, OVU, L. ovum—an egg; as, oviform, having the form of an egg.

OSTEO, Gr. osteon—a bone; as, osteology, description of bones.

OXY, Gr. oxys, acid, sharp, acid, vinegar; as, oxicycle, a mixture of vinegar and water; oxygen, the generator of acid.

PAN, PANTO, Gr. pan, pante—all; as, panoply, all wisdom; pantology, a work of general science.

PARA, Gr. against, beyond; as, paradox, beyond opinion, a seeming absurdity, paradox.

PHYSICA, PHYSIO, Gr. physis—nature, pertaining to nature; as, physico-theology, theology illustrated by nature; physiography, a description of nature.

PENTRA, PENTE, Gr.—five; as, pentaehron, a figure of five equal sides.

PER, L. through, by, over the whole; as, perforce, to go through the whole; perforce, Ex is changed to i in pillucid.

PERI, Gr. around, near; as pericardium, around the heart, the heartcase; peripneumony, an inflammation near the lungs.

PHILOS, PHILO, Gr. phile—a friend, lover; as, philanthropist, a friend of mankind; philosopher, a lover of wisdom.
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PLENI, L. plenus—full; as, pleniluna, the full moon.

POLY, Gr. polus—many; po'gasia, many islands; polygon, many sides.

POST, L.—after; as, postscript, and after writing.

PRE, L.—before; as, predicte, to determine beforehand.

PRETER, L. praeter—beyond, post by, more; as, preterminial, beyond what is natural; pretermission, a passing by, or over.

PRIME, PRIMO, L. primus—first; as, primeval, first age; primogenial, first born.

PRO, L.—fore, forth, forward, for; as, proceed, to go forward; pronoun, for noun.

PROTO, Gr. proteos—first, chief; as, protomartyr, the first martyr; protopope, chief pope.

PSEUDO, Gr. pseudos—false; as, pseudomorphous, of false form; pseudodox, false in doctrine.

PYR, PYRO, Gr. pur—fire; as, pyrite, fire stone; pyrotechnics, the art of making fire works.

QUAD, L. quadra, a square; QUART, L. quartus—four, fourth; as, quadruple, fourfold.

QUINQUE, L. quinque, a fifth part, or to divide into five parts.

QUINQUECAPSULA, L. quinquecapsularis, having five capsules.

RE, L.—return, backward, again; as, react, to return action; recall, to call again.

RETRO, L.—back; as, retroactive, driving back.

SE, L.—separation, aside; as, secede, to separate from; seduce, to turn aside.

SELF, S.—self or self—the person or thing itself, by one’s self; as, self-deceiving, deceiving one’s self; self-divined, devi-ed by one’s self.

SEPT, L. septem—seven; as, septennial, consisting of seven.

SEX, L.—six; as, sexangular, having six angles.

SEM, L.—half; as, semicolumn, a half column; semicolon, a half colon.

SINE, L.—without, na, sine die, without day.

SOLI, L. solus—alone; as, solitary, living or being alone, lonely.

STENO, Gr. stenos—brief, short, straight; as, stenography, short-hand writing.

STereo, Gr. stereos—solid, fixed; as, stereotype, solid or fixed metal type; stereometry, the art of measuring solid bodies.

SUB, L.—under, after, in a lower degree; as, subterranean, under the surface of the earth; subaltern, a subordinate officer. B is changed to c, s, p, s, before these letters respectively.

SUBTER, L.—under, evasion; as, subterfuge, running under; subterfuge.

SYN, SYL, SYM, SY, Gr. syn, with—with, joined with, joint; as, synarchy, joint rule; sympathy, feeling with, fellow feeling.

SUPER, L.—over, above, excess; as, superlative, to reward in excess.

SUPRA, L.—above, over; as, supercilious, above the eye brow.

SUR, Gr. sur, from L. supra, which see—as, surpass, to pass over, or to excel.

TETRA, Gr. tetrachon—four; as, tetragon, a figure of four angles.

THEO, Gr. theos—God; as, theology, the science of God, divinity.

TOPO, Gr. topo—a place, a tract; as topography, a description of any particular place or region.

TRANS, L. beyond, over, a change; as, transalpine, beyond the Alps; transmigrate, pass from one thing to another.

TRI, L. trei—three; as, trifoliate, having three leaves.

TYPO, Gr. typos, a type—a mark, type, figure; as, typography, writing with types, art of printing; typocosmy, a type or representation of the word.

ULTRA, L.—beyond; as ultramundane, being beyond the world.

UN, S. un or an—L. in—not, depriving; as, unknown, not known; unload, to deprive of load.

UNDER, S.—beneath, subordinate; as underrate, to rate too low; underkeeper, a subordinate keeper.

UNI, L. unus—one, agreement; as univalve, having one valve; univocation, agreement in name and meaning.

UP, S. up, upp—alas, on high, rising; as upheav, to bear aloft; upheav, to raise up.

WITH, S. with—priviation, separation, opposition, departure; as withdraw, to separate, retire; withstand, to oppose.

ZOO, Gr. zoon—an animal; as, zoöite, a fossil animal; zoography, a description of animals.

NOTE. From the foregoing derivations and significations of the Prefixes, much help will be derived in tracing out the meaning of words. The Suffixes are more uncertain in their origin, and their significations are often so various and extended, that it is impossible to give them all. A general clue is given to them in the following sections, and perhaps all is accomplished therein, that it would be wise or useful to attempt. For a clear apprehension of the origin and significations of many words, resort must be had to a full and correct dictionary.
**Suffixes.**

§107. A suffix is a letter, syllable, or whatever is appended to the end of a word, which in any manner varies or modifies its meaning.

**Origin of some of the Suffixes.**

ABLE, IBLE, are probably from the Latin, where they are common; though some derive them from the Gothic *abd*, meaning power, ability.

AGE, is from the French.

AL, from the Latin, denoting quality.

AN, from the French and Latin.

ANT, ANCE, ANCY, ENT, ENCE, ENCY. These terminations are from the present participle, first case of Latin verbs, in the different conjugations; as, from *abundare*, we have abundant, abundance; from *agen*, agent, agency.

AR, ER, OR, are from the Saxon *ear*, or Latin vir, a man. They usually denote the masculine gender, but sometimes either sex; as, teacher; and sometimes things without gender; as, graver, lever.

AND, is from the German art, species, kind; or Swedish and Danish art, mode, nature, genus, form.

ATE, from the Latin passive participle *atus*. It agrees precisely in form with the termination of the second persoa plural, imperative mood, of Latin verbs, first conjugation; as *amate*. This is the termination of a very numerous class of words, a large portion of which is from the Latin.

AN, EN. The former of these is from the Saxon; the latter more immediately from the German.

CIDE, from the Latin *cidium*, from *cado*.

DOM, some think from the German *thum*, denoting a collection of things; others think it from the Saxon *dom*, doom, judgment.

ESS, is thought to be from the Hebrew.

FIC, FIT, FY. These terminations have a common origin, and are derived from the Latin *factio*, or *sio*, to make, become.

FOLD, from the Saxon *fold* or *seld*, denoting doubling.

FORM, from the Latin *forma*, form, shape.

FUL, from the Saxon *full*, or German *vol*.

HOOD, from Saxon *had*, state, fixedness; from a root signifying to set.

IC, ICO, from the Latin *ic*, Saxon *ig*.

ID, from the Greek *eidos*, like *ILE*, from the Latin, denoting power, tendency.

ISH, from German *isch*, Danish *isk*, Saxon *isc*, denoting likeness, or expressing the qualities of.

ING, perhaps from the German *wug*ing in Saxon signifies a pasture or meadow.

ISM, IST, IZE, from the Greek *iso*.

IVE, from the French *if*, *ive*; Latin *ius*.

IX, is a Latin termination, denoting a female.

LESS, from the Saxon *laes*, from *laesan*, to loose; Gothic *laus*, from *lausian*, to free.

LIKE, LY, from the Saxon *lie*, Dutch *lyk*, smooth, even, like.

LING, is a Saxon termination, denoting *primarily*, state, condition. In some words it denotes a small one of any kind.

LOCK, Saxon *loe*, *loce*, an inclosed place, a fastening.

KIN, from the Saxon *cyn*, *cymn*, or *cin*, kind, race, relation; German *kind*, a child.

MENT, is from the French, and denotes state, act, or effect.

MONY, is a contraction of the Latin termination *monia*, and denotes state, act.

NESS, from the Saxon *nesse*, *mysse*, state or quality.

OID, from the Greek *eidos*, like, similar.

ORY, contraction of the Latin termination *oria*.

OUS, Latin *orus*; French *eur*, *ouse*.

RIC, RICK, from the Saxon *ric*, judgement, authority, territory with rule; from the root of the Latin *reg*o, to rule.
SION, TION, are from the Latin terminations. sio, tio. When the Latin supine from which the word is derived, ends in sum, we spell sion; when in tum, we spell tion; as aversum, aversion; motum, motion.

SOME, Saxon sum, same.
TY, is the Saxon tig, ten; as twenty, two tens; thirty, three tens.
TY, as a suffix of nouns, is the Latin termination tas.
Y, is the Saxon ig; Greek eikos, like.

Explanation of the Suffixes.

§108. The general meaning, only, of the Suffixes in this section, is given; as it would be next to an endless task, to present, with appropriate illustrations, all the significations, which custom and place have introduced. The Suffixes here defined, modify the meaning of some thirty or forty thousand words. [See Note, at the end of section on Prefixes.]

ABLE, BLE, imply power, primarily, and may be rendered by the expressions, that may be, can be, capable of, fit, agreeable; as, attainable, that can be attained; palatable, agreeable to the palate.
ABILITY, IABILITY, ABLENESS, IBleness, denote the quality or property, capacity or state of being, that may be, or is susceptible of; as, incommensurability, the property or state of being incommensurable; blamableness, the quality or property of blame, or state of being blamable.
ANCe, ANCY, ENCE, ENCY, denote state or condition of, act of, result of; dependency, the state or condition of, as being dependent; contrivance, the act of contriving.
ANT, ENT, ATE, person or thing; as, resident, a person who resides. In adjectives they generally denote power or quality; as, excellent, having the property of excelling.
AC, AL, AR, ARY, IC, ICAL, ILE, INE, CIAL, TIAL, denote like, pertaining to, belonging to; as, humeral, pertaining to the shoulder; commercial, belonging to commerce; demoniac, like a demon.

AR, ARY, ARD, STER, often imply the person or thing; as, luminary, that which gives light; drunkard, the person who gets drunk; teamster, one who teams.
AN, IAN, CIAN, AST, OR, ER, ESS, EE, EER, IST, ITE, IC, IX, SAN, ZEN, imply the person who, in nouns; as, physician, enthusiast, tailor, minister, referee, administratrix, denizen. Ite, denotes one of a nation or tribe; as, Levite; ist, of a sect; as, papist, rationalist.
ATION, TION, SION, ION, the act of, state of; as, admission, the act or state of being admitted; union, the state of being united.
AGE, denotes rank, office, condition, allowance; as, peerage, the rank or condition of a peer; postage, an allowance on letters, papers, &c. carried by mail.
EN, TY, FIT, FIC, as terminations of verbs and adjectives, mean, to make or become, or made of; as, brighten, to make bright; hempen, made of hemp; ossify, to become bone.
FOLD, denotes double; as, fourfold, four double.
FORM, denotes shape, likeness; as, multiform, having many shapes; cuniform, having the form of a wedge, or like a wedge.
FUL, denotes plenty, fullness, or it expresses the quality of the mind, a person or thing; as, wonderful, cheerful, hateful.

DOM, RIC, denote jurisdiction, possession by; as, kingdom, bishopric.

HOOD, denotes state, condition, office, quality; as, boyhood, the state of a boy; priesthood, the office of a priest.

FEROUS, means causing, inducing; as, somniferous, producing sleep.

ICS, denotes science, doctrine or art of; as, politics, the science of government; optics, the science of vision.

IVE, as a termination of adjectives, implies tendency or relation to, or the power or nature of; as, intrusive, tending to intrude; adhesives, having the power or quality of adhering.

ISM, implies the principles, doctrine or state of, or what is peculiar to; as, catholicism, the doctrines of a Catholic; blackguardism, conduct or language peculiar to a blackguard.

IZE, signifies to give, to make; as, authorize, to give authority; equalize, to make equal.

ISH, means, like in a degree, belonging to; as, brutish, in some degree like a brute; saltish, somewhat salt; childish, like a child, or belonging to a child.

ITY, CY, TY, as terminations of nouns, mean condition, state, or thing itself, quality, or power of; as, humility, the state of being humble; vitality, the quality of life.

KIN, LING, ULE, CLE, imply what is small, little, young; as, gosling, lambkin, molecule, verse.

LESS, destitute of, without; as, motherless, without mother; hopeless, without hope.

LY, means like; as, godly, godlike; manly, manlike.

MENT, denotes state, act, or effect; as, debase, the state of being de-based; judgement, the act or effect of judging.

MONY, means state, act; as, matrimony, the married state; testimony, the act of witnessing.

LOCK, denotes union, or what fastens; as, deadlock, padlock.

NESS, denotes the quality; as, soundness, the abstract quality of being sound; redness, the quality of being red.

OID, means like, resembling, in the form of; as, spheroid, like a sphere; asteroid, in the form of a star.

OUS, implies quality, and means partaking of, manifesting, having as, piteous, having or manifesting pity; cautious, having caution.

ORY, denotes giving, containing, tending to; as, advisory, giving or containing advice; inflammatory, tending to inflammation.

RET, in Chemistry, denotes a substance combined with an earthy, alkaline, or metallic base; as, sulphuret, from sulphur.

SHIP, denotes office, state, employment; as, mayorship, lordship, consultship, stewardship.

SOME, having a degree of, full of; as, frolicsome, troublesome, toilsome.

TUDE, UDE, denote state; as, solitude, the state of being alone; gratitude, the state or feeling of being grateful.

TURE, URE, denote act, state, art of; as, adventuring, the act of adventuring; horticulture, the art of gardening.
GLOSSARY.

[\(L\). stands for Latin; Gr. for Greek; Fr. for French; It. for Italian, and S. for Saxon.]

ACCENT, [\(L\). accentus, from \(ad\) and \(cano\), to sing.] A stress of voice on a syllable, or on certain syllables in a word; the character or mark denoting such stress.

ACTIVE, [Fr. \(actif\); L. \(activus\).] Denoting or implying action, in contradistinction from a state of repose or rest. An Active Verb is a verb which expresses action.

ADJECTIVE, [Fr. \(adjectif\), from \(L\). \(ad\), to, next, and \(ajacere\), to lie.] A word joined with a noun to define it, or to express some quality which belongs to it.

ADVERB, [\(L\). \(ad\), to, and \(verbum\), a word or verb; to a verb.] A word which qualifies or modifies the sense of verbs and some other parts of speech, and is so called from its position in relation to them.

ALPHABET, [Gr. \(alpha\) and \(beta\), the first two letters of the Greek Alphabet, \(A\) and \(B\).] The letters of a language, arranged in their proper order.

APPOSITION, [\(L\). \(appositus\), put or placed to or near.] The putting of two nouns in the same case.

ARTICULATION, [\(L\). \(articulatus\), jointed, distinct.] The utterance of syllables or words, by the human organs of speech; the doctrine of utterance, or the formation of sounds.

AUXILIARY, [\(L\). auxiliaris, from \(auxilium\), aid, help.] Helping, subsidiary.

CASE, [Fr. \(cas\), event, situation; \(It\). \(caso\); L. \(casus\), from \(cadere\), to fall.] In English, the relation or situation of nouns in reference to other words in the same sentence. In some languages, as the Greek and Latin, it denotes the change of termination, or the inflection of nouns which expresses their different relations.

COLON, [Gr. \(kuklos\), a limb, a member of a sentence.] The point or stop marked thus (:). It seems to have been thus called, from its use in separating the important members of a compound sentence.

COMMA, [Gr. \(komma\), a piece cut off, a slice; from \(komma\), to cut off.] The point marked thus (,) and probably so called, from its separating, or cutting off, the smaller parts of a sentence, from the main body.

COMPARISON, [Fr. \(comparaison\), resemblance, comparison; L. \(comparatio\).] The formation of an adjective to express its various degrees of signification, by means of different terminations, or words prefixed to them.

CONSONANT, L. \(consouan\), from \(con\), with, and \(sou\), to sound.] A letter so called because it has no sound except as united with a vowel, or which is never pronounced but in connection with a vowel sound.

CONJUGATION, [L. \(conjugatio\), from \(con\) and \(juge\) to yoke, and \(junge\) to join, to unite together.] A regular arrangement or distribution of the verb, according to the variation of its various modes, tenses, numbers and persons.

CONJUNCTION, [L. \(conunctio\), from \(con\) with, together, and \(jun-\)ge, to join, to unite together.] A word which connects or unites together other words or sentences.

DECLENSION, [L. \(declinatio\), from \(de\) and \(elin\), to lean.] The declination, or deviation of the termination of a word from the termination of the nominative case; the regular arrangement of a noun, according to its cases or terminations.

DEMONSTRATIVE, [\(L\). \(demonstratio\), to show.] Pointing out; or
having the property of showing or pointing out.

DERIVATION, [L. derivatio, from de and virus, a stream; to trace from, to derive.] The tracing of a word from its root, or source, so as to discover its origin.

DIPHTHONG, [Gr. διαίωγως, from δια, double, twice, and οίωγος, sound; a double sound.] The union of two vowel sounds in one, or two vowels pronounced in one syllable.

DISTRIBUTIVE, [L. distributus, to divide.] Separating, dividing, or having the property to separate or divide.

ETYMOLOGY, [Gr. ἐτυμος, true, and ὄγος, discourse.] That part of Grammar which treats of the classification and properties of words and their derivation.

EPIPHYSIS, [Gr. αἰκίας, an omission or defect.] An omission of a word, or of words, in a sentence.

EMPHASIS, [Gr. ἐμφασις, aspect, expression.] A stress of voice laid on a word, or on words to distinguish them from others, on account of their importance.

FEMININE, [L. femininus, from femina, a woman, a female.] Belonging to a female. It is applied to words which are the names of animals of the female kind, and denotes the female sex.

FUTURE, [L. futurus, that will be; Fr. futur.] That which is to come hereafter. Future Tense is the name of that form or variation of the verb which represents an action or event not as past or present, but to come.

GENDER, [Fr. genre, kind; L. genus.] The distinction of sex expressed by different words, or by a different termination of the same word. In English, nouns are varied in respect to gender, only to express sex; hence, as there are but two sexes, there can be but two genders.

GRAMMAR, [Gr. γραμματική, from γράμμα, a letter; literature, grammatical rules.] Theoretically, the science of language; practically, the art of speaking or writing language correctly.

IMPERATIVE, [L. imperativus, from impero, to command; Fr. impératif.] The Imperative Mode is that form of the verb which expresses command, entreaty, exhortation, permission.

INACTIVE, [L. in, not, and active.] Designates those verbs which imply state, condition, or existence without action.

INDICATIVE, [L. indicativus, from indicare, from in and dicere, to speak, show, or declare.] Indicating or declaring. The Indicative Mode is the name of that form of the verb which indicates or declares, affirms or denies.

INFINITIVE, [L. infinitus, infinite, indefinite; Fr. infinitif.] Unlimited. The Infinitive Mode denotes that form of the verb which is not limited by number or person, or which has no subject.

INTERJECTION, [L. interjectio, from inter, between, and jacto, to throw.] A word thrown in between other words grammatically connected, to express some sudden emotion or passion.

INTRANSITIVE, [L. intransitivus, from in, not, and transeco, to pass over.] Not passing over. It is applied to that class of active verbs whose action is limited to the agent, and which consequently do not take after them an object.

LANGUAGE, [Fr. langage, from L. lingua, the tongue, speech.] Human speech, which consists of symbols, either articulate sounds or written words, for the expression of our thoughts or ideas.

LETTER, [Fr. lettre; L. lettera.] A mark or character, which is the representative of an articulate sound. A letter is the first element of written language, and the sound which it represents, the first element of spoken language.

MASCULINE, [L. masculinus, from mas, a male; Fr. masculin.] Of the male kind. The Masculine Gender is applied to that word, or that form of a word, which is appropriated to the names of males, or animals of the male kind.

MODE or MOOD, [Fr. mode; L. modus, manner.] The manner of conjugating verbs to express a different manner of action or being.

NOMINATIVE, [L. nominativus,
from nominе, to name, from nomen, name.] Naming, or of a name. The Nominative Case is the first case, and denotes the subject, which is usually the agent, or actor. In passive verbs the subject or nominative case becomes the person, or thing acted upon.

NOUN, [corruption of the L. nomen, a name.] That by which any thing is known or called. The name of a person, thing, or conception.

NUMBER, [Fr. nombre; L. numerus.] The form or termination of a noun, to express one, or more than one.

ORTHOGRAPHY, [Gr. ὀρθογραφία, from ὀρθός, right, and γράφειν, writing, from γράφω, to write.] The art of writing words with their proper letters. Hence, it treats of letters, syllables and words, so far as their nature and formation are concerned.

ORTHOEZY, [Gr. ὀρθοευθεία, from ὀρθός, right, and ἐυθεία, word, or ἐπεί, to speak.] The art of speaking or pronouncing words correctly or with propriety.

OBJECTIVE, [Fr. objectif; L. objectus, from ob and jacio, to throw against, or in the way of.] Belonging to the object. The Objective Case denotes the object of an action or relation, and, therefore, follows a verb or its participle, or a preposition.

PARTICIPLE, [L. participium, from participem; pars, a part, and capio, to take.] A word which partakes of the properties of two parts of speech, as of the noun and verb, or adjective and verb.

PASSIVE, [Fr. passif; L. passivus, from passus, suffering, patior, to suffer.] Suffering, or receiving action. A Passive Verb denotes the form of a verb, or is the form of a verb to express the action of some agent, received.

PAST, [perfect participle of the verb to pass.] Gone by, taken place; neither present nor to come. The Past Tense is that form of a verb which represents an action as having taken place, or a state, event, or fact, as having existed in time gone by.

PAUSE, [Fr. pause; Gr. ἡμετέρα, from ἡμέρα, to cease, to rest.] A stop, a cessation; a rest in reading or speaking.

PERFECT, [L. perfectus, from perfectus; per, through, facio, to do or make; to carry through, to finish.] Finished, complete. The Perfect Tense is that form of the verb which represents an act or event of past time, not as going on in some time past, but completed; and this act or event is always in some way associated with present time.

PERIOD, [L. periodus; Gr. περίοδος, from περι, about, and ὁδός, the way.] The point marked thus (.), which denotes the end of a full sentence, or a complete stop.

PERSON, [L. persona, thought to be from per, through, and sonus, a sound; a word which originally signified a mask worn by actors.] The distinction of the individuals speaking, spoken to, or spoken of, in discourse.

POSITIVE, [Fr. positif; L. positivus.] Absolute, express. The positive degree expresses simple or absolute quality.

POSSESSIVE, [L. possessivus, possessus, possideo, to possess, to own.] Having possession, or pertaining to possession. The Possessive Case is that form of a noun which denotes property, possession, or relation.

POTENTIAL, [L. potentialis, from potens, from possum, to be able.] Having power or ability. The Potential Mode is the name given to that form of the verb which expresses possibility, liberty, power, will, obligation.

PREDICATE, [L. praedicco, to affirm.] That which is affirmed or denied of the subject. A finite verb either alone, or in connection with its modifying words.

PREPOSITION, [L. præpositio, from præ, before, and ponē, to put or place.] A word standing before another, to express some relation, action, or quality concerning it.

PRESENT, [Fr. present; L. present, from præ and sens, esse, to be.] Pertaining to that which is now. The Present Tense denotes that form of the verb which expres-
Glossary.

Ses action or being in the present time.

PRIOR, [L. prior, former, before.]
Applied to verbs, prior means before in point of time. The Prior Past Tense is the form of a verb to express an action or event, which took place before, or prior to, some other past action, event, or time. The Prior Future Tense is the form of a verb to express an action that will take place before, or prior to, some future time specified.

PRONOUN, [L. pro, for, and noun.]
A word which stands in the place of a noun, or for a noun.

PROSODY, [Fr. prosodie; L. prosodia; Gr. προσοδία; from προσ, and ὑπάρχω, an ode.] That part of grammar which treats of pronunciation and the laws of versification.

PUNCTUATION, [L. punctum, a point.]
The art of pointing, or marking with proper points, written discourse.

PRONUNCIATION, [Fr. prononciation; L. pronunciatio.]
The art or act of uttering words or sentences correctly.

QUANTITY, [Fr. quantité; It. quantità; from L. quantitas, how much.]
The measure of a syllable, or the relative time of pronouncing it.

SEMICOLON, [L. semi, half, and colon; a half colon.]
The point marked thus (;), and of half the duration of the colon.

SPEECH, [L. speech, from speeque, to spak.]
The power or act of uttering articulate sounds.

SENTENCE, [Fr. sentence, from L. sententia, from sentio, to think.]
A number of words so arranged as to make complete sense.

SPELLING, [S. spellum, to tell, to discourse; Danish spellen, to spell.]
The naming or writing of the letters of a word; the forming of words with their proper letters.

SUBJECT, [Fr. sujet; L. subjectus.]
The nominative case to a verb. That of which something is affirmed or spoken.

SUBJUNCTIVE, [Fr. subjunctif; L. subjunctivos, from subjungo, to subjoin, or add.]
Subjoined or added to something before said or written. The Subjunctive Mode denotes the form of a verb which follows other verbs, and implies doubt, contingency, hypothesis.

SUBSTANTIVE, [L. sub, and sto, to stand; to stand for.]
That which stands for any person, thing, or conception; the same as name, or noun.

SUPERLATIVE, [Fr. superlatif; L. superlativos, borne over or above.]
Highest in degree of quality.

SYLLABLE, [Latin syllaba; Greek συλλαβή, a taking together.]
A letter or several letters uttered by a single impulse of the voice.

SYNTAX, (Latin syntaxis; Greek σύνταξις; from συν, together, and τάκτω, to put.) The construction of sentences by a correct arrangement of words according to the principles of language and authorized usage.

TONE, [Fr. ton; L. tonus; Gr. τόνος, a sound; from τονεω, to sound.]
The peculiar sounds or inflections of the voice in reading or speaking.

TENSE, (corruption of Fr. temps; L. tempus, time.) A form of the verb, to express the time of an action, event, or fact.

TRANSITIVE, (L. transito, from transco, from trans, over, beyond, and eo, to pass.) Passing over, or having the power of passing over. Transitive verbs are those whose action passes over to some object, or terminates on some object expressed or evidently implied.

TRIPHTHONG, (Gr. τριφθόνγος, three, and φθόνος, sound.) Three vowels united in one sound.

VERB, (L. verbum, a word; so called by way of eminence, it being the chief word in the sentence.) That part of speech which expresses action, being, or state.

VERIFICATION, (Fr. verificatation, the making of verses; from verifer, to verify.) The art or act of composing poetic verse.

VOWEL, (Fr. voyelle; L. vocalis, from voco, to call.) A simple sound, as that of e, u, o. A sound formed by opening the mouth, without any other modulation.

WORD, [S. word, or word.]
A vocal or articulate sound, which is the representation of an idea; the letters which stand for such a sound.