A

PRACTICAL GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

BY NOBLE BUTLER, A. M.

STEREOTYPE EDITION.

LOUISVILLE, KY.
JOHN P. MORTON & CO.

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PREFACE.

Since the publication of the first edition, this work has been carefully revised, and many corrections and improvements have been made. The Author would direct attention particularly to the "Parsing Exercises," at the end of the book. These consist principally of selections from the best writers in the language; and they are regularly arranged according to the rules and remarks in the Syntax. Thus every principle is illustrated by quotations from the best authorities. The Author has attempted to remove difficulties by notes at the bottom of the page.

In the first edition an apology was made for giving new names to the tenses. But these names find so much favor with the best grammarians, that no apology is needed.

The Author would direct attention to his mode of treating Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Prepositions, and Adverbs, in the Etymology; and to the Syntax. The rules for the Analysis of Sentences have been taken, with some changes, from Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar.

ADVERTISEMENT TO TEACHERS.

The additional "Parsing Exercises" on the 216th and following pages, are so arranged that they may be used immediately after the corresponding exercises in the body of the work. Thus, if the teacher should find that any class has not become sufficiently acquainted with the noun by parsing the exercises on p. 33, he may turn to p. 216, where will be found additional exercises of the same kind. The additional exercises arranged according to the rules of Syntax, may be parsed in connection with those in the body of the work, or the parsing of them may be postponed till the pupil has gone through the Syntax.

CONTENTS.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR treats of the principles of the English language. These principles relate,

1. To the written characters of the language;
2. To its pronunciation;
3. To the classification of its words;
4. To the construction of its sentences;
5. To its versification.

The first division is called ORTHOGRAPHY; the second, ORTHOEPY; the third, ETYMOLOGY; the fourth, SYNTAX; and the fifth, PROSODY.

Note.—These principles are derived from the usage of the best writers and speakers.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY treats of the letters and other characters of a language, and the proper mode of spelling words.

LETTERS.

A *letter* is a character used to represent an articulate sound.

An *articulate sound* is the sound of the human voice formed by the organs of speech.

There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet.

Of what does English Grammar treat?
To what do these principles relate?
What are the names of the divisions of English Grammar?
From what are the principles of Grammar derived?
Of what does Orthography treat?
What is a letter?
What is an articulate sound?
How many letters in the English alphabet?

CLASSES OF LETTERS.

Letters are divided into *vowels* and *consonants.*

A *vowel* represents a sound which is perfect without the aid of another sound.

A *consonant* represents a sound which is made in conjunction with a vowel sound.

A, e, i, o, u, are vowels; *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z,* are consonants.

W and *y* are consonants when they are immediately followed by a vowel sound in the same syllable; as in *want, twine, what,* youth, yellow.*

In other cases *w* and *y* are vowels; as in *now, sawing, sky, type, holy, eye.*†

EXERCISES.

Tell in which of the following words *w* and *y* are consonants, and in which they are vowels.

Water, wet, winter, young, yet, yonder, boy, joy, glory, sowing, sawing, new, newly, eye, scythe, brow, cow, when, whip, which, paw, enjoying, swine, try, swim.

CLASSES OF CONSONANTS.

The consonants are divided into *mutes* and *semi-vowels.*

The *semi-vowels* have an imperfect sound by themselves; the *mutes* have no sound by themselves.

The mutes are *b, p, d, t, k, q, c hard,* and *g hard.*‡

Into what two classes are letters divided? What is a vowel? What is a consonant? Name the vowels—the consonants. When are *w* and *y* consonants?

Into what two classes are consonants divided? What is a semi-vowel?—a mute? What consonants are mutes?

* Though *h* in *what* is placed after *w*, it is sounded before it.

† In this word, *y* is followed by a vowel, but the vowel is not sounded.

‡ *C* is *hard* when it has the sound of *k*, as in *cat;* and *soft* when it has the sound of *s*, as in *city.* *G* is *hard* when it is sounded as in *gun;* and *soft* when it has the sound of *j*, as in *gentle.*

The semi-vowels are *f*, *h*, *j*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *s*, *v*, *z*, *c soft*, and *g soft*.

X is a double consonant, equivalent to *ks*.

Four of the semi-vowels, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, are called *liquids*, on account of their smooth, flowing sound.

Remarks.—The vowels represent *sounds*, the consonants *modifications* of sound made by the lips, tongue, palate, etc. Thus, if we make the sound represented by *a*, and close the lips, we make that modification of sound which is represented by *p*. The *mutes* close the organs, so that no sound can be emitted while the organs are in that position; the *pure* mutes (*p*, *k*, *t*, *q*, and *c hard*,) entirely, the others almost so. The *semi-vowels* admit the passage of sound through the mouth or the nose. Some of the semi-vowels (as *v* and *z*,) are almost as pure sounds as the vowels. The sounds of the vowels, and the modifications represented by the consonants, are so closely connected, that the most obvious division of words seems to be into *syllables*; and accordingly we find that in the Hebrew, and other early languages, the letters represented syllables. The division into vowels and consonants was the result of a more accurate investigation of the elements of speech.

DIPHTHONGS.

Two vowels in immediate succession in the same syllable, form a *diphthong*; as, *ou* in *found*.

A *proper* diphthong is one in which both vowels are sounded; as, *oi* in *voice*.

An *improper* diphthong is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, *ea* in *beat*.

TRIPHTHONGS.

Three vowels in immediate succession in the same syllable, form a *triphthong*; as, *eau* in *beau*.

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

What consonants are semi-vowels? What is said of *x*? Which of the semi-vowels are called liquids? Why?

What is a diphthong?—a proper diphthong?—an improper diphthong?—a triphthong?—a proper triphthong?

An *improper* triphthong is one in which all the vowels are not sounded; as, *eau* in *beauty*.

SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

A *syllable* is a letter, or a combination of letters, uttered at a single impulse of the voice. Thus; in *amen*, *a* constitutes one syllable, and *men* another.

A *word* is a syllable, or a combination of syllables, used as the sign of some idea.

A word of one syllable is called a *monosyllable;* a word of two syllables, a *dissyllable;* of three syllables, a *trisyllable;* of four or more syllables, a *polysyllable.*

EXERCISES.

Tell which of the following words are monosyllables, which dissyllables, etc.

Twenty, man, happy, unity, school, safety, book, baker, magnanimous, monosyllable, dissyllable, trisyllable, ambiguity, vulture, tough, crucifix, homily.

A *primitive* word is one which is not derived from another word in the language; as, *man*, *holy*, *love*.

A *derivative* word is one which is derived from another word in the language; as, *manly*, *holiness*, *loving*.

A *compound* word is one which is composed of two or more words; as, *schoolmaster*, *laughter-loving*.

A *simple* word is one which is not compounded; as, *word*, *man*.

What is an improper triphthong? What is a syllable? What is a word? What is a word of one syllable called?—of two syllables?—of three syllables?

What is a primitive word?—a derivative word?—a compound word?—a simple word?

Remarks.—1. Compound words in common use have their component parts united together, and are written as single words; as, *inkstand.*

2. Other compound words have a hyphen between the component parts; as, *cloud-compelling.*

SPELLING.

This art is to be learned from the dictionaries and spelling-books. Assistance may be derived from the following

GENERAL RULES FOR SPELLING.

RULE I.

Monosyllables which end in *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass.*

Exceptions.—Of, *if*, *as*, *is*, *has*, *was*, *yes*, *his*, *this*, *us*, *thus*, *gas*, *pus.*

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following words.

Mil, mis, gues, bles, spel, wal, tal, stif, puf, gros, las, til.
Iff, iss, hass, yess, thiss, gass.

RULE II.

Words ending in any other consonant than *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter; as, *war*, *drug.*

Exceptions.—Add, *odd*, *ebb*, *inn*, *err*, *purr*, *butt*, *buzz*, *egg.*

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following.

Rapp, whenn, gunn, bragg, tarr, batt, sinn, onn, forr, tubb.
Ad, eb, od, eg, buz.

RULE III.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded

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How are compound words in common use written?
How are other compounds written?
What is the first general rule for spelling?
What are the exceptions?
What is the second general rule?—What exceptions?
What is the third general rule?

by a single vowel, double that consonant on receiving a termination beginning with a vowel.

Thus, *blot*, *blotting*, not bloting; *allot*, *allotting*, not alloting; *drop*, *dropped*, not droped; *shut*, *shutting*, not shuting; *quit*, *quitting*, not quiting.

Note.—In *quit*, *t* is preceded by two vowels, but the *u* has the consonant sound of *w*.

Remarks.—1. There are four conditions to be regarded in this doubling.

(1.) The word must be a monosyllable or a word accented on the last syllable.

(2.) The word must end in a single consonant.

(3.) The consonant must be preceded by a single vowel.

(4.) The termination must begin with a vowel.

Thus the word *differ* does not come under the rule, because it is not a monosyllable, nor accented on the last syllable; consequently we write *differing*, *differed*, etc., with one *r*.

The word *defend* is accented on the last syllable; but it does not come under the rule, because it ends with two consonants, *n d*; consequently we write *defending*, not *defendding*.

The word *soil* is a monosyllable, and the word *recoil* is accented on the last syllable, and each of them ends with a single consonant: but they do not come under the rule, because the consonant is preceded by a *diphthong*, and not by a single vowel; consequently we write *boiling*, *recoiling*, with one *l*.

The word *allotment* is spelled with one *t*, because the termination *ment* does not begin with a vowel.

2. The reason for doubling the consonant is that the short sound of the vowel may be retained in the derivative. Thus, *bloting* would be pronounced like *bloating*, with the long sound of *o*. In such words as *differing*, *defending*, *boiling*, *allotment*, the proper sound is retained without doubling.

3. If the derivative removes the accent to another syllable, the consonant is not doubled. Thus, *refer* is accented on the last syllable, *fer*; but in *reference* the accent is removed from *fer* to another syllable, and the word is written with one *r*.

4. In many words ending in *l*, the *l* is generally doubled, though the accent is not on the last syllable; as in *traveller*, *modelling*, *pencilled*. So the derivatives of *bias*, *worship*, and *kidnap*, double *s* and *p*; as in *biassing*, *worshipped*, *kidnapper*. But Webster and others spell such words with the consonants single; as, *traveler*, *biased*, *worshiping*.

5. *X* is not doubled, because it is a double consonant. Thus, *vexing*, not *vexxing*.

When is it improper to double the last consonant?

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following.

Spot, spoted; allot, allotted; annul, annuled; refer, refering; permit, permited; overset, overseting; beg, begar; dig, diging; begin, beginer; run, runer.

Boil, boilling; differ, differrence; proceed, proceedding; defeat, defeatted; embroil, embroilling; bigot, bigotted; general, generallize; deep, deepper.

RULE IV.

Words ending in *ll*, to avoid trebling a letter, reject one *l* when *less* or *ly* is added; as, *skill, skilless; chill, chilly.*

Remarks.—1. Words ending in any other double letter, retain the letter double before these terminations; as, *odd, oddly; careless, carelessly.*

2. Some authorities say that one *l* is rejected when *full* or *ness* is added; as *skill, skilfull; chill, chilness.* But Mr. Webster and others retain *ll*, and write *skillfull, chillness.*

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following.

Dull, dullly; hill, hillly; full, fullly; skill, skillless.

Stiff, stifly; peerless, peerlesly; harmless, harmlesly.

RULE V.

Final *e* is omitted before terminations beginning with a vowel; as, *save, saving; force, forcible; blame, blamable.*

Exceptions.—Words ending in *ce* or *ge* retain *e* before *able*, to preserve the soft sound of *c* and *g*; as, *change, changeable; peace, peaceable.*

Remarks.—1. Some writers retain *e* when *able* is added to *blame, move, reprove, sale*, and their compounds.

2. The word *singe* retains *e* before *ing*, to distinguish it from *singing* from *sing.* The word *hoe* also retains *e* before *ing.*

What is the fourth general rule? What is said about words ending in any other double letter? Is one *l* dropped when *full* or *ness* is added to words ending in *ll*? What is the fifth rule? What exceptions?

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following.

Slave, slaveish; convince, convinceing; change, changeing; please, pleaseing; excuse, excuseable; leave, leaveing; ride, rideing; blue, blueish.

Charge, chargable; service, servicable; change, changable; singe, singing.

RULE VI.

Silent *e* is retained before terminations beginning with a consonant; as, *close, closely; abate, abatement.*

Exception.—Duly, truly, awful, drop *e. Argument* is derived from the Latin *argumentum,* and not from *argue.*

When the *e* is preceded by *dg,* some drop and others retain *e;* as, *abridge, abridgment,* or *abridgement.* The *e* is usually dropped in judgment.

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following.

Sincere, sincerly; sedate, sedatness; advance, advancment; cease, ceasless; love, lovly; waste, wastful; arrange, arrangment.

Judge, judgement; lodge, lodgement; acknowledge, acknowledgement.

RULE VII.

Words ending in *y,* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* when a termination is added; as, *fly, flies; merry, merrier, merriest, merriment.*

Exception 1.—Before *ing, y* is retained, that *i* may not be doubled; as, *carry, carrying.*

Remark.—Words ending in *ie,* after dropping *e* before *ing,* change *i* into *y* for the same reason; as, *die, dying.*

Exception 2.—*Dyeing,* the present partciple of *dye,* retains *e* to distinguish it from *dying,* the participle of *die.*

What is the sixth rule? What exception? What is the seventh rule? | What exceptions to the seventh rule?

Remark.—Words ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel, retain the *y*; as *play, playing; valley, valleys.*

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following.

Happy, happyer; mercy, mercyful; spy, spyes; carry, carryed; vary, varyance; deny, denyed; lady, ladyes.

Tarry, tarriing; deny, deniing; fancy, fanciing.

Stay, staiing; dismay, dismaied; valley, vallies; chimney, chimnies; day, daies.

RULE VIII.

Some words ending in *ll* drop one *l* in composition; as, *full, handful; all, always.*

Remark.—Some writers improperly drop one *l* in such words as *foretell, enroll, recall.*

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following.

Carefull, wellcome, usefull, allways, hurtfull, allready.

Fulfil, miscal, waterfal, sandhil.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

Some of the words in the following exercises are to be corrected according to the preceding rules; others are intended to exercise the pupil in consulting the dictionary.

Vices are two often called follys.

How doo you spel *recieve* and *beleive?*

Til and *untill* have the same meaning.

Neglect no oportunity of dooing good.

All our comforts procede from the Father of goodness.

A dutyful child will be loveed by awl.

We are frequently benefitted by what we have dreadded.

We should make a propper use of the tallents commited to us.

Picturs that resemble flowers smel onely of paint.

Irreconcileable animosity is allways blameable.

To reason with the angry, iss like whisperring to the deaf.

An obliging and humble disposition is totally unconnected with a servil and cringeing humor.

What is said of words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel?
What is the eighth rule?
What remark about such words as *foretell?* etc.

With all thy geting, get understanding.

A man may have a verry good judgement, without being possessed of tallent.

Abridgements of historry are in most respects useles.

PUNCTUATION.

Note.—The rules for punctuation, for the use of capital letters, etc., will be given hereafter.

ORTHOËPY

Treats of the right *pronunciation* of words. This is to be learned from dictionaries and spelling-books.

ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification of words, and their modifications.

Words are divided into *eight* classes, called *Parts of Speech.*

These parts of speech are called *Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Preposition, Adverb, Conjunction,* and *Interjection.*

Note.—The *article* belongs to the class of *adjectives.*

NOUN.

A noun is the *name* of an object; as, *John, horse, whiteness.*

Remark.—An object may have either a real existence, or merely an existence attributed to it by the mind. Thus, *horse* is the name of an object which has a real existence; but *whiteness* is the name of a quality which has no real existence independent of the object to which it belongs, and is merely considered by the mind as having an existence by itself.

The mind may consider even *non-entity,* or the *absence* of a thing, as a positive idea; as, *non-existence, nought, nullity, nothing.*

Of what does Orthoëpy treat?
Of what does Etymology treat?
Into how many classes are words divided?
What are the names of the parts of speech?
What is a noun?

EXERCISES.

Name the nouns among the following words. There are twelve in each division.

1. John is a boy. James met a beggar. The man and his horse are out in the rain. Thomas threw a snowball. George went to Cincinnati in a steamboat.

2. That tree is high. The cat scratched the dog. The sun gives light. The fixed stars are supposed to be suns. Fishes swim in the sea. The snail does not move quite so fast as the eagle or hawk.

3. A big stick. The long rope. Soft, silky hair. Clean hands and shining faces. Frosty weather makes red noses. The cat ran off with a piece of meat in her mouth. Sharp claws.

4. The horse runs swiftly. The swiftness of the deer is wonderful. A virtuous man is loved. Virtue is lovely. The night is dark. Darkness is gloomy. Thomas has torn the cover, leaves, and back of his book.

5. These are beautiful flowers. The beauty of the plants in the garden. A brilliant light. The brilliancy of the color. Iron is hard. The hardness of stone. Howard was a good man.

6. Cicero was an orator. Love is stronger than death. Lead is heavy. Flour is made of wheat. Falsehood is base. Wisdom is more precious than jewels. The stars were created by God.

7. The busy bee gathers honey from flowers. In the spring, the trees put out leaves. In the winter, snow falls, and water freezes. Walnuts have hard shells, but sweet kernels.

Note.—When two or more words are employed to designate one individual, they are considered as *one* name or noun; as, *Robinson Crusoe*, *William Henry Harrison*.

8. George Washington was the first president, and was succeeded by John Adams. The name of the present king of France is Louis Philippe. Daniel Boone was one of the first explorers of the western country. Napoleon Bonaparte was a great general.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

Nouns are divided into two classes; *proper* and *common*.

A proper noun is the name of an *individual* object; as, *John, Vesuvius.*

A common noun is a name applied to all objects belonging to the same class; as, *boy, mountain.*

Note.—*Vesuvius* is the name of an individual mountain; but *mountain* is a name belonging to each one of a whole class of objects. These objects are classed together, and have the same name on account of having certain properties in common.

Remarks.—1. The same proper name is often applied to each of several individuals, but not because they have certain properties in common, and form a class. Thus, several persons are called *John*, but these individuals do not form a class.

2. Proper names are sometimes used to designate a class, and then become common nouns; as, "The twelve Cæsars." Here twelve individuals are *classed together*, because they have the same name, at least, in common.

3. Proper names sometimes become common, when the names of distinguished individuals are applied to others possessing similar qualities. Thus we say of a great and good general, "He is a Washington," or, "The Washington of his country."

4. Proper nouns always begin with capital letters.

A common noun which designates two or more objects, considered as one collection, or body, is called a *collective* noun; as, *pair, flock, army, multitude.*

Note.—The word army denotes a great many individuals, but they are considered as forming a *single body.*

EXERCISES.

1. Name the proper and common nouns in the exercises on page 15: also in the following.

The Ohio is a beautiful river. Frankfort is the capital of the state of Kentucky, but Louisville is the largest town. Henry

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Into what classes are nouns divided?
What is a proper noun?
What is a common noun?
When the same proper name belongs to each of several individuals, why is it not a common noun?
When do proper nouns become common?
How do proper nouns always begin?
What is a collective noun?

has a dog named Fido. George went down to New-Orleans on the steamboat Grey Eagle.

The Ben Sherrod was burned on the Mississippi, and many lives were lost. The falls of Niagara are between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario. The Andes are lofty mountains. The battle of Waterloo occurred in June. William Henry Harrison died on the third day of April.

2. Mention three proper nouns—three common.

3. Put a proper noun instead of each of the following dashes.

— behaves well. — knows her lesson. I saw —. — killed —. He knows —. — and — went to town. — and — are good girls. — can jump farther than —. — is a large city. — is a great country. The — is a beautiful river. The steamboat — arrived at — to-day.

4. Put a common noun instead of each of the following dashes.

I saw my — to-day. — are larger than —. Those are delicious —. My — is better than yours. Your — is worth more than my —. This is a red —. She has a new —. He has written a —. The sun rising above the — had gilded the — of the —.

5. Put proper nouns in place of the common nouns in the following.

A man is larger than a boy. A liar is as bad as a thief. A drunkard injures himself. A horse can run fast. I saw a girl. The bird sings sweetly. A dog barks.

6. Put a collective noun in each of the following blank spaces.

That is a large —. Alexander defeated the — of Darius. The — agreed in their verdict. A large — of cattle. A small — of birds. The — was dismissed. Follow not the — to do evil.

ABSTRACT AND SUBSTANTIAL NOUNS.

An *abstract* noun is the name of a *quality*, or of *action*, or *being*, or of a *mode* of action or being; as, *whiteness, goodness, haste, confusion, action, existence.*

What is an abstract noun?

Remarks.—1. These nouns are called *abstract*, because they are the names of qualities, etc., *abstracted;* that is, considered apart from the objects to which they belong. Thus, *honesty* does not really exist without being connected with some individual, but the mind abstracts it from all individuals, and considers it as an object existing by itself: as "*Honesty* is the best policy." So *destruction* is considered apart from any destroyer.

2. These are usually classed among common nouns, though not very properly. An abstract noun does not denote a *class* of objects. The word *honesty*, for example, denotes a quality which is found in many individuals, but it is always the same quality; but the word *boy*, when applied to Thomas, does not mean the same individual that it does when applied to John. Abstract nouns, when used as such, have no plural, and do not admit of *a*, or *an*, or *one*, before them, as every noun does which denotes a class. In these respects abstract resemble proper nouns.

3. The same word may be either an abstract or a common noun, according to the meaning attached to it. Thus, when we say, "Virtue is lovely," we use the word *virtue* as the name of a single quality; and it is an abstract noun; but when we speak of the *virtues* of charity, of justice, of temperance, etc., the word is applied to a class, and is a common noun.

Substantial nouns are such as denote the *substance* of which objects are composed. Such are the names of metals, grain, etc.; as, *iron, gold, wheat, snow, fire.*

Remarks.—1. These, as well as abstract nouns, are usually classed with common nouns. But they do not, strictly speaking, denote *classes* of objects. Like abstract nouns, they have no plural, and do not admit *a*, or *an*, or *one*, before them.

2. Substantial, as well as abstract nouns, may become common nouns by varying the sense. Thus, when we say, "Snow is white," we use *snow* as a *substantial* noun; but when we say, "A snow fell last night," we mean a *body* of snow, and use the word as a common noun. The words *cottons, grasses*, etc., are often used instead of *kinds* of grass, etc.; these words are in such cases used as common nouns.

To nouns belong *number, gender, case*, and *person.*

NUMBER.

Number is a modification of nouns to denote whether one object is meant, or more than one.

Why are abstract nouns so called? | What belong to nouns?
What are substantial nouns? | What is number?

There are two numbers; the *singular* and the *plural.*

The singular number denotes *one* object; as, *chair, tree.*

The plural number denotes *more than one;* as, *chairs, trees.*

EXERCISES.

1. Tell the number of each of the following nouns.

Book, knife, pens, chairs, table, candle, hats, bonnet, handkerchief, feet, hands, eye, ears, children, ox, mice, geese, teeth, oxen, leaves, wives, wife, women, men.

2. Tell the number of each of the nouns in the exercises on pages 15, 16, 17.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

The regular mode of forming the plural is by adding *s* to the singular; as, *book, books; page, pages.*

When the singular ends with a sound which cannot unite with *s*, then *es* is added; as, *church, churches; box, boxes; kiss, kisses; brush, brushes.*

Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant add *es;* as, *negro, negroes; wo, woes; hero, heroes.*

Exception.—Two has *twos*, because *o* has the sound of *oo.* Most persons write cantos, juntos, etc. It would be better to have uniformity.

Other nouns in *o* add *s* only; as, *folio, folios.*

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *ie*, and add *s;* as, *lady, ladies; fly, flies.*

Other nouns in *y* do not change the *y;* as, *day, days; valley, valleys.*

Proper nouns do not change the *y* when they are used in the plural; as, *the Henrys.*

How many numbers?
What does the singular number denote?—the plural?

What is the regular mode of forming the plural?—When is *es* added?
How do nouns in *o* form the plural?
How do nouns in *y* form the plural?

The following nouns change *f* and *fe* into *ve*, and add *s*:—*leaf, calf, self, half, beef, loaf, sheaf, shelf, wolf, wharf, thief, elf, wife, knife, life.* Thus, *leaves, calves, knives*, etc.

Staff makes *staves*; but the compounds of *staff* are regular; as, *flag-staff, flag-staffs.*

Other nouns in *f* and *fe* are regular: *fife, fifes; grief, griefs.*

The following nouns form the plural more irregularly.

Child.....children.	Tooth.....teeth.
Man.....men.	Foot.....feet.
Woman.....women.	Goose.....geese.
Ox.....oxen.	Mouse.....mice.
Louse.....lice.	Penny.....pence.
Die.....dice.	

Kine was formerly the plural of *cow.*

Brother has, besides the regular plural, *brethren*, which is now used only in the solemn style.

Die when it means a *stamp*, has a regular plural.

We use *pence* when referring merely to the *value*, and *pennies* when referring to the *number* of coins. Thus, six *pence* may be all in one coin; but six *pennies* are six separate coins.

Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, swine, vermin, means, odds, news.*

When *people* signifies a *community* or *body* of persons, it is a collective noun in the singular number, and has sometimes, though rarely, a plural; as, "Many *peoples*, and nations, and tongues, and kings."—*Revelation* x, 11. When it signifies *persons*, it is plural; as, "*Many people* were present."

The words, *alms, amends, riches, wages*, and *pains* (in the sense of laborious effort), are sometimes construed as singular, but more frequently as plural.

Bellows is by some considered as plural, like *tongs, scissors*, etc.; as, "To make a good orator of a *pair* of bellows."—*Tatler, No.* 70. By others it is considered both singular and plural.

How do nouns in *f* and *fe* form the plural?
What is the plural of *child*, etc.?
What is said of *kine*?
What is said of *brother*?—of *die*?—of *pence* and *pennies*?
Name the nouns which are alike in both numbers.
What is said of *people*?—of *alms*, and *amends*?—of *bellows*, etc.?

Gallows is used by some as both singular and plural; others make the plural *gallowses*. *See Webster's Dictionary.*

Fish has a regular plural; as, "Two small *fishes*;" but *fish* is often used as plural; as, "We are to blame for eating these *fish*." *Trout*, *salmon*, etc., are both singular and plural.

Such names of sciences as *mathematics*, *ethics*, *optics*, *acoustics*, *metaphysics*, *politics*, *pneumatics*, *hydrostatics*, are properly plural, though they are sometimes construed as singular. Good writers, to avoid a harsh construction, often join the word *science* to these terms; as, "The science of politics contains two parts," instead of "Politics contains two parts."

Horse and *foot*, when they denote bodies of soldiers, are plural; as, "The army consisted of five hundred *horse* and five thousand *foot*."

Sail, when it denotes a collection of ships, is plural; as, "The fleet consisted of forty *sail*."

Cannon and *shot* are sometimes used as plural.

Yoke is sometimes plural; as, "Five hundred *yoke* of oxen." —*Bible.*

Most *compounds* form their plural regularly, by adding *s* to the singular; as, *handful*, *handfuls*; *maid-servant*, *maid-servants*; *outpouring*, *outpourings*.

But sometimes the *noun* of the compound, when it comes first, is treated as if not coalescing with the other parts, and the *s* is added to the simple noun, and not to the end of the compound word; as, *father-in-law*, *fathers-in-law*; *court-martial*, *courts-martial*; *knight-errant*, *knights-errant*.

Man-servant changes both the simple words; as, *men-servants*. So, *women-servants*. See *Gen.* xx. 14.

Proper names take the plural form when two or more persons of the same name are classed together; as, "*The Mortons*." So, when a title (*Miss*, *Mr.*, etc.) is prefixed; as, "*The Miss Mortons*;" "*The Mr. Andersons*;" "*The Miss Broughtons*

What is said of *gallows*?—of *fish*?—of *mathematics*, *ethics*, etc.?
What is said of *horse* and *foot*?—of *sail*?—of *cannon* and *shot*?—of *yoke*?

How do compounds form the plural?
When do proper nouns take a plural form?
What takes place when a title is joined with a proper noun in the plural?

could not resist the example."—*Miss Burns*, in *Evelina*. "*The Miss Browns.*"—*Maria Edgeworth.* The title in such cases may be considered as an adjective; thus, the word *Miss* comprehends the ideas expressed by the adjectives *unmarried* and *female;* or, the title and the name may be considered as forming a compound name.

If the persons are spoken of individually, the *title* takes the plural form; as, "*Misses Julia and Maria Morton;*" "*Messrs.* George and Thomas Anderson.*"

Several nouns derived from foreign languages retain the plural forms of the languages from which they are derived.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Antithesis	antitheses.
Apparatus	apparatus.
Apex	apices.
Appendix‡	appendices.
Arcanum	arcana.
Automaton	automata.
Axis	axes.
Basis	bases.
Beau‡	beaux.
Calx	calces.
Cherub‡	cherubim.
Cicerone	ciceroni.
Crisis	crises.
Criterion‡	criteria.
Datum	data.
Desideratum	desiderata.
Diæresis	diæreses.
Effluvium	effluvia.
Ellipsis	ellipses.
Emphasis	emphases.
Encomium‡	encomia.
Erratum	errata.
Focus	foci.
Formula‡	formulæ.
Genus	genera.
Hiatus	hiatus.
Hippopotamus	hippopotami.
Hypothesis	hypotheses.
Ignis fatuus	ignes fatui.
Lamina	laminæ.
Magus	magi.
Medium	media.
Memorandum‡	memoranda.
Metamorphosis	metamorphoses.
Monsieur	messieurs.
Parenthesis	parentheses.
Phenomenon	phenomena.
Radius	radii.
Series	series.
Seraph‡	seraphim.
Species	species.
Stamen	stamina.
Stimulus	stimuli.
Stratum	strata.
Superfices	superfices.
Thesis	theses.
Vertex	vertices.
Vortex	vortices.
Virtuoso	virtuosi.

The words marked ‡ have also the plural in *s;* as, *append-*

When does the title take the plural form? What is said of some nouns derived from foreign languages?—What is the plural of *antithesis*, etc.?

* *Messrs.* is an abbreviation of the word *Messieurs*, the plural of the French word *Monsieur*, which corresponds to the English word *Mister*.

ixes, *beaus*; *cherubs*, *criterions*, *encomiums*, *memorandums*, *seraphs*. Some writers give the plural in *s* to other words in this list; as, *calxes*, *apparatuses*, *mediums*, *focuses*, *stamens*.

Genius has *genii* when ærial spirits are meant; but when persons of genius are meant, *geniuses*.

Index has *indices* when referring to algebraic quantities; but *indexes* when it signifies pointers, or tables of contents.

Animalcule has *animalcules*, or *animalculæ*.

To denote the plural of mere *characters*, *s* preceded by an apostrophe (') is added; as, *two a's; three 5's*.

Some words derived from foreign languages have no singular; as, *antipodes*, *credenda*, *literati*, *minutiæ*. So, *vertebrata*, *infusoria*, and some other scientific terms.

Abstract and *substantial* nouns, from the nature of their signification, have no plural. There are no such words as *whitenesses*, *hastes*, *golds*, *honesties*.

But where nouns which are usually abstract or substantial are used as common, they may have the plural form.

Such nouns as *scissors*, *lungs*, *tongs*, have no singular, because they denote objects which consist of *two parts*.

Some nouns in the singular number have a plural form; such are *molasses*, *measles*, etc. *Oats*, according to analogy, would be in the singular, since it is a substantial noun, like *wheat*, *rye*, etc.; but it is usually construed as plural.

EXERCISES.

Tell the plural form of the following words.

Table, door, chair, step, window, stove, oven, shovel, star, sun, moon, plant, candlestick, monarch, farmer, face, place, case.

Box, fox, miss, wish, lash, lass, loss, inch, watch, atlas.

What is said about *genius*?
What is said about *index*?—*animalcule*?
How is the plural of mere characters formed?
Name some nouns which have no singular.
What is said of *abstract* and *substantial* nouns?
What is said of such nouns as *scissors*, etc.?
What is said of *molasses*, etc.?

Volcano, hero, cargo, veto, calico, potato, buffalo, memento, mulatto, manifesto, octavo, motto.

Folio, bagnio, seraglio, punctilio, nuncio, bamboo, cuckoo, cameo.

Story, history, mystery, lady, baby, fancy, study, duty, cherry, berry, theory, fury, ally, sty, entry.

Day, play, chimney, alley, essay, ray, turkey, kidney, galley, valley.

Calf, self, beef, leaf, sheaf, shelf, life, grief, hoof, brief, roof, scarf, chief.

Child, ox, man, woman, tooth, foot, goose, mouse, louse, die, penny, brother.

Deer, sheep, swine, vermin, means, odds, news.

Handful, spoonful, cupful, sister-in-law, mother-in-law, commander-in-chief, court-martial.

Antithesis, apparatus, etc.

GENDER.

Gender is a modification of nouns to denote the distinction of sex.

There are four genders—the *masculine*, the *feminine*, the *common*, and the *neuter*.

Nouns which denote *males* are of the masculine gender; as, *man*, *boy*, *lion*.

Nouns which denote *females* are of the feminine gender; as, *woman*, *girl*, *lioness*.

Nouns which are applied to living beings *without reference to sex* are of the common gender; as, *parent*, *cousin*, *sheep*.

What is gender?
How many genders?

What nouns are of the masculine gender?
—of the feminine?—of the common?

Nouns which denote *things without sex* are of the neuter gender; as, *tree, paper, book.*

Note.—The word *neuter* means *neither*. There is a *male* sex, and a *female* sex, but no *neuter* sex; *neuter gender* is merely a grammatical term applied to the names of objects which have no distinction of sex. So the term *common gender* is a grammatical term applied merely to the *words*, and does not imply any common *sex*.

Remarks.—1. As none but living beings have the distinction of sex, the names of inanimate objects are, of course, neuter.

2. For some classes of living beings we have terms which are applied to every individual in the class without reference to sex, that is, nouns of the common gender; and also terms denoting the males and females, that is, nouns of the masculine and feminine genders.

Thus, *sheep* is of the common gender, *ram* of the masculine, and *ewe* of the feminine.

3. For other classes we have nouns of the common gender only; and when we wish to denote the males and females, we join to the nouns of the common gender words that point out the sex of the objects.

Thus, *sparrow* is of the common gender, and *cock-sparrow* denotes the male, and *hen-sparrow* the female.

4. For other classes we have no nouns of the common gender, but only those which denote the males and the females.

Thus, *horse* is of the masculine, and *mare* of the feminine gender; but there is no name applied to every individual in the class without reference to sex.

In such cases, if we wish to denote the whole class, we either

(*a*) Use both the masculine and feminine nouns: as, "*Brothers* and *sisters* should love each other;" or,

(*b*) Employ a circumlocution: as, "*The children of the same parents* should love each other;" or,

(*c*) Use the term applied to that sex, whether male or female, to which the attention is most frequently directed, to include the whole class. Thus, when we say, "*Horses* are graminivorous animals," we include *mares;* and when we say, "*Geese* are noisy," we include *ganders.*

EXAMPLES.

1. Of words which are applied to every individual in the class without reference to sex; the male and female being denoted by other words.

What nouns are of the neuter gender? Of what gender are inanimate objects? What is said of such words as *sheep* and *sparrow*?—of *horse, mare*, etc.?

Give some examples of words which are applied to every individual in the class, other words being connected with the name of the object to denote the sex.

Common Gender.	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Person	man	woman.
Child	son	daughter.
Parent	father	mother.
Deer of different kinds.	buck	doe.
	stag	hind.
	hart	roe.
Sheep	ram	ewe.
Hog	boar	sow.
Fish	milter	spawner.
Bird *or* fowl	cock	hen.

2. Of names applied to every individual in the class; other words being connected with the name of the object to denote the sex.

Common Gender.	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Relative	male relative	female relative.
Servant	man-servant	maid-servant.
Sparrow	cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow.
Goat	he-goat	she-goat.
Turkey	turkey cock	turkey hen.

3. Of different words applied to each of the sexes; no term common to both being in use.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
Bachelor	maid.
Beau	belle.
Boy	girl.
Bridegroom	bride.
Brother	sister.
Bull	cow.
Bullock *or* steer	heifer.
Dog	bitch.
Drake	duck.
Friar [monk]	nun.
Gander	goose.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
Horse	mare.
Husband	wife.
King	queen.
Lad	lass.
Lord	lady.
Nephew	niece.
Sir	madam.
Sloven	slut.
Uncle	aunt.
Wizard	witch.

To this class belong the following, in which the feminine noun is formed by adding a termination to the masculine, which in many instances undergoes some change. They are chiefly appellations derived from the offices and occupations of mankind.

The feminine termination *ess* is the regular English termina-

Give some examples of different words applied to each of the sexes, no term common to both sexes being in use.

tion; the other feminine terminations belong to foreign languages.

Masculine.	*Feminine.*
Abbot	abbess.
Actor	actress.
Adulterer	adulteress.
Arbiter	arbitress.
Baron	baroness.
Benefactor	benefactress.
Caterer	cateress.
Chanter	chantress.
Conductor	conductress.
Count	countess.
Dauphin	dauphiness.
Deacon	deaconess.
Duke	duchess.
Elector	electress.
Embassador*	embassadress.
Emperor	empress.
Enchanter	enchantress.
Giant	giantess.
God	goddess.
Governor	governess.
Heir	heiress.
Host	hostess.
Hunter	huntress.
Instructor	instructress.
Jew	Jewess.
Lion	lioness.
Marquis	marchioness.
Master	mistress.
Mayor	mayoress.
Patron	patroness.
Peer	peeress.
Poet	poetess.
Priest	priestess.
Prince	princess.
Prior	prioress.
Prophet	prophetess.
Protector	protectress.
Shepherd	shepherdess.
Songster	songstress.
Sorcerer	sorceress.
Tiger	tigress.
Traitor	traitoress.
Tutor	tutoress *or* tutress.
Viscount	viscountess.
Sultan	sultaness *or* sultana.
Czar	czarina.
Don	donna.
Infant	infanta.
Signor	signora.
Administrator	administratrix.
Executor	executrix.
Testator	testatrix.
Hero	heroine.
Landgrave	landgravine.
Margrave	margravine.

To these add *widower*, *widow*; the masculine in this case being formed from the feminine.

Remarks.—1. When nouns of the common gender are used, we may often determine, from some circumstance or other, whether males or females are referred to; but not from the nouns themselves. So far as the nouns are concerned, sex is left entirely out of view. It will not do to say that the nouns are either masculine *and* feminine, or masculine *or* feminine. In such a sentence as this, "John visited his two cousins," we cannot say that *cousins* is masculine, for both may be females; we cannot say it is feminine, for both may be males, we cannot say that *cousins* is masculine *and* feminine, for both cousins may be males, or both may be females; we cannot say that

When nouns of the common gender are used, can we determine whether males or females are referred to?

* Also written *ambassador*.

the word is masculine *or* feminine, for one cousin may be a male and the other a female.

2. Animals whose sex is unknown, or unnecessary to be regarded, are generally spoken of as neuter; as, "He shot at the deer, and missed *it*." On the same principle we say of a child, "*It* is sick."

3. Though in reality no objects except animals have the distinction of sex, yet in *figurative* language inanimate objects are often regarded as distinguished by sex. Thus we say of the sun, "*He* is shining;" or of the moon, "*She* is beautiful."

4. When inanimate objects are represented as having sex, the names of those which are distinguished for strength, power, or other qualities of the male sex are regarded as masculine; and the names of those distinguished for beauty, loveliness, or other feminine qualities are considered as feminine. Thus, the *sun*, *death*, *time*, *winter*, *war*, *anger*, are masculine; and the *moon*, *earth*, *nature*, *virtue*, *spring*, *peace*, *health*, are feminine.

5. A collective noun, when used properly as such, that is, when it denotes a *single collection* of objects, or is in the plural number, is neuter; as, "The *army* destroyed every thing in *its* course." But when reference is made to the *objects composing* the collection, it takes the gender of the individuals referred to.

EXERCISES.

1. Name three nouns of the masculine gender;—three of the feminine;—three of the neuter.

2. Tell the gender of each of the following nouns.

Hero, countess, book, toy, ladies, paper, gold, women, lord, master, candle, scissors, lamp, fire, tongs, Jewess, priestess, goose, watch, clock, wisdom, whiteness, cousin, parent.

3. Tell the gender of each of the nouns in the exercises on pages 15, 16, and 17.

CASE.

Case signifies the *relation* which nouns have to other words.

There are three cases; the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

How are animals whose sex is unknown, or unnecessary to be regarded, spoken of? Where inanimate objects are represented as having sex, what nouns are of the masculine gender? What of the feminine? Of what gender are collective nouns? What is case? How many cases?

NOMINATIVE CASE.

When a noun is the subject of a verb, it is in the nominative case; as, "*John* runs;" "The *dog* was killed."

Remarks.—1. The subject of a verb is that of which something is affirmed. It may usually be known by its forming the answer to the question made by putting *who* or *what* before the verb. Thus, if we ask, "*Who* runs?" the answer will be, "*John*;" if we ask, "*What* was killed?" the answer will be, "*The dog*." *John* and *dog*, then, are in the nominative case.

2. The nominative case is sometimes used independent of any verb, especially when an object is addressed; as, "*Jane*, Mary is industrious." *Jane* is said to be in the *nominative case independent*.

EXERCISES.

Seventeen of the following nouns are in the nominative case: name them. The words in italics are verbs.

Peter *whistles*. Jane *sings*. Mary *sings* sweetly. The horse *gallops*. Birds *fly* in the air. Whales *swim* in the sea. Josephine *is* beautiful. Benjamin *went* to town. Charles *is* attentive. The traveler *killed* the robber. George *saw* a deer. The rabbit *jumped* into the dog's mouth. The snake *bit* the dog. The elephant *is* large. The robber *was killed* by the traveler. Joseph *jumped* two inches. Solomon *excels* Joseph.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

When a noun denotes the relation of *property* or *possession*, it is in the possessive case; as, "*John's* hat."

The possessive case in the singular number is usually formed by adding *s* preceded by an apostrophe ['] to the nominative; as, *William*, *William's*; *boy*, *boy's*.

When the nominative plural ends in *s*, the possessive plural is formed by adding the apostrophe only; as, *boys*, *boys'*.

When is a noun in the nominative case?
What is the subject of a verb?
How may it usually be known?
When is a noun said to be in the nominative case independent?
When is a noun in the possessive case?
How is the possessive case formed in the singular?
How is the possessive case formed in the plural?

When plural nouns do not end in *s*, they form their possessive by taking both the apostrophe and *s*; as, "*Men's hats.*"

Remark.—When the nominative singular and nominative plural are alike, some place the apostrophe after the *s* in the possessive plural, to distinguish it from the possessive singular; as, *Singular*, deer's: *Plural*, deers'.

Sometimes when a word ends with the sound of *s*, or *z*, the addition of *s* would create a harshness of sound; in which case the apostrophe alone is added; as, "Goodness' sake;" "Archimedes' screw."

Remark.—No definite rule can be given on this subject; the ear must decide. We say, "The witness's oath;" "Clarence's dream;" "James's novels."

In compound words, the sign of the possessive case is placed at the end; as, "His *father-in-law's* horse;" "The *knight-errant's* adventure."

EXERCISES.

1. Name six nouns in the possessive case.

2. Write or spell the possessive case of each of the following words.

Man, boy, girl, women, men, boys, girls, John, James, Thomas, beauty, ox, master, mistress, councilman, alderman, aldermen, ladies.

OBJECTIVE CASE.

When a noun is the *object* of a transitive verb, or of a preposition, it is in the objective case; as, "John struck *William*;" "Thomas jumped over the *log*."

Here, *William* is the object of the verb *struck*; and *log* is the object of the preposition *over*.

Remarks.—1. The object may generally be known by its forming the answer to the question made by putting *whom* or *what* after the verb or preposition. Thus, "John struck *whom?*" Answer. *William.* "Thomas jumped over *what?*" Answer. The *log.*

How is the possessive case plural formed when the nominative plural does not end in *s*?
When is the possessive singular formed by adding the apostrophe alone to the nominative?
And why?
Where is the sign of the possessive case placed in compound words?
When is a noun in the objective case?
How may the object generally be known?

2. The noun is in the objective case when *me*, *us*, *him*, or *them* will make sense in its place.

EXERCISES.

Thirty of the following nouns are in the objective case; name them. The transitive verbs are in capital letters, and the prepositions in italics.

The snake BIT the dog. The wolf BIT the horse. John THREW a stone. The musician BROKE his violin. Peter SAW his shadow. Benjamin went *to* Boston. Boys LOVE sport. Mary THREW the book *into* the fire. Irene CRACKED a walnut *with* a hammer. George STRUCK a lamp-post *with* his fist. Edward went *from* Louisville *to* New-Orleans. Birds fly *in* the air. Peter INVITED Theodore. Edmund SAW a rabbit. Anne CUT an apple. The frost INJURED the corn. The hurricane DESTROYED the building. The fox ran *through* the thicket. Julius ADMIRED the brightness *of* the sun. Rollo ran *up* the steps, *into* the house, and fell *over* a chair *into* a tub *of* water. The horses DRAW the wagon.

Remark.—The objective case, with the preposition *of*, is often used instead of the possessive case. Thus, instead of "God's power," we may say, "The power of God." It is often more correct to employ this construction than to use the possessive.

EXERCISES.

Change the following in the same way.

John's book. The sun's splendor. Beauty's power. Slavery's chains. God's goodness. The comet's tail. For neatness' sake.

PERSON.

Person denotes the *character* which the noun has, according as the object is represented as *speaking*, spoken *to*, or spoken *of*.

A name applied by the speaker to himself is said to be of the *first* person; as, "I, *John*, saw it;" "I, the *governor*, make this proclamation;" "We *men* are sinful."

What is often used instead of the possessive case?

Define person. When is a noun said to be of the first person?

A name applied to the object addressed is said to be of the *second* person; as, "*Theodore*, give me my knife;" "*Children*, obey your parents."

A noun denoting the object spoken of is of the *third* person; as, "*John* saw it;" "*Men* are sinful;" "*Theodore* gave me my knife."

Remark.—A noun is never the subject of a verb, except when of the third person.

EXERCISES.

Tell the person of each of the following nouns.

Mary, you are a good girl. I, John Thomson, hereby certify. You, John Thomson, certify. John Thomson certifies. Consistency, thou art a jewel. Paul, thou art beside thyself.

I, Darius, make a decree. Darius made a decree. Darius, did you make a decree? Thou art fallen, O Lucifer! Thomas, come to me. Thomas did not come. Boys, you may go home. We boys are going home. The boys have gone home. Fathers, provoke not your children to wrath. I, James K. Polk, President of the United States. Our Father, who art in heaven!

DECLENSION.

Declension is the regular arrangement of a noun according to its numbers and cases.

EXAMPLES.

I. BOY.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Boy	boys.
Pos.	boy's	boys'.
Obj.	boy	boys.

II. LADY.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Lady	ladies.
Pos.	lady's	ladies'.
Obj.	lady	ladies.

III. MAN.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Man	men.
Pos.	man's	men's.
Obj.	man	men.

IV. BOX.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Box	boxes.
Pos.	box's	boxes'.
Obj.	box	boxes.

When is a noun said to be of the second person? When of the third?

What is declension? Decline *boy*, *lady*, *man*, *box*.

PARSING.

To parse a word is to tell its properties, and its relation to other words.

EXERCISES.

Parse the nouns in the following exercises. There are thirty-one. The words in italics are prepositions, and those in capitals are transitive verbs.

Peter DROVE the horse *from* John's barn. Columbus DISCOVERED America. The house was consumed *by* fire. The rain DESTROYED the crop. Jonathan HAS a book. The elephant HAS tusks. The colt ran away *from* Joseph. Mary LOVES birds. The gardener CULTIVATES flowers. Rain is refreshing *to* the plants. The cow KICKED the dog. Thomas sits *above* Robert. Coffee is spelled *with* two f's and *with* two e's. DOT your i's and CROSS your t's.

To parse a noun,

Tell, 1. What part of speech it is— . . and why?
2. Whether proper or common—and why?
3. Its number—.....and why?
4. Its gender— .....and why?
5. Its person—.....and why?
6. Its case.....and why?
7. The Rule.

MODEL.

"*Peter drove the horse from John's barn.*"

Peter is a noun — the name of an object; proper noun — the name of an individual object; in the singular number — it denotes but one object; masculine gender — it denotes a male; third person — the name of an object spoken of; in the nominative case — the subject of the verb *drove.*

RULE IV.—The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case.

Horse is a noun, etc.; common noun — a name applied to all objects belonging to the same class; singular number; masculine gender; third person; objective case — the object of the transitive verb *drove.*

RULE IX.—The object of a transitive verb is put in the objective case.

John's is a noun, etc.; in the possessive case — it denotes the relation of possession: it limits the meaning of the noun *barn.*

What is parsing? | How do you parse a noun?

RULE VIII.—A noun in the possessive case limits the meaning of another noun.

Barn is a noun, etc.; in the objective case — the object of the preposition *from*.

RULE X.—The object of a preposition is put in the objective case.

Note.—It is not necessary to keep the pupil constantly repeating the definitions; when he becomes perfectly familiar with the subject, let him tell the gender, etc., without giving the reason.

"*Coffee is spelled with two f's.*"

F's is a noun — the name of an object; common noun — etc.; plural number — etc.

ADJECTIVE.

An adjective is a word which qualifies or limits the meaning of a noun; as, "A *good* boy;" "a *sweet* apple;" "*one* book;" "*this* man."

Remark.—The word *adjective* signifies *adding* or *added;* and this part of speech is so called because it adds a quality or limitation to the meaning of a noun, or because it is added to a noun.*

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

There are two classes of adjectives; *qualifying* adjectives, and *limiting* adjectives.

A qualifying adjective expresses some *quality* which belongs to the object; as, "A *bad* road;" "a *ripe* nut;" "a *violent* storm."

Remark.—Qualifying adjectives not only express qualities belonging to the object, but at the same time limit the application of the noun. Thus, the expression, "a *red* apple," does not apply to so many objects as the word *apple* does, since there are not so many red apples are there are apples. The more adjectives we add to a noun, the fewer objects we include. The expression, "a *sweet, mellow, red* apple," comprehends more qualities than "a red apple," but does not extend to so many objects.

What is an adjective?
What does the word *adjective* signify?
Into what two classes are adjectives divided?
What does a qualifying adjective express?

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* The word *adjective* is generally said to signify *added to;* but words ending in *ive* have usually an active sense. Thus, *destructive* signifies not *destroyed*, but *destroying; corrosive* signifies not *corroded*, but *corroding.*

This is what grammarians mean when they say that adjectives increase the *comprehension*, but decrease the *extension* of nouns. *Limiting* adjectives affect only the extension.

Limiting adjectives do not express any quality belonging to the object; but merely limit the meaning of the noun; as, "*One* book;" "the *first* man;" "*that* thing;" "*forty* thieves."

Those limiting adjectives which are used in counting and numbering are called *numeral adjectives;* as, *one, two, three,* etc.; *first, second, third,* etc.

Adjectives derived from proper names are sometimes called *proper adjectives.*

Remarks.—1. The limiting adjectives, *each, every, either, neither, former, latter, some, other, any, one, all, such, none, this, that,* and the plural forms, *these, those,* are sometimes improperly called *adjective pronouns.*

2. The reason given for this is, that they sometimes belong to nouns like adjectives, and at other times *stand for* nouns like pronouns. Thus, in this sentence, "*Each* man has his faults," *each* limits the meaning of the noun *man;* but if *man* is omitted, it is said that *each* stands for *man;* as, "Each has his faults."

3. But it seems hardly correct to represent these adjectives as becoming pronouns when the noun is omitted. Other adjectives might be called pronouns on the same grounds. Thus, *good* might be called a pronoun in this sentence, "The good may err," because *persons* is omitted.

Note.—*Other* and *one* will be mentioned again when we come to speak of pronouns.

4. The limiting adjective *what* is sometimes called an *interrogative pronoun,* when it is used in asking questions, as, "What man is that?"

5. *This* and *that* are the only adjectives which have a different form before plural nouns.

6. *None* is used for *no,* when the noun is omitted; when *no* is used, the noun is always expressed. Thus, "*No person* is so deaf that he will not hear;" "*None* is so deaf that he will not hear." *None,* in this case, should be parsed as belonging to *person* understood. This word was formerly used when the noun was expressed; "We shall have none end."—*Bacon.*

What is a limiting adjective?
What are numeral adjectives?
What are proper adjectives?
What limiting adjectives are sometimes called adjective pronouns?
What adjectives change their forms before plural nouns?
What is said of *what?*
What is said of the use of *none* and *no?*

EXERCISES.

1. Join a qualifying adjective to each of the following nouns.

Table, chair, hat, cap, book, inkstand, pen, hand, hair, knife, window, boy, girl, woman, man, bird, cow, horse, dog, cat, coat, shoe, watch, tree, day, night, sun, moon, star.

2. Join a limiting adjective to each of the following.

Pen, gun, bullets, box, watch, table, birds, men, hand, gate, feather, foot.

3. Join one qualifying and one limiting adjective to each of the following.

Apple, pear, peach, road, street, town, bottle, fire, broom, boxes, balls.

4. Join a noun to each of the following adjectives.

Good, bad, fair, one, this, that, what, benevolent, happy, every, former, rich, poor, high, low, latter, tall, weak, long-handed, weak-minded, profitable, amusing, loving, Roman, American, English, Scotch, Irish.

5. Which of the preceding are qualifying and which limiting adjectives?

6. What nouns do the adjectives in the following sentences qualify or limit?

You may take this book, and I will take that. Let me die the death of the righteous. The wicked are like the troubled ocean. Anne is a good, but Jane is a bad girl. Providence rewards the good, but punishes the bad. What boy is that? What do I see? All have their faults. Round o and crooked s.

Note.—Nouns become adjectives when used to qualify other nouns; as, "The *river* bank;" "a *gold* cup;" "*Boston* crackers;" "the *fire* king;" "Kentucky girls."

7. Use the following nouns in such a way as to make them adjectives.

Silver, ocean, iron, mountain, corn, tin, rose, hemp, oak, taper, leather, cloth, muslin, coat, New York.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

The variations, which adjectives undergo when objects are compared, are called *comparison*.

When do nouns becomes adjectives? | What is comparison?

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

The positive degree, or simple form of the adjective, simply expresses the quality of an object, without reference to other degrees of the same quality; as, "A *sweet* apple."

The comparative is used when the quality is represented as belonging to one of two objects, or sets of objects, in a higher degree than to the other; as, "This apple is *sweeter* than that;" "These apples are *sweeter* than those."

The superlative is used when the quality is represented as belonging to one of several objects, or sets of objects, in a higher degree than to any of the rest; as, "This apple is the *sweetest* of all;" "The rose is the *fairest* of flowers."

Remarks.—1. The office of the comparative and superlative is not to express a higher degree of the quality than the positive; the latter may express a higher degree than either of the others. Thus, when we say of an apple, that it is *sweet,* we may assert the existence of a greater degree of the quality than when we say that it is *sweeter* than some other apple, or the sweetest of all on the tree.

2. When the comparative is used, a comparison is made between the same quality, usually as it exists in different objects; but sometimes the comparison is made between two degrees of the quality in the *same* object at different times, or in different circumstances; as, "He is *wiser* to-day than he was yesterday;" "He is *happier* at home than he is abroad."

3. Sometimes the comparison is made between the degree of the quality which really exists, and that which is supposed or said to exist; as, "He is *wiser* than he is supposed to be."

4. The comparison is sometimes made between two degrees of *different*

How many degrees?
Define the positive degree—the comparative—the superlative.
What is the remark about the office of the comparative and superlative?
When the comparative is used, is the comparison always made between two degrees of the same quality in different objects?

qualities of the same object; as, "He is *more learned* than wise;" that is, "His learning is greater than his wisdom." This is, in reality, a comparison between two objects—*learning* and *wisdom*.

FORMATION OF THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE.

The comparative is regularly formed by adding *er*, and the superlative by adding *est*, to the positive; as,

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Sweet	sweeter	sweetest.
Wise	wiser	wisest.
Red	redder	reddest.
Dry	drier	driest.

See General Rules for Spelling, iii, v, *and* vii.

The same change in signification is made by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most*; as, *sweet, more sweet, most sweet.*

This is the usual way of comparing adjectives of more than one syllable; as, *graceful, more graceful, most graceful*; not *gracefuler, gracefulest.* In such cases the comparison is made by the adverb, and not by the adjective.

But words of two syllables, ending in *y*, or in *le* after a mute, or accented on the last syllable, may be regularly compared; as, *happy, happier, happiest; able, abler, ablest; polite, politer, politest.*

Some other adjectives of two syllables are sometimes compared by adding *er* and *est*; as, *handsome, handsomer, handsomest.*

Some adjectives are compared in an irregular manner; as,

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*	*Positive.*	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good	better	best.	Much	more	most.
Bad	worse	worst.	Many	more	most.
Little	less*	least.	Far	farther	farthest.

Remarks.—1. *Near* and *late* have, besides the regular forms of the superlative, *next* and *last.*

How are the comparative and superlative regularly formed?
In what other way may the same change in meaning be expressed?
What is the usual way of comparing adjectives of more than one syllable?
What adjectives of two syllables are compared by adding *er* and *est*?
Compare *good, bad*, etc. Compare *near.*

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* Sometimes *lesser*

2. *Old* has, in addition to the regular comparative and superlative, *elder* and *eldest*. These are formed from *eld*, which is now obsolete.

3. The superlative is sometimes formed by adding *most* to the positive or comparative; as, *inmost*, or *innermost; hindmost*, or *hindermost; topmost.*

4. A slight degree of quality is expressed by adding *ish;* as, *sweet, sweetish.*

5. The adverbs *less* and *least* are sometimes used with the adjective, when the object is represented as having a lower degree of the quality than belongs to the object or objects with which it is compared; as, "This apple is *less* sweet than that."

6. The adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, should not be parsed as part of the adjective. *More* is an adverb in the comparative degree.

7. Most adjectives, which denote qualities that cannot exist in different degrees, are not compared; as, *round, square, two-handed, Almighty.*

8. But many adjectives which denote invariable qualities are used in the comparative and superlative by the best writers; as, "The sight is the *most perfect* of all our senses."—*Addison.* By this is meant that the sight approaches nearer to perfection than any other sense does. Of the same kind are *just, upright, true, honest, complete, accurate, correct, regular, good, white, safe*, etc.

Note 1.—The best writers and speakers in the language are in the habit of constantly using such expressions as *more perfect.* Language is not governed by the rules of logic. It would be improper to say that one thing is perfect, and another more perfect than that; but when we say that one thing is more perfect than another, we do not necessarily mean that either is perfect, but merely that one approaches nearer to perfection than the other. One man may be better than another, when neither is perfectly good.* Most grammarians give incorrect definitions of the comparative and superlative. *See page* 37, *Remark* 1.

Note 2.—Some grammarians would say, *less unjust, least imperfect*, rather than *juster, most perfect*, etc.; but it would sound rather strange if we should say, "Aristides was *less unjust* than any other Athenian;" or if a lover should say of his mistress, "Angelica is the *least imperfect* of her sex."

1. Name the comparative and superlative of each of the following adjectives.

Red, rich, warm, hot, illustrious, ample, happy, ripe, able, discreet, industrious, learned, good, high, just, near, insignificant, studious, little.

Compare *old.*
What is said of the superlative in *most?*
What is said of the termination *ish?*
When are *less* and *least* joined with the adjective?
What adjectives are not compared?
What is said of *more perfect*, etc.?

* "Why callest thou me good? There is none good but one, that is God."—*Matthew* xix. 17.

2. In what degree is each of the following adjectives?

Wisest, better, good, politest, happy, virtuous, greater, less, richest, apter, noble, noblest.

3. Correct the following.

Beautifuler, magnanimouser, blissfuler, agreeabler, virtuousest, amusingest.

ARTICLES.

The limiting adjectives *a* or *an*, and *the*, are called *articles*.

The is called the *definite*, and *a* or *an*, the *indefinite* article.

When the definite article is used, we refer to some *particular* object, or class of objects, either before spoken of, or pointed out in some other way.*

When the indefinite article is used, we refer to *some one* of a class, but to no particular one.

The word *book* is applied to each one of a whole class of objects: if I say, "Give me *a* book," I call for *any one* of these objects: if I say, "Give me *the* book," I ask for some *particular* book.

A is used before words beginning with consonant sounds; *an* before those beginning with vowel sounds; as, *a tree, an apple.*

The indefinite article originally meant *one*. *An* was formerly employed much more frequently than it is now; *n* is not added to *a* to form *an*, but it is dropped from *an* to make *a*.

What words are called articles?
Which is the definite article?—the indefinite?
When is the definite article used?
When is the indefinite article used?
Before what words is *a* used?
Before what words is *an* used?

* *The* is never used when the noun is omitted, but in its stead, *that* and *those* are employed; as, "The course of life is short, *that* of glory eternal;" "The duties of men differ from *those* of women." In these examples *that* and *those* are not used in their usual sense, but in the sense of *the*. The noun *course* is understood in the former sentence, *duties* in the latter. If we supply the ellipsis *the* must be employed; as, "The course of life is short, the course of glory eternal;" "The duties of men differ from the duties of women." It would not convey the same idea to say, "The course of life is short, *that* course of glory eternal," etc.

The was originally the imperative mode, and *that* the participle of the same Anglo-Saxon verb, *the an, to take, to assume.*

Remarks.—1. In some words beginning with *h*, this letter is silent, and the first sound being a vowel sound, *an* is used, and not *a*; as, *an hour.*

2. Some words, whose first letter is a vowel, commence with a *consonant* sound, and, consequently, *a*, and not *an*, is used before them; as, *a university, a eunuch, a ewe, many a one. University, eunuch,* and *ewe* are pronounced as if they commenced with *y*, and *one* is pronounced *wun.*

3. *An* is used before words beginning with *h* not silent, if the accent is on the second syllable; as, *an heroic action; an historical romance.*

The sound of *h* is weaker, that is, the breath is less forcibly emitted, when the word is accented on the second syllable, than when the accent is on the first. The word *historical* almost seems to begin with a vowel sound.

EXERCISES.

Correct whatever errors occur in the following.

A apple. An peach. An hand. An hireling. A hour. An union. An European. An human being. Many an one. A army. A honorable man. An heart. A article. A adjective. An yeoman. A umpire. An useful man. An unit. A historical account. An history. A heroic action. An hero. A Hibernian tale. An university. An union. A herbarium. A hereditary title. A heretical opinion. A hexameter. A hosanna. An unicorn. An universal belief. An uniform appearance. An Unitarian. An useless labor. An usurer.

The is used with nouns either in the singular or the plural number; as, *the book; the books.*

A or *an* is used with nouns in the singular number only. We cannot say *a books.*

A seems to belong to plural nouns in such expressions as the following:—"*A dozen* apples;" "*A hundred* books;" "*A thousand* men;" "*A great many* men."

But *a* does not belong to *apples, books,* and *men,* in the preceding examples, but to *dozen, hundred,* and *many,* which, in such cases, are collective nouns, in the singular number. There is an ellipsis of the preposition *of;* thus, *a dozen of men; a great many of men; a hundred of men.*

When *a* is used with numbers greater than thousands, *of* must be expressed; as, *a million of men.* So, in some instances, with *a great many;* as, "A great many of those books are worthless."

That *hundred, thousand,* etc., are nouns, is evident: they may be used in the plural number; as, "*Hundreds* of men were slain in that battle."

Why is *an* used before *hour*?
Why is *a* used before *university*?
When is *an* used before words beginning with *h* not silent?
A or *an* is used with nouns of what number?
The is used with nouns of what number?

The word *many* is very often used by the old English writers as a noun signifying *company*, *retinue*, etc. Thus, "And eke with him cometh his *meinie*" [many.]—*Chaucer.*

Spenser applies the word to *three* persons in the following passage:

"This fair *many* were compeld at last.—"

Shakspeare uses *a many* without *great*; thus,

"For yet *a many* of your horsemen peer
And gallop o'er the field."—*Hen.* V, Act iv, Scene 5.

Many is a noun in such expressions as the following: "The will of *the many*, and their interests, must very often differ."—*Burke.*

A is used with a plural noun, when the adjective *few* intervenes; as, *a few books.*

This construction *probably* originated from an ellipsis. *Ane few menye*, a *few menye*, (that is, a small number or company,) are expressions used by ancient authors. When *many* came to be generally used as an adjective opposed in meaning to *few*, the two words sounded harshly together, and *many*, with the preposition following it, was dropped. In this manner *a few many of the books* was changed to a few books.

A or *an* often comes between *many* and a singular noun; as,

"When the merry bells ring round,
And the jocund rebecks sound
To *many a youth* and *many a maid*
Dancing in the checkered shade."—*Milton.*

Horne Tooke considers *a* in such instances to be a corruption of *of*. Thus, *many of maids*, by corrupting the sound of *of*, as is frequently done, would become *many a maids*; and *a* being mistaken for the article, the noun would afterwards be put in the singular.

PARSING EXERCISES.

The words in italics are prepositions; those in large capitals are transitive verbs, and those in small capitals are intransitive verbs.

That boy RODE the vicious horse. A good man LOVES all men. Robert GOT some sour apples. William HAS five white marbles. Jonathan SHOT some fat birds. Diligent boys RECEIVE praise. The rose IS the fairest of all flowers. This room IS warmer than* that. John HAS the warmest room *of* all. The sun IS hotter than any fire IS. These apples ARE sweeter than those. Bayardo IS the swiftest horse *of* the three.

In what case is *a* used with plural nouns?

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* *Than* is a conjunction.

To parse an adjective,

Tell, 1. What part of speech— .....and why?
2. If it is a qualifying adjective, the degree—and why?
3. and compare it;
4. To what noun it belongs;
5. Rule.

To parse an article,

Tell, 1. Whether definite or indefinite—and why?
2. To what noun it belongs;
3. Rule.

Or, parse it as a limiting adjective.

MODEL.

"*That boy rode the vicious horse.*"

That is a limiting adjective — it limits the meaning of a noun; it belongs to the noun *boy*.

RULE II.—Adjectives and participles belong to nouns or pronouns.

Boy is a common noun, of the masculine gender, third person, singular number, in the nominative case — subject of the verb *rode*.

RULE IV.—The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case.

The is the definite article — it refers to a particular object; it belongs to the noun *horse*. [Better.—*The* is a limiting adjective — it limits the meaning of a noun; it belongs to the noun *horse*.]

RULE II.—Adjectives and participles belong to nouns or pronouns.

Vicious is a qualifying adjective — it expresses a quality belonging to an object; in the positive degree — it simply expresses the quality; *positive*, vicious, *comparative*, more vicious, *superlative*, most vicious; it belongs to the noun *horse*.

RULE II.—Adjectives and participles belong to nouns or pronouns.

Horse is a noun, etc.; in the objective case — the object of the transitive verb *rode*.

RULE IX.—The object of a transitive verb is put in the objective case.

"*The rose is the fairest of all flowers.*"

Fairest is a qualifying adjective — it expresses a quality which belongs to an object; in the superlative degree — the quality is represented as belonging to one of several objects in a higher degree than to any of the rest; *positive*, fair, *comparative*, fairer, *superlative*, fairest; it belongs to *flower*, understood.

RULE II.—Adjectives and participles belong to nouns or pronouns.

How do you parse an adjective? | How do you parse an article?

"*This room is warmer than that.*"

Warmer is a qualifying adjective, etc.; in the comparative degree — the quality is represented as belonging to one of two objects in a higher degree than to the other, etc.; it belongs to the noun *room*.

RULE II.—Adjectives and participles belong to nouns or pronouns.

PRONOUN.

A pronoun is a word which is used instead of a noun.

Illustration.—John told Sarah that *John* would let *Sarah* have *John's* book, if *Sarah* wished to study *Sarah's* lesson.

John told Sarah that *he* would let *her* have *his* book, if *she* wished to study *her* lesson.

In the latter sentence, *he* and *his*, *she* and *her* are pronouns, standing for *John* and *John's*, *Sarah* and *Sarah's* in the former.

Pro is a Latin word which signifies *for* or *instead of*. *Pronoun*, then, means *instead of a noun*.

Remarks.—1. Pronouns are not absolutely necessary for the communication of our thoughts: but language, without them, would be burdened with the repetition of nouns.

2. Properly speaking, pronouns stand not merely for the nouns, but for the nouns with all the qualifying words. Thus, "The venerable old man treated us so kindly, that we were forced to love *him*." Here *him* prevents the repetition, not of *man* merely, but of *the venerable old man*.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, instead of the pronouns put the nouns for which they stand.

The gardener found his charmed fan to be the very thing he desired. He had now no labor to perform; a few sweeps of his fan brought him all the flowers he needed. He therefore spent his time in luxurious indolence.

Man was created out of the dust of the earth; and, when he rose from the ground, he saw plants every where around him. The rearing of them became his first care, their fruit his first food, and marking their kinds his first knowledge.

What is a pronoun? | Are pronouns necessary to the communication of thought?

2. In the following put pronouns where they can be used instead of the nouns.

The news of the Sultan's return being spread, the courtiers came betimes in the morning before the Sultan's pavilion, to wait the Sultan's pleasure. The Sultan ordered the courtiers to enter, received the courtiers with a more pleasant air than the Sultan had formerly done, and gave each of the courtiers a present.

Remarks.—To avoid the repetition of nouns is not the only office of pronouns. *I* is a word used by the *person speaking*, to designate himself, but does not stand for his *name*, or imply any previous mention of himself.

So *thou* or *you* is used to designate the *person addressed;* and we use it whether we know the name of the individual or not.

I is equivalent to "*the speaker;*" and *thou* or *you* to the "*person addressed.*"

We, the plural of *I*, is used when the speaker includes others with himself, or when several are joined in speaking or writing.

Kings, as a mark of pre-eminence, use *we* instead of *I*. *We* is also used instead of *I* by editors of periodical publications, and often by public speakers and others, to avoid the appearance of egotism, and for other reasons.

EXERCISES.

1. Put pronouns, where they are admissible, in the following sentences.

The speaker will love the person addressed. If the person addressed command, the speaker will obey. The person addressed did as well as the speaker could do.

2. Instead of the pronouns in the following sentences use their equivalents.

I wished you to do well. You said you loved me. How shall I believe you?

Note.—Though *I* and "*the speaker*" convey the same idea, yet their construction is not the same. *I* takes a verb of the first person, and "*the speaker*" takes one of the third, as all *nouns* do. A similar remark may be made with respect to *thou*, and "*the person addressed.*"

Remarks.—1. *He*, *she* and *it* refer to persons or things *spoken of*, and generally imply some previous mention of the objects referred to; as, "Charles studies, and *he* will learn;" "Susan is a good girl, and *she* will be loved;" "John saw the deer, and shot it."

2. But these pronouns do not *always* imply a previous mention of the objects. In the following sentences *he* stands for *the man*, or something equivalent, and *she* for *the woman*. "He who is just will be rewarded." "She who is virtuous will be respected."

To what is *I* equivalent?—*thou?*
When is *we* used?
To what do *he*, *she*, and *it* refer?
Do they always imply a previous mention of the objects?

The plural *they* is often used in an indefinite sense, referring to men in general; as, "*They* say that the earth is spherical;" that is, *men* say.

EXERCISES.

For what do *he*, *she*, and *they* stand in the following sentences?

He that trusteth in riches shall fall. He that is of a perverse heart shall be despised. She that is industrious will improve. They say this man is honest.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The pronouns *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, in their various cases and numbers, are called *personal* pronouns; because *I* is always of the first person, *thou* of the second, and *he*, *she*, and *it* of the third. They are thus declined:

FIRST PERSON.

Singular.	*Plural.*
N. I	we.
P. my, *or* mine	our, *or* ours.
O. me	us.

SECOND PERSON.

N. Thou	ye, *or* you.
P. thy, *or* thine	your, *or* yours.
O. thee	you.

THIRD PERSON.—*Masculine Gender.*

Singular.	*Plural.*
N. He	they.
P. his	their, *or* theirs.
O. him	them.

THIRD PERSON.—*Feminine.*

N. She	they.
P. her, *or* hers	their, *or* theirs.
O. her	them.

THIRD PERSON.—*Neuter.*

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	It	they.
Pos.	its	their, *or* theirs.
Obj.	it	them.

Remarks.—1. Where there are two forms of the possessive case, one of them is used when the name of the thing possessed is expressed; the other when it is omitted.

Thus: "That is *your* book, but this is *mine*;" "This is *my* book, but that is *yours*."

Mine and *thine* were formerly used before a *vowel* or silent *h*; as, "Blot out all *mine iniquities*." They are still so used in the solemn style.

What words are called personal pronouns? Why are they so called? Decline *I—thou—he—she—it.*

How are the two forms of the possessive case used?

2. These words, *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, are by some said to stand both for the name of the possessor and of the thing possessed. This is not correct. The name of the thing possessed is *omitted*, because it has been previously expressed. The nature of the pronoun may be understood by putting a noun in its place. Thus: "This is my book, but that is John's." It would be as correct to say that *John's*, in this sentence, stands for both *John's* and *book*, as to say that *yours*, in the preceding paragraph, stands for both *your* and *book*.

3. The *s* seems to have been added to *our*, *your*, *their*, and *her*, to give them the termination of the possessive case. The ear is more easily reconciled to the absence of the possessive termination when the pronoun is placed before the name of the thing possessed, than when it is not. *His* and *its* have the possessive termination, and the omission of the noun makes no change in their form.

4. In the *third* person there is a different pronoun for each gender in the singular number; but in the *first* and *second* the same pronouns are used, whatever may be the gender. The sex of the *speaker* and the *person addressed* is supposed to be known from their being present, and from other circumstances.

5. Originally, *thou* was the only pronoun used in addressing a single person; but from flattery or politeness, *you* began to be used in such cases; and it has now entirely usurped the place of *thou* except in the solemn style. The Friends, or Quakers, still use *thou* in common discourse. *See remark on* we, *page* 45.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

When *self*, (plur. *selves*,) is added to the personal pronouns, they are called *compound personal pronouns*.

These pronouns are used for the sake of emphasis or distinction; or when an action is represented as exerted upon the agent; as, "I *myself* did it;" "He killed himself."

They have no possessive case, and the objective is the same as the nominative.

In those of the first and second persons, *self* and *selves* are added to the *possessive* case of the simple pronouns; in those of the third person *self* and *selves* are added to the *objective* case.

Why is there no distinct form for each gender in pronouns of the first and second persons?
What are compound personal pronouns?
How are they used?
How many cases have they?
To what cases of the simple pronouns are *self* and *selves* added?

Thus, *myself, ourselves ; thyself, yourselves ; himself, herself; itself, themselves.*

Note.—*Her* is in either the possessive or objective, but for the sake of uniformity I have considered it as the objective.

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following.

I hurt meself. Thou lovest theeself. You love youself. He killed hisself. They ruined theirselves. It injured itsself.

Remarks.—1. *Self* is supposed to have been originally an adjective. It was joined by the Anglo-Saxons to nouns and pronouns in every case. Thus, they said what would be equivalent to *Iself, myself, meself ;* except that *self* had a particular termination for each case, as other adjectives had. The old English writers use it as an adjective; thus, Chaucer says, "The *self* day," that is, the *same* day; and Shakspeare, "One *self* king." It afterwards came to be used as a noun; as, "Oft whip her dainty *self*."—*Spenser.*

2. It is from its having been used as an adjective, that it is joined to the objective case; and it is used as a noun when joined to the possessive.

3. It is from its being used as a noun, that, when an adjective comes between the pronoun and *self*, the possessive case of the noun is used; as, *his own self.*

4. For the same reason, when the plural form of the first and second persons is used for the singular, *self* remains in the singular; as, "John, you injure *yourself*."

"Madam, we will *ourself* take time to hear."—*Daniel.*

"*Ourself* will swiftness to your nerves impart."—*Pope.*

5. These pronouns are seldom used in the nominative case, except when annexed to the simple pronouns.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Who, which, what, and *that* are called *relative* pronouns, when they relate to some word or phrase called the *antecedent*,* as, "The boy *who* studies will learn."

In this sentence *who* relates to *boy*, as its antecedent.

Other pronouns have antecedents; thus, "The boy studies,

What words are called relative pronouns?

* *Antecedent* means *going before.*

and *he* will learn." In this sentence *he* relates to the word *boy*, which is its antecedent.

Remark.—The name *connective pronoun* would better express the nature of these words. The relative not only stands in the place of the noun, but closely connects the clause in which it stands to the antecedent. In this example, "The boy who studies will learn," the relative clause, *who studies*, is closely connected with the antecedent, *boy*, and modifies it like an adjective. *Who studies* is equivalent to *studious*.

Who is applied to persons; as, "This is the man who came;" "She who is amiable will be loved."

Which is applied to the lower animals, and to inanimate things; as, "This is the ox which destroyed the corn;" "This is the tree which bears the best fruit."

That is applied to any thing to which either *who* or *which* may be applied; as, "This is the man that came;" "She that is amiable will be loved;" "This is the ox that destroyed the corn;" "This is the tree that bears the best fruit."

What is applied to things, and is used only when the antecedent is omitted; as, "He got what he wanted," that is, the thing which he wanted.

That is a relative when *who*, *which*, or *whom* may be substituted for it.

Thus, "He *that* studies will learn;" "Every thing *that* has life is an animal;" "This is the man *that* I saw." *Who* may be substituted for *that* in the first example, *which* in the second, and *whom* in the third.

What and *that* are used only in the nominative and objective cases. They have no possessive.

Who and *which* are thus declined.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Who,	who.
Poss.	whose,	whose.
Obj.	whom,	whom.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Which,	which,
Poss.	whose,	whose.*
Obj.	which,	which.

To what is *who* applied?—*which*?—*that*?
How is *what* used?
When is *that* a relative?

In what cases are *what* and *that* used?
Decline the relative pronouns.

* Instead of the possessive case *whose*, the objective with the preposition *of* is very frequently used. Instead of "A religion *whose* origin is divine," we may say, "A religion the origin *of which* is divine;" though this form of expression is often very awkward.

EXERCISES.

1. In which of the following sentences is *that* a relative?

He that acts wisely deserves praise. It is said that Solomon was a wise man. I know that man. They that are whole need not a physician, but they that are sick. Bless them that curse you. This is the house that Jack built. That tree is decaying. This is the tree that is decaying. He says that that tree is decaying.

2. Name the relatives and antecedents in the following sentences.

A king who is just makes his people happy. This is the man whom we met. This is the man that we met. All are pleased with children that behave well. This is the tiger that broke from his cage. This is a beautiful dog that you have. The books which I gave him are for you. God, by whose kindness we live, whom we worship, who created all things, is eternal. Alexander, who conquered the world, was conquered by his passions. He that does not make happy, deserves not to be happy. This is the dog, that bit the cat, that caught the rat, that ate the malt, that lay in the house, that Jack built. He who steals my purse steals trash. The person who does no good does harm.

ANTECEDENT OMITTED.

The antecedent is sometimes omitted; as, "Who steals my purse steals trash;" that is, *he* who, or the *person* who.

EXERCISES.

Tell the antecedents to the following relatives.

Who does no good does harm. Whom the Lord loveth he chasteneth. Whom God wishes to destroy, he first makes mad. Whom he will he hardeneth. There are who put their trust in riches. Who worship God shall find him.

"This day have I begot, whom I declare
My only Son."

Is the antecedent always expressed?

"And who but wishes to invert the laws
Of order, sins against the Eternal Cause."

The relative *what* is never used except when the antecedent is omitted; *which* is used when it is expressed. Therefore, if we omit the antecedent we must use *what* instead of *which*, and if the antecedent is restored to its place, *which* must follow and not *what*.

Thus, "I saw what I wanted to see." Here the antecedent to *what* is *thing* understood; if we express the antecedent *thing*, *which* will take the place of *what;* as, "I saw the thing which I wanted to see."

Remark.—Various opinions have been entertained about the nature of the relative *what*. It is said to be a compound relative pronoun, including both the antecedent and the relative, and equivalent to *that which* or *the thing which*. Though this may seem plausible, yet we shall find, on examination, that *what* is nothing more than a relative pronoun, and includes nothing else. Compare these two sentences:

"I saw *whom* I wanted to see;"
"I saw *what* I wanted to see."

If *what*, in the latter, is equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which*, *whom*, in the former, is equivalent to *him whom*, or *the person whom;* and *who*, in this sentence, "Who steals my purse steals trash," is equivalent to *he who*, or *the man who*.

And, on the same principle, when the *relative* is omitted, the antecedent should be represented as equivalent to the relative and the antecedent. Thus, "I saw the man I wanted to see." Here *man* should be represented as equivalent to *man whom*.

The cause of the error in respect to *what* is that the antecedent is never expressed with it. It is not like the word *who*, which is used both when the antecedent is expressed, and when it is omitted. The relative *that*, however, was formerly used in many cases where we use *what*, that is, with the antecedent omitted. A few examples of this will help us to ascertain the nature of *what*.

"We speak *that* we do know."—*English Bible.*

"I am *that* I am."—*English Bible.*

"Who had been seen imagine mote thereby
That whylome of Hercules hath been told."—*Spenser.*

What relative is never used except when the antecedent is omitted?

When the antecedent is expressed what relative is used instead of *what*?

"Eschewe *that* wicked is."—*Gower.*

"Is it possible he should know what he is, and be *that* he is?"—*Shakspeare.*

"Gather the sequel by *that* went before."—*Shakspeare.*

In these examples *that* is a relative; and is exactly synonymous with *what.* No one would contend that *that* stands for itself and its antecedent at the same time. The antecedent is omitted because it is indefinite, or easily supplied.

Some consider *that,* in such sentences as these, an adjective (demonstrative adjective pronoun,) and say that the relative is understood; but if we examine carefully, we shall see that this is not correct. In the first quotation from the English Bible, *that* is a translation of the Greek relative, and in the second it is a translation of the Hebrew relative.

It is no objection to this view that the antecedent cannot be expressed before *what.* The pronouns *ours, yours,* etc., cannot be employed when the noun is expressed. The relative *that* may be governed by a preposition coming *after* it; but if the preposition should come first, *that* must be changed into *whom* or *which.* It will not be contended that *that* is not governed by the preposition because it will not admit the preposition before it.

In the Anglo-Saxon language the neuter gender of *hwa* (*who*) was not *hwilc* (*which*), but *whaet* (*what*); and the genitive and dative cases, *whaes* and *wham,* were the same in all the genders. This shows that *what* originally had the same relation to nouns of the neuter gender that *who* had to those of the masculine.

The Germans use *was* (*what*) in many instances where we use *which,* or *that;* "Alles *was* ich sah, gefiel mir," (All *what* I saw, pleased me.)

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

When *ever,* or *soever* is annexed to relative pronouns, they are called *compound relative pronouns.*

They are used only when the antecedent is omitted on account of its being indefinite; and in such cases they are more commonly used than the simple pronoun.

Thus, "Whoever steals my purse steals trash;" "Whoever does no good does harm;" "Whatever purifies fortifies the heart." In the first two examples the antecedent is *person,* or something equivalent; in the last it is *thing.*

What are compound relative pronouns? | How are they used?

Remarks.—1. These words, like the relative *what*, have been said to be "equivalent to the relative and the antecedent." The same answer may be made here as in the case of *what*. The antecedent is *omitted*, and not included in the relative.

These words are compound relatives, it is true; but they are not compounded of the relative and the antecedent, but of the relative and the adverb *ever*. This adverb primarily refers to time, but also means *in any degree*, and is sometimes used as "a word of enforcement or emphasis;" as, "He studies as much as *ever* he can." In composition with the relative it is generally "a word of enforcement or emphasis."

Thus, "Whoever sins will suffer." This means that any one, without exception, who sins, will suffer.

The adverb has no influence on the nature of the relative. It was anciently written separately.

The impropriety of considering the compound relative equivalent to the antecedent and the relative may be seen from such sentences as the following: "I love whoever loves me." Here *whoever* is in the nominative case, and, of course, cannot be the object of the verb *love*. The object of that verb is omitted, because it is indefinite.*

The antecedent was sometimes expressed by the old writers. Thus,

"No man knoweth the Father save the Son, and *he* to *whomsoever* the Son will reveal him."—*English Bible.*

"Blessed is he *whosoever* shall not be offended in me."—*Ibid.*

"And thither also came all other *creatures*,
Whatever life or motion do retaine."—*Spenser.*

2. Formerly *so* was sometimes used instead of *ever* or *soever*; as, "*Whoso* findeth me findeth life."—*English Bible.*

Of what are they compounded?

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* *Whomsoever* in the following quotations should be *whosoever*, or *whoever*.

"As may be learned by *whomsoever* will take the trouble to consult our old church records."—*O. A. Brownson.*

"Yet three-fourths of his life was employed in helping *whomsoever* had need of his purse, of his talents, of his management."—*Carlyle.*

In the first quotation the relative is not the object of the preposition *by*, but the nominative to the verb *will take*. The relative in the second quotation is nominative to the verb *had*, and not the object of *helping*.

In the following the nominative case of the relative is properly used.

"And twenty curses on *whosoever* had brought him thither."—*Jarvis's Translation of Don Quixote.*

"The Gaul, with superior magnanimity, offered his own head to *whoever* should bring him that of Nero."—*Murphy's Tacitus.*

"Harbors and bays are admitted to belong to *whoever* has dominion over the neighboring land."—*Leiber.*

"They punished with the severest tortures *whoever* dared to secrete any part of the consecrated offering."—*Hume.*

"With *whosoe'er* of all the invading host
Relies upon his sword, his prowess, most."—*Hunt's Tasso.*

3. The antecedent is sometimes repeated with the relative; as, "John has a beautiful *knife*, which *knife* was given him by his father." *Which* is here a limiting adjective belonging to *knife*.

4. *What* and *whatever* are sometimes joined to nouns as limiting adjectives; the same nouns are then understood as antecedents.

Thus, "What books he has are of the best kind." Here *what* is joined as a limiting adjective to *books*, which is the object of the verb *has; books*, understood, is the antecedent, and the subject of the verb *are*.

5. *What* and *whatever* are joined as adjectives to nouns denoting *persons*, instead of *who* and *whoever*, which are never used as adjectives. Thus,

"*What man* but enters dies."

"Heaven bestows its gifts on *whatever man* will use them."

The subject of *dies* in the first example is the antecedent *man* understood; the object of the preposition *on* in the second is the antecedent *man* understood.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Who, which, and *what,* when used in asking questions, are sometimes called *interrogative pronouns.* Thus, "*Who* is here?" "*Which* book will you have?" "*What* do you see?"

Which and *what* in interrogations may always be considered as limiting adjectives belonging to nouns expressed or understood. In the last example *thing* is understood. *Who* is equivalent to *what person.*

These words are often used in dependent clauses when there is no direct question, as, "Tell me who is here;" "I know who is here;" "He asked what I saw;" "Teach me what is truth;" "Tell me in which house you live."

In some of these examples a question is asked *indirectly;* all of them have some reference to a question. In such cases these words are called *indefinite* pronouns. The object of the verb in the independent clause is the whole of the dependent clause.

Thus, the object of *tell* in the first example is the whole of the clause *who is here.*

What words are sometimes called interrogative pronouns? | What are these words called in indirect questions?

Remark.—It is improper to consider these words as relative pronouns. "I know the man who is here," conveys an entirely different idea from "I know who is here." "Teach me what is truth and what is falsehood," is an indirect way of asking, "What is truth, and what is falsehood?" It does not mean, "Teach me that which is truth, and that which is falsehood," which would be equivalent to "Teach me truth, and teach me falsehood."

EXERCISES.

In which of the following sentences are *who*, *which*, and *what* relatives; in which are they interrogatives; and in which indefinites?

You know not who I am. In what house do you live? Tell me in what house you live. Tell me in whose house do you live. O, Diamond, you know not what mischief you have done! Whom did you see? I will not tell whom I saw. I saw whom I wanted to see. In what character was he admitted? In what character he was admitted is unknown.* I will not ask who you are. He was unwilling to declare to what place he was going. To what place he went is not known. He who tries will learn.

ONE, AS, AND OTHER.

One, is sometimes used in an indefinite sense, referring to mankind at large; as, "One should pity the afflicted." In such phrases *one* may be considered as a *pronoun*, used instead of *person*, or some equivalent word.

In the following examples it stands instead of a repetition of some noun which precedes it. "He took the old bird and left the young *ones*;" "He admired virtuous statesmen, but despised corrupt *ones*."

It is sometimes used instead of *person*, or something equivalent; as, "The forsaken *one*;" "The loved *ones*;" "Any *one*;" "Many a *one*."

As is sometimes used as a relative pronoun; as, "He asso-

For what does *one* stand in such sentences as, "One should pity the afflicted?"—in such sentences as, "He took the old bird, and left the young ones?"—in such expressions, as "The forsaken one?" Give an example in which *as* is used as a relative pronoun.

* The subject of *is* is the whole clause, *in what character he was admitted*.

ciates with such persons *as* please him;" "He wants as many books *as* he can get."

Some suppose an ellipsis in such cases; thus, "He wants such books as *those which* he can get."*

When the noun to which the limiting adjective *other* belongs is omitted, and would have been in the possessive case or plural number, the termination of the noun is added to *other;* as, "Regard the rights of *others*," that is, *other persons.*

Formerly *other* was used even when a plural noun was omitted; as, "Those other which I have in hand."—*Bacon.* "That he awaken when the other do."—*Shakspeare.* Other adjectives were sometimes used in the same way that *other* is; as,

"And left the earth to be the *wicked's* den."—*Bacon.*
"The rich man's joys increase, the *poor's* decay."—*Goldsmith.*

Another is properly two words, *an*, and *other.*

One other and *each other* are used in a reciprocal sense; as, "They loved one another;" "They loved each other." *One another* and *each other* may be considered as in the objective case after the verb *loved;* but in reality *one* and *each*, or the nouns to which they belong, are in the nominative to *loved* understood, and *other* in the objective case after the same verb. Thus, "They loved, each loved the other;" or with the nouns expressed, "They loved, each person loved the other person."

EXERCISES.

Form three sentences containing personal pronouns—three containing compound personal pronouns—three containing relative pronouns—three containing relative pronouns with the antecedents omitted—three containing compound relative pronouns—three containing interrogative pronouns.

PARSING EXERCISES.

To parse a pronoun,

Tell, 1. What part of speech it is—and why?
2. What kind of pronoun—..and why?
3. Number—.....and why?

What is said of *other*? What is said of *another*?	What is said of *one another*, and *each other*?

* A similar construction often occurs with *than*, as, "He wants more *than* he can get."

4. Gender— .....and why?
5. Person—.....and why?
6. Rule for number, gender, and person;
7. Case— .....and why?
8. Rule for case;
9. Decline it.

PARSING EXERCISES.

The words in large capitals are transitive verbs; those in small capitals are intransitive verbs; and those in italics are prepositions.

John SAW his sister, and* she RAN *to* him. That book BELONGS *to* me. Thou KNOWEST thyself. Jane SPOILS her beauty. The bird SPREADS its wings. The snake SWALLOWED itself. Edward KNEW the man who STRUCK him. That foolish boy BIT the dog that BIT him. The two boys SPOKE *to* the man whom they MET, and he SPOKE *to* them. Charles TOOK my book, and LEFT yours.

I SAW the boy, whose dog CHASED the cat. The man FOUND what he WANTED. George WILL DO what is right. I HEARD what the preacher SAID. You REQUIRE what no man CAN PERFORM. He DID what WAS necessary. Sarah CHOSE what WAS most becoming.

Whoever STUDIES, WILL BECOME learned. The good boy AVOIDS whatever HURTS another. I LOVE whoever LOVES me.

What DID you EAT *for* breakfast? Whose horse RAN *down* the hill? Which *of* the two horses IS the swiftest?

MODEL.

"*John saw his sister, and she ran to him.*"

His is a pronoun — it is used instead of the noun *John's*,† personal — it is always of the third person; of the singular number, masculine gender, third person, because the antecedent John is.

How do you parse a pronoun?

* *And* is a conjunction.

† It is not correct to say that *his* is used instead of *John*. The pronoun is used instead of some case of the antecedent noun—whatever case the construction of the sentence demands.

RULE III.—Pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person.

It is in the possessive case, and limits the meaning of the word *sister*.

RULE VIII.—A noun in the possessive case limits the meaning of another noun.

Singular.—Nom. He, *Pos.* his, *Obj.* him. *Plural.—Nom.* They, *Pos.* their *or* theirs, *Obj.* them.

She is a pronoun — it stands for the noun *sister;* personal — it is always of the third person; of the singular number, feminine gender, third person, because the antecedent *sister* is. RULE.—*Pronouns agree*, etc. In the nominative case — subject of the verb *ran*.

RULE IV.—The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case.

Nom. She, etc.

"*That book belongs to me.*"

Me is a pronoun — it is used instead of a noun; personal — it is always of the first person; singular number — it denotes but one object; the gender is unknown; objective case — the object of the preposition *to*.

RULE X.—The object of a preposition is put in the objective case.

Nom. I, *Pos.* my *or* mine, *Obj.* me, etc.

"*Edward knew the man who struck him.*"

Who is a pronoun — it is used instead of a noun; relative — it relates to its antecedent *man;* singular number, masculine gender, third person, because its antecedent *man* is.

RULE III.—Pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender, number and person.

It is in the nominative case — subject of the verb *struck*.

RULE IV.—The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case.

Nom. Who, *Pos.* whose, *Obj.* whom. [Plural the same.]

"*The man found what he wanted.*"

What is a pronoun — it is used instead of a noun; relative — it relates to its antecedent *thing* understood: singular number, etc.

It is in the objective case — the object of the transitive verb *wanted*.

RULE IX.—The object of a transitive verb is put in the objective case.

"*Whoever studies will become learned.*"

Whoever is a pronoun — it is used instead of a noun; compound relative — it is compounded of *who* and *ever*, and relates to its antecedent, *person*, understood, singular number, etc.

"*What did you eat for breakfast?*"

What is a pronoun, etc.; interrogative — it is used in asking a question; singular number, etc.

Objective case — the object of the transitive verb *did eat*.

RULE IX.—The object of a transitive verb is put in the objective case.

VERB.

A verb is a word by which something is affirmed; as, "John *runs;*" "Cæsar *was killed;*" "James *will study.*"

That of which something is affirmed is called the *subject* of the verb. In the preceding examples, *John*, *Cæsar*, and *James* are the subjects.

The affirmation may be absolute; as, "*I walk;*" or it may be expressed in the form of a condition; as, "If I *should walk;*" or of a question; as, "*Does* he *walk?*" or of a command; as, "John, *sit* down;" or of a wish; as, "*May* you *prosper.*"

The *infinitive mood* is the *noun form* of the verb, as the *participle* is the *adjective form.* An affirmation cannot be made by means of either.

EXERCISES.

1. Tell the verbs and subjects in the following sentences.

John walks. William reads. The horse gallops. The sun shines. Peter hopped. Pompey was defeated. James will learn. The horse will gallop.

Brutus killed Cæsar. Cæsar defeated Pompey. James will learn his lesson. John walks every day. William reads amusing books. The horse gallops through the wood. The sun shines brightly. You should study. You should study diligently. James should study his lesson diligently. Joseph has come. Joseph has not come. Joseph has not come home. Hence arise wars and convulsions. Does wealth make men happy?

2. Put verbs instead of the following dashes.

John — his work. George — a letter. The horse —. The traveler — a treasure. This story — beautiful. We — happy. Peter — an apostle. A bad boy — his parents. William — a

What is a verb?
What is the subject of a verb?
Mention some of the ways in which the affirmation may be expressed.

rabbit. Ann — stockings. Joseph — houses. A good man — in that house. God — just. The horse — fast. Irene — on a chair. Benjamin — on a bed.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

Verbs are either *transitive* or *intransitive*.

A *transitive* verb requires the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, "John *strikes* George;" "He *excels* me."

An *intransitive* verb does not require the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, "The horse *runs*;" "Peter *sleeps*;" "Mary *is* good."

Remarks.—1. The word *transitive* means *passing over*; and verbs of this class are so called, because the action is represented as passing over from the subject to the object.

2. As the object of a transitive verb is in the objective case, any verb which makes sense with *me*, *thee*, *him*, *her*, *us*, or *them*, is a transitive verb.

Thus, we may know that *strikes* is a transitive verb by its making sense with *him* after it; as, "John strikes him;" but "John sleeps him," would not make sense.

3. The same verb may be transitive in one sense, and intransitive in another; thus, in the sentence, "He believes my story," *believes* is transitive; but in this phrase, "He believes in God," it is intransitive.

4. Observe that when a preposition immediately follows the verb, the verb is not transitive. In the sentence "He believes in God," the verb *believes* is followed by the preposition *in*, and the noun *God* is the object of that preposition and not of the verb.

EXERCISES.

1. Tell which verbs are transitive, and which intransitive, in the following sentences, and name the object of each of the transitive verbs.

Benjamin jumped over the fence. The horse kicked the cow. Brutus killed Cæsar. Romulus slew Remus. Scipio conquered Hannibal. Mummius destroyed Corinth. Washington commanded the army. Birds fly in the air. Susan smiled.

Into how many classes are verbs divided? What is a transitive verb? What is an intransitive verb? | Why are transitive verbs so called? How may a transitive verb be known?

I saw him. God is just. The good man loves his fellow-men. I have a book. William runs fast. Augustus heard Lucinda.

2. Form three sentences containing transitive verbs—three containing intransitive verbs.

With respect to form, verbs are *regular* or *irregular*.

A verb is regular when the past tense and the auxiliary perfect participle are formed by adding *ed* to the imperfect (or present) infinitive; as,

Imp. or Pres. Infin.	Past.	Auxiliary Perfect Participle.
Trust,	trusted,	trusted;
Hope,	hoped,	hoped;
Drop,	dropped,	dropped;
Dry,	dried,	dried.

Note.—When *ed* is annexed to *hope*, *e* is dropped from *hope*; when *ed* is annexed to *drop*, *p* is doubled; when *ed* is annexed to *dry*, *y* is changed to *i*. *See General Rules for Spelling*, iii, v, *and* vii.

A verb is irregular when the past tense or perfect participle is formed some other way.

Imp. or Pres. Infin.	Past.	Auxiliary Perfect Participle.
Write	wrote	written.
Do	did	done.

A *defective* verb is one which wants some of its parts.

An *auxiliary* verb is one which is used in conjugating other verbs.

VOICES.

Transitive verbs have two forms, usually called the *active* and *passive voices*.

When is a verb regular?
When is a verb irregular?
What is a defective verb?
What is an auxiliary verb?
How many voices have transitive verbs?

When the active voice is used, the subject is represented as *acting;* as, "Brutus killed Cæsar."

When the passive voice is used, the subject is represented as *being acted upon;* as, "Cæsar was killed by Brutus."

Remarks.—1. The two expressions, "Brutus killed Cæsar," and "Cæsar was killed by Brutus," convey the same idea; but in the former the attention is directed to Brutus as performing the action, in the latter, to Cæsar as affected by the action. In the former, the subject, *Brutus*, is *active*, in the latter, the subject, *Cæsar*, is *passive*.

2. The word *passive* is derived from a Latin word which means *to suffer;* and the name is given to this form, because the subject is represented as *suffering* or *undergoing* the action.

Any sentence containing a transitive verb in the active form may be so altered as to convey the same sense with the verb in the passive form.

That which is the object in the active becomes the subject in the passive; and the subject of the active is put in the objective case, after the preposition *by*. Thus, "The dog bit the cat," may be changed into "The cat was bitten by the dog."

EXERCISES.

Change the following sentences so as to convey the same meaning with the verb in the passive.

The boy reads the book. We praise virtue. He cuts the wood. The wind shakes the tree. She sees a house. We hear a noise. Anthony loved Cleopatra. Washington defeated Cornwallis. Virtue produces happiness. Nero burned Rome. Men should read the Bible.

Remarks.—1. When the active voice is used, the *object* may be omitted; thus, we may say, "Peter reads," without affirming whether he reads a book, a newspaper, or a letter. When the passive is used, the name of the agent may be omitted; thus, we may say, "The book is read," without declaring by whom.

Define the active voice.
Define the passive voice.
How may a sentence containing a transitive verb be altered?
When the active voice is changed into the passive, what is done with the subject and the object of the active verb?
What may be omitted when the active voice is used?
What may be omitted when the passive voice is used?

2. It is convenient to use this form when we do not know, or when we know and do not wish to name, the agent; as, "My pen has been spoiled." The same idea, however, may be represented, though not so well, by the active; as, "Somebody has spoiled my pen."

3. The passive is sometimes used merely to give variety, when the active would express the meaning as well.

4. An intransitive verb cannot be used in the passive form, since it has no object in the active to become the subject of the passive. But intransitive verbs, followed by prepositions, are sometimes used in the passive, the *object of the preposition* becoming the subject of the passive.

Thus, *to smile* is intransitive, and we cannot say, "He was smiled by her;" but we may say, "She *smiled on* him;" "He was *smiled on* by her."

5. Some would call *on* an adverb in the passive form, but not correctly; *was smiled on* should be considered a compound verb, for the passive is used only because *smiled on* in the active is *treated* as a transitive verb. In parsing the active, however, we should parse the words *as they are—smiled* as an intransitive verb, and *on* as a preposition.

6. Sometimes even a verb, a noun, and a preposition, are treated as a compound verb, and used in the passive voice; as, "His character was *lost sight of* in that transaction."

7. Intransitive verbs are sometimes followed by the objective case of a noun of kindred signification to their own, and this objective may be the subject of the passive: as, "John ran a race;" "A race was run by John."

To verbs, besides voices, belong *moods*, *tenses*, *numbers*, and *persons*.

MOODS.

Moods are different *manners* of expressing the action or state.

There are commonly reckoned five moods; the *indicative*, the *subjunctive*, the *potential*, the *imperative*, and the *infinitive*.

The *Indicative* mood simply declares a thing; as, "I *run*;" "John *wrote* a letter."

The *Subjunctive* mood represents the action or

Why may not intransitive verbs be used in the passive?
When do intransitive verbs have an objective case?
What belong to verbs?
What are moods?
How many moods?
Define the indicative—the subjunctive.

state as doubtful, or contingent; as, "He will escape punishment, *if he repent.*"

The *Potential* mood asserts the power, liberty, possibility, necessity, or duty of performing an action, or being in a state; as, "I *can run;*" "You *may rest;*" "John *may learn*, perhaps;" "He *must study.*"

The *Imperative* mood is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting; as, "*Study* your lesson;" "*Obey* your parents;" "*Save* my child;" "*Go* in peace."

The *Infinitive* mood expresses the action or state without limiting it to any person or thing as its subject; as, "*To play* is pleasant."

Remarks.—1. The *subjunctive* mood is so called because it is used in a clause which is *subjoined* to another clause. It is usually connected with the leading clause by a conjunction; such as, *if, that, unless, though, lest.* The conjunction is sometimes omitted; as, "Were he poor, he would be happier," that is, *if* he were poor.

The indicative and potential moods may also be used in subjoined clauses; as, "He will escape punishment, if he *should repent;*" "He is respected, though he *is* poor." The subjoined clause may come first; as, "If he repent, he will escape punishment."

2. The *potential* mood may be known by the signs *may, can, must, might, could, would, should.*

3. Both the *indicative* and the *potential* may be used in asking questions; as, "*Have* you a knife?" "*May* I *go?*"

4. The *potential* is sometimes used to express a wish; as, "*May* you *prosper!*"

5. The *infinitive* may usually be known by the sign *to* prefixed; as, *to love; to learn.* The infinitive partakes of the nature of the verb and of the noun, as the participle partakes of the nature of the verb and of the adjective.

6. The sign *to* is by some called a *preposition*, but it resembles the preposition *to* in nothing but form; it has none of the properties of a preposition;

Define the potential mood.
Define the imperative—the infinitive.
Why is the subjunctive mood so called?
How may the potential mood be known?
What moods are used in asking questions?
What mood is sometimes used to express a wish?
How may the infinitive be usually known?

it shows no relation between words. In the sentence, "To play is pleasant," *to* cannot be said to denote a relation between *play* and any other word. *To*, with the infinitive in English, answers the same purpose that peculiar *terminations* do in other languages. The infinitive may be the object of a preposition; as, "He is *about* to go." Other prepositions were formerly used before this mood; as, "What went ye out *for* to see?"—*English Bible.* "And each the other *from* to rise restrained?"—*Spenser.* In these examples, *to go, to see, to rise*, are governed by prepositions as single words. The infinitive may be the object of a transitive verb; as, "John loves *to read*." What does John love? *To read.* This infinitive is the object of the transitive verb *loves*, and if *to* is a preposition, a preposition may come between a transitive verb and its object.

Horne Tooke says that *to* has the same origin as *do*, and is indeed the same word. "The verbs in English not being distinguished, as in other languages, by a peculiar termination, and it being sometimes impossible to distinguish them by their *place*, when the old termination of the Anglo-Saxon verbs was dropped, this word *to* (i. e. *act*) became necessary to be prefixed, in order to distinguish them from nouns, and to invest them with the *verbal* character; for there is no difference between the NOUN, *love*, and the VERB, TO *love*, but what must be comprised in the prefix TO."—*Diversions of Purley.* Vol. i, 286. "And for the same reason that TO is put before the infinitive, DO used formerly to be put before such other parts of the VERB which likewise were not distinguished from the noun by termination. As we still say, *I do love*, instead of *I love.* And *I doed* or *did love*, instead of *I loved*."—*Ibid.*, 291. Thus it seems that Horne Tooke considers *to* an *auxiliary verb.*

NOTE ON THE MOODS.

I have followed the common arrangement of the moods, without being satisfied with it. There seems to be no sufficient foundation for either the subjunctive or the potential. Neither of these moods seems to be defined by distinct boundaries.

"The *subjunctive* mood," says Murray, "represents a thing under a condition, motive, wish, supposition, etc.; and is preceded by a conjunction expressed or understood, and attended by another verb." He, very correctly, we think, follows Dr. Lowth and "the most correct and elegant writers, in limiting the conjunctive termination of the principal verb to the second and third persons singular of the *present tense*."*

This definition includes forms which Mr. Murray does not assign to this mood, and excludes some which he does. In the sentence, "If he go, he will return," *go* is said to be in the subjunctive mood; precisely the same idea is expressed by "If he should go, he will return," and yet *should go* is placed in the potential mood. The definition includes the whole of the potential mood when used after certain conjunctions, and the presence of these conjunctions changes the *indicative*, the present excepted, into the subjunc-

* Such forms as *if thou loved, if thou have loved*, though sometimes used, "are not warranted by the general practice of correct writers."

tive. The "conjunctive form" is used after some adverbs; as, "Blow *till* thou *burst* thy wind."—*Shakspeare.* "*Until* the day *dawn*, and the day-star *arise* in your hearts."—*English Bible.* "Ye do show the Lord's death *till* he *come*."—*English Bible.* "*Till* thou *return*."—*Watts.* "*Before* it *come* to pass;" "*Before* the cock *crow*."—*English Bible.* This "conjunctive form" in such cases, however, is excluded by the definition from the subjunctive mood.*

Some of the expressions which Mr. Murray uses while discussing this subject, would lead us to suppose that he considered the conjunction a part of the verb in the subjunctive. "There appears to be as much propriety in giving a conjunction the power of assisting to form the subjunctive mood, as there is in allowing the particle *to* to have an effect in the formation of the infinitive mood." But he does not carry out his principle: whenever *to* is used before a verb, there is *always* an infinitive, but Mr. Murray does not say that *if* used before a verb *always* forms a subjunctive.†

The use of the "conjunctive form" is rendered perfectly intelligible, if we suppose an ellipsis of the "auxiliary" verb. We can then easily understand why the "circumstances of contingency and futurity must concur," when this form is used—the conjunction expresses the contingency,‡ and the verb the futurity. We can also see why this form may be used after some adverbs.

"I will respect him, though he *chide* me;" that is, though he *should* chide.

"He will not be pardoned, unless he *repent*;" unless he *shall* repent.

"That thou *appear* not unto men to fast;" that thou *mayest* appear.

"Before the cock *crow*;" *shall* crow.

"Till the Lord *come*;" *shall* come.

The full form and the elliptical are sometimes used together, as in the following passage: "If thou *turn* away thy foot from the Sabbath, from doing thy pleasure on my holy day; and *call* the Sabbath a delight, the holy of the Lord, honorable, and *shalt honor* him."—*Isaiah* lviii. 13.

Here the verbs refer to the same time, and yet Mr. Murray would place *turn* and *call* in the present tense, and *shalt honor* in the future. Those who

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* Mr. Murray says, "The second and third persons, in both numbers, of the second future tense of all verbs, require a variation from the forms which those tenses have in the indicative mood." Thus, "He *will* have completed the work by midsummer," is the indicative form; but the subjunctive is, "If he *shall* have completed the work by midsummer." But this form is used not only after conjunctions, but after many *adverbs*, such as *when*, *till*, *after*, *before*, etc.; and even after *relative pronouns*; as, "When he *shall* have accomplished the work;" "He will pay even every one who *shall* have completed the work assigned him."

† Mr. Murray seems not to have understood correctly what is meant when it is said that conjunctions govern moods. If there were a distinct form for the subjunctive mood, then a conjunction might be said to govern the subjunctive, if it required that particular form to follow it; but Mr. Murray represents the conjunction not as *governing* but as *creating* the subjunctive.

‡ So far as the verb is concerned, the subjunctive "declares" as much as the indicative; it is the conjunction which expresses the contingency.

limit the subjunctive to the present and imperfect tenses, would assign *turn* and *call* to the present subjunctive, and *shalt honor* to the future indicative—not only to different tenses, but to different moods, although there is no difference either in contingency or time.

The Potential. This mood seems to have no better foundation than the subjunctive. All the forms which are assigned to this mood consist of the indicative and infinitive of two verbs, the sign *to* of the infinitive being omitted. "I can write." Here "I can" is a positive affirmation of my ability: no verb in the indicative expresses a more positive and absolute assertion. The omission of *to* before *write* is certainly not sufficient to justify us in forming a distinct mood; if it were, we ought either to assign *bid*, *feel*, *let*, etc., and the verbs joined with them, to this mood, or form another mood for them.

The definition of the mood is taken from the *meaning* of the verbs, and the name is derived from the meaning of one of them. On the same principle that *can write* is called the *potential* mood, *love to write* would be called the *loving* mood; *wish to write*, the *wishing* or *optative* mood, etc. If we were to take, for instance, *love to write*, *wish to write*, *endeavor to write*, *intend to write*, class them together in a distinct mood, and give this mood a name derived from the meaning of one of the verbs placed before the infinitive, it would be carrying out the principle on which the potential is formed. This mood would be thus defined: "The optative mood implies love, desire, intention, or endeavor."

The objection to the existence of this mood does not rest on the fact that auxiliaries are employed to form it. If *may*, *can*, etc., were really employed as auxiliaries, the objection would not exist; but it is because these words seem to have the characteristics of *principal* verbs, that we think there is no such mood as the potential.*

I would proprose a division having reference to the subject of the verb. There would then be three moods.

1. The *indicative*, with which the subject is usually *expressed*;
2. The *imperative*, with which the subject is usually *omitted*;
3. The *infinitive*, which has no subject.

Or, perhaps it would be better to define these three moods in the usual way. The including of the "Subjunctive" in the indicative would not interfere with the definition, for the "subjunctive" *declares*, as much as the "indicative" does, so far as the verb is concerned; the only difference *between he has loved* and *if he has loved* consisting in the conjunction.

* In the perfect tense, for instance, we find real auxiliaries; as, "*I have written.*" Here *have* is not employed in the same sense which it has as a *principal* verb, and *written* is not used as a simple participle. From the juxtaposition of these two words arises an idea which is not merely the sum of those expressed by *have* and *written* when used separately (*have+written*;) as from the chemical union of two substances arises a *tertium quid*, or third substance, which is not either of the original substances, nor both added together. We may trace the original meaning of *have*, but it is peculiarly modified by its connection with the participle.

TENSES.

Tenses are modifications of the verb to denote the relation of the event to time.

There are three divisions of time; *present*, *past*, and *future*.

Remark.—Strictly speaking, present time is merely the point at which the past and the future meet; and if we take the smallest imaginable point of time for the present, this portion will contain some of the past and some of the future. Thus, if we assume this *hour* as the present time, a part of the hour is past and a part to come; so if we take this minute or second. But we may take any portion of time—a day, a year, or a century—and consider the whole of it as constituting present time, and the rest of time as past or future.

Thus, "I am writing this *moment*;" "I have written a letter *to-day*;" "Many great works have been written in this *century*;" "A great change has taken place *since the birth of Christ*." In the last example, the whole period from the birth of Christ, including the moment of speaking, is taken as present time. "Many earthquakes have occurred *since the creation*." Here the creation is the beginning of the time which is assumed as present.

EXERCISES.

What division of time is referred to in each of the following sentences?

I walked yesterday. I walk to-day. I will walk to-morrow. John loves James. You study well to-day. Cæsar defeated Pompey. Washington commanded the army. George is asleep. God loves good men. I will go home. Benjamin went to town last week. James stayed at home.

I have written a letter to-day. You had written your letter, before I commenced mine. You will have written three, before dinner. Many discoveries have been made in the present century. Many discoveries had been made before the commencement of this century.

In each division there are two tenses, one of which denotes the occurrence of the event in the division of time referred to; the other denotes the

What are tenses?
How many divisions of time?

How many tenses in each division?

event as perfect, that is, as having already taken place, in the time.

Thus we have six tenses, which are named as follows:

PRESENT TIME.

1. *Present Tense* .....as, "I write."
2. *Present Perfect Tense*.....as, "I have written."

PAST TIME.

1. *Past Tense* .....as, "I wrote."
2. *Past Perfect Tense*.....as, "I had written."

FUTURE TIME.

1. *Future Tense* .....as, "I shall write."
2. *Future Perfect Tense* .....as, "I shall have written."

FORMATION OF THE PERFECT TENSES.

I have is the present tense of the verb *to have; I had* is the past tense, and *I shall have* the future tense of *to have. Written* is the auxiliary perfect participle of the verb *to write.*

The perfect tenses are composed of the *present, past,* and *future* tenses of the verb *to have* and the *auxiliary perfect participle* of the principal verb, which in the present instance is *to write.* The tense of the verb *to have* denotes the time, and the perfect participle denotes the completion of the action. Thus,

Tense of verb *To have.* [Denoting the time.]	Participle. [Denoting the completion.]	Compound Tense. [Formed of the two.]
Present.	*Perfect.*	*Present Perfect.*
I have.....	written.	I have written.
Past.	*Perfect.*	*Past Perfect.*
I had	written.	I had written.
Future.	*Perfect.*	*Future Perfect.*
I shall have	written.	I shall have written.

How many tenses in all?
What are the names of the tenses?
Of what are the perfect tenses composed?
What does the auxiliary verb denote?
What does the participle denote?

Remarks.—1. To denote an action or state as *imperfect*, that is, as going on and not completed, the various tenses of the verb *to be* are used with the *imperfect* participle. Thus,

PRESENT TIME.	*Present Tense.* I am writing.	PAST TIME.	*Past Tense.* I was writing.	FUTURE TIME.	*Future Tense.* I shall be writing.
	Present Perfect Tense I have been writing.		*Past Perfect Tense.* I had been writing.		*Future Perfect Tense.* I shall have been writing.

2. Some verbs, from the nature of their signification, denote the continuance of the action; as, "I know him." These have none of the *imperfect* forms: "I am knowing him," is not used.

PRESENT TENSE.

The *Present* tense expresses what takes place in present time; as, "I *love*; I *am loved*."

Remarks.—1. Any existing custom or general truth may be expressed by this tense; as, "Thomas *visits* me every day;" "Vice *produces* misery."

2. In animated narration, this tense is sometimes used to express past events; the speaker is supposed to become so much interested that the events seem to be passing before him; as,

> "What sounds upon the midnight wind
> *Approach* so rapidly behind?
> It *is*, it *is*, the tramp of steeds,
> Matilda *hears* the sound, she *speeds*;
> *Seizes* upon the leader's rein."

This tense is sometimes used, in dependent clauses, to express *future* events, chiefly after *when*, *as soon as*, *till*, *after*, *before*, and after *relative pronouns*; as, "I shall see him when he *comes*," that is, *shall have come*; "I will go when John *rises*," that is, *shall have risen*; "You will not see clearly till daylight *appears*;" "I shall get a letter after the mail *arrives*;" "He will not get a letter before the mail *arrives*;" "He will kill every one whom he *meets*."

Remark.—This tense may be used in speaking of an author long since dead, when we refer to his works which still exist; as, "Virgil imitates Homer."

How is imperfect action denoted?
Define the present tense.
What may be expressed by this tense?
Is this tense ever used to express past events?
When is it used to express future events?
How may this tense be used in speaking of an author who is dead?

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE. [PERFECT.]

The *Present Perfect* tense represents an action or state as perfect or finished, in present time; as, "I *have walked* to-day;" "John *has studied* this week;" "Many excellent works *have been written* in this century."

Note.—The time is present, though the action or state is past; this tense cannot be used, if the smallest portion of time has intervened between that which is assumed as present, and that in which the event took place. Thus it would be incorrect to say, "I *have seen* him a moment ago."

Remarks.—1. This tense may be used when we speak of an author long since dead, when the works to which we refer are still in existence; as, "Milton *has written* some noble works."

Here we refer not so much to the act of writing, as to Milton's character as a writer, as shown in the works which still exist. But if the works did not remain, we should say, "Milton *wrote*;" and even if the work is extant, if we refer to the act of writing, we use the *past* tense; as, "Milton *wrote* Paradise Lost."

2. This tense, as well as the present, is sometimes used in dependent clauses to express a future event; as, "When he *has finished* his studies, he will go home," that is, when he *shall have finished*.

PAST TENSE. [IMPERFECT.]

The *Past* tense expresses what took place in past time; as, "I *wrote* a letter yesterday;" "God *created* the world;" "Cæsar *was killed* by Brutus."

Remarks.—1. This tense is used only when the time has completely expired; but we sometimes say, "He *walked* to-day," referring to a *portion* of the day which has expired.

2. As the *present* time sometimes denotes a *present* custom, so this tense sometimes denotes a *past* custom; as,

> "Thirty steeds, both fleet and wight,
> *Stood* saddled in stable day and night,
> A hundred more *fed* free in stall;—
> Such was the custom in Branksome Hall."

Define the present perfect tense.
How may this tense be used in speaking of an author who is dead?
When is it used to express a future event?

Define the past tense.
When only is this tense used?
Does this tense ever denote a custom?

PAST PERFECT TENSE. [PLUPERFECT.]

The *Past Perfect* tense represents an action or state as perfect or finished at some past time referred to; as, "I *had written* a letter when he arrived;" "The ship *had sailed* before he reached Boston."

FUTURE.

The *Future* tense expresses what will take place hereafter; as, "George *will go* to town, and I *shall see* him."

Remark.—A *future* custom may be expressed by this tense; as, "The wolf also *shall dwell* with the lamb, and the leopard *shall lie* down with the kid." "And the lion *shall eat* straw like the ox."

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE. [SECOND FUTURE.]

The *Future Perfect* tense represents an action or state as perfect or finished at some future time; as, "I *shall have dined* at one o'clock;" "I will go before I *shall have* seen him."

Note.—In the second example, the future time to which *shall have seen* belongs, is not the same as that to which *will go* refers; the meaning is, "I will go before the time at which I shall have seen him;" *at which* (*time*) denoting the future time to which *shall have seen* refers.

SIGNS OF THE TENSES.

PRESENT.—In the active voice, same as the simple form of the infinitive; after *thou*, *est* is annexed to the simple form; after a word in the third person, *s* is annexed.

In the passive voice, *am*, *are*, *art*, and *is*, with the *passive* participle.

PRESENT PERFECT.—*Have*, *hast*, and *has*.

Define the past perfect tense.
Define the future tense.
Does this tense ever denote a custom?
Define the future perfect tense.

PAST.—In the active voice of regular verbs, *ed* is annexed to the simple form; after *thou*, *edst*. In the passive voice, *was*, *wast*, and *were*, with the *passive* participle.

PAST PERFECT.—*Had* and *hadst*.

FUTURE.—*Shall*, *will*, *shalt*, and *wilt*.

FUTURE PERFECT.—*Shall have*, *will have*, *shalt have*, and *wilt have*.

EXAMPLES.

PRESENT, ACTIVE.—I follow, (infinitive, *to follow*,) thou follow*est*, he follow*s*, we follow.
PASSIVE.—I *am* follow*ed*, thou *art* follow*ed*, he *is* follow*ed*, we *are* follow*ed*.

PRESENT PERFECT ACTIVE.—I *have* followed, thou *hast* followed, he *has* followed.
PASSIVE.—I *have been* follow*ed*.

PAST, ACTIVE.—I follow*ed*, thou follow*edst*, he follow*ed*.
PASSIVE.—I *was* follow*ed*, thou *wast* follow*ed*, we *were* follow*ed*.

PAST PERFECT, ACTIVE.—I *had* follow*ed*, thou *hadst* follow*ed*.
PASSIVE.—I *had been* follow*ed*.

FUTURE, ACTIVE.—I *shall* follow, thou *wilt* follow, he *will* follow.
PASSIVE.—I *shall be* follow*ed*, thou *wilt be* follow*ed*.

FUTURE PERFECT, ACTIVE.—I *shall have* followed, thou *wilt have* followed.
PASSIVE.—I *shall have been* followed.

Note.—The passive voice has not the participle in *ing*. "I am follow*ing*," is not passive.

EXERCISES.

1. In what tense is each of the following verbs?

John rides often. Thomas has read the book. The horse threw his rider. The cow had eaten the corn before the horse came to the stable. The snow will melt soon. The wood will have been cut before that time. Spring will return. Important events have occurred in this century. Bonaparte was sent to Elba. I have seen many things in my life. Darius was defeated by Alexander. The rain falls in torrents. The night is dark. The shoe will soon be mended, George will then go home. Amelia loves study. I had seen it before you saw it. My work will have been completed before the time at which the bell usually rings. The robbers attacked the traveler.

Peace brings happiness. War brings misery. The world has had enough of war. I will assist you.

2. Name three verbs in the present tense—three in the present perfect—three in the past—three in the past perfect—three in the future—three in the future perfect.

REMARKS ON THE TENSES IN THE DIFFERENT MOODS.

1. The *indicative* has six tenses.

2. The *subjunctive*, being nothing more than the indicative or potential after certain conjunctions, has also six tenses.

3. In conditions or suppositions, the *past* form sometimes refers to *present* time; as, "If I *had* a pen now, I would write." In this sense the verb implies that the thing supposed does not exist. "I wish that I *had* wings," implies that I have no wings; "He walks as if he *carried* a mountain," implies that he does not carry a mountain. "If I *have* a pen," leaves it uncertain whether I have a pen or not.

4. The *past perfect* is used in the same way in reference to past time; as, "If I *had seen* him yesterday, I would have spoken to him." Here, *had seen* does not refer to an action *completed* yesterday, but merely expresses a supposition with reference to past time.

5. The verb *to be* has, in the singular number, a separate form in expressions of this kind, when reference is made to present time; thus, "If I *were*, if thou *wert*, if he *were*," instead of "If I *was*, if thou *wast*, if he *was*."* The plural has no separate form.

6. *Were* is often used instead of *would be*, or *should be*, and *had*, when employed as an auxiliary, instead of *would have*, or *should have;* as, "The city *were* ruined by such a course;" "James's fortitude *had been* laudable, had he persisted in his first intention."

7. The past tense of other verbs is sometimes, though not often, used in the same way as *were;* as, "Such a policy, while it *gladdened* the hearts of the poor, would in ten years cause a greater advance in the wealth," etc.—*Princeton Review.* Here *gladdened* is used instead of *would gladden.*

8. The *potential* has four tenses, which are usually called the *present*, the *perfect*, [present perfect,] the *imperfect*, [past,] and the *pluperfect*, [past perfect.]

EXAMPLES.

PRESENT.—I *may* write, I *can* write, I *must* write.

In what does the past form refer to present time?	When used in this way, what does the verb imply?

* These forms were formerly used promiscuously, at least in the second person; as, "Before the heavens thou *wert*."—*Milton.* Eminent grammarians have supposed that the two forms originated from two different dialects of the Anglo-Saxon language.

PRESENT PERFECT.—I *may have* written, I *can have* written,* I *must have* written.

PAST.—I *might* write, I *could* write. I *would* write, I *should* write.

PAST PERFECT.—I *might have* written, I *could have* written, I *would have* written, I *should have* written.

9. The *present* denotes present *permission*, *ability*, *necessity*, or *possibility*. Thus, "You *may* write" denotes that you have present permission to write; "I *can* write," that I have present ability to write; "I *must* write," that I am under present necessity of writing. "I *may* write," sometimes expresses present *possibility*; as, "I may write to-morrow, but I have not determined." *May* is sometimes used in expressing a wish; as, "May you be happy."

Note.—It is the *ability*, *permission*, *necessity*, or *possibility* that is present; the act of *writing* itself is future, if any particular time is referred to. These forms are easily understood, if *may*, *can*, and *must* are considered as in the present *indicative*, and *write* as in the *infinitive*.

10. *May have written*, etc., are the present indicative *may*, etc., and the perfect infinitive *to have written*. "I may have written," means, "It is possible that I *wrote*."

11. *Might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* were originally the past tenses of *may*, *can*, *will*, and *shall*; *could*, *would*, and *might* are still sometimes used simply as past tenses; as, "I *could* write yesterday;" that is, *was* able; "Though I endeavored to dissuade him, he *would* go;" that is, *was* determined; "She *would* go out in the morning to gather flowers;" that is, *was* accustomed; "Often *might* she be seen returning in the evening;" that is, it *was* possible to see her, etc. *Should* is not now used in this way.

12. These words are generally used to express a condition or an affirmation depending on a condition, and refer to present time, or are indefinite with regard to time; as, "I *could* write now, if you *would* permit me."

13. They are often employed like the past tense of other verbs, to express a supposition referring to present time, and implying that the thing supposed does not exist; as, "If he *would* remain a few days, I would accompany him;" that is, if he *were* willing.

14. *Should* often expresses present *obligation*, *duty*, etc.; as, "You *should* be industrious."

15. These words are often used to express a softened assertion; as, "I *could* wish a change to be made;" "I *should* be inclined to doubt his candor." In this sense they refer to present time.

16. The forms assigned to the *past perfect* (*pluperfect*) are composed of *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, and the perfect infinitive. They seem to be

* *Can have written* is not used in the *affirmative* form; but it is used in *interrogations* and *negations*; as, "*Can* he *have done* this?" "He *cannot have done* this." *Can have* in interrogative and negative sentences corresponds to *may have* in affirmative sentences.

allied to the past perfect in *form*, since they are composed of a past form and the perfect *infinitive*, (though not the perfect *participle*;) yet they never have the meaning of this tense—they never denote an action completed at some past time referred to. In meaning, this is simply a *past* (*imperfect*) tense. Thus, referring to present time, we say, "I *would write* to-day, if I had a pen;" that is, I *am* willing to write. Referring to past time we say, "I *would have written* yesterday, if I had had a pen;" that is, I *was* willing to write. *Might*, *could*, etc., are not used in a past sense, but they are considered as the present time of verbs which have no past form; and they are made to refer to past time by changing the form of the verb with which they are connected. "I would have written," is used instead of, "I *woulded* write;" "I should have written," instead of, "I *shoulded* write."

17. This point may be illustrated by a comparison with the manner of using the verb *ought*. This verb was originally the past tense of *owed*; thus, "You *ought* (*owed*) him a thousand pound."—*Shakspeare*. It is now used in a present sense, and has no past form. When we wish to express a *past* duty or obligation, we make a change in the verb with which it is connected. Thus, "You ought to write to-day;" that is, you *are* under obligation to write; "You ought to have written yesterday;" that is, you *were* under obligation to write. The perfect infinitive is employed here, not in its usual sense, but merely to give a past meaning to *ought*.

18. The *imperative* has but one tense, which is called the *present*. This term has reference to the time in which the command is given; the *action* is of course always to be performed after the time of speaking.

19. The *infinitive* has two tenses, which are called the *imperfect*, or *present*, and the *perfect*.

20. The imperfect, or present, denotes an action or state not completed at the time referred to by the verb with which it is connected. It may be joined with any tense of the verb; as, "I *wish* to write;" "I *wished* to write;" "I *shall wish* to write."

21. The perfect denotes an action as completed in reference to the time of the verb with which it is connected; as, "He *is said* to have written;" "He *was said* to have written;" "He *will be said* to have written."

22. These forms refer only to the *continuance* or *completion* of the action; *imperfect* and *perfect* are the appropriate names. *See* "*Participles*."

NUMBER AND PERSON.

The number and person of the verb are the forms appropriated to the different numbers and persons of the subject.

What are the number and person of verbs?

Thus, in the present tense with the first person singular we use *love*, with the second *lovest*, and with the third *loves;* as, "I love, thou lovest, he loves."

Remarks.—1. Some languages have a peculiar form for every person in both numbers; but in English there are not so many separate forms. The second person singular has a form appropriated to itself in all the tenses, and the third person singular has a distinct form of the verb in the *present* tense —the present of the verb *to have* retaining this form when used as an auxiliary in the *present perfect*. There is no other change in regular verbs on account of the number and person of the subject.

2. The three persons in the plural are always alike, and, with the exception of the verb *to be*, the same as the first person singular.

3. The imperative mood has usually only the *second* person.

4. In some languages this mood has the first person plural, and the third person in both numbers. In the English language also these persons are sometimes used; as in the following examples:—

"He that hath eeris of herynge, *here he*."—*Wiclif, Matt.* xi.

"*Geve he* to her a lybel."—*Id. Matt.* v.

"*Send he* his vassal train—*himself advance*,
Here will I take my stand—*decide our swords* the chance."
—*Hunt's Tasso.*

"*Confide we* in ourselves alone;" "With virtue *be we* armed;" "*Cull we* the rose;" "*Do we* what duty bids."—*Id.*

"*Fall he* that must beneath his rival's arm,
And *live the rest*, secure from future harm."—*Pope.*

"*Laugh those* that can, *weep those* that may."—*Scott.*

"'And *rest we* here,' Matilda said."—*Ib.*

"My soul, turn from them—*turn we* to survey."—*Goldsmith.*

"*Commence we* now that higher state,
Now *do* thy will as angels do."—*Montgomery.*

5. The usual mode of expressing the same idea is by using the infinitive mood, with the second person imperative of the verb *let*, and the objective case of the noun or pronoun; as, "Let him hear;" "Let us confide." *Let* is often used in this way, even when there is no command addressed to any one; as, "Let there be light."

6. The verb in such expressions as, "Hallowed be thy name," "Thy kingdom come," "Be it enacted," "Be it so," "So help me God," "So do God to Abner," etc., should be considered as belonging to the third person of the imperative.

7. The infinite, as it has no subject, has no number and person.

PARTICIPLES.

A participle is a word which expresses an action or state, like a verb, and belongs to a noun like an adjective.

It is so called because it *participates* the properties of both a verb and an adjective.

A participle, like a verb, denotes an action or state, and, like a verb, is *transitive* or *intransitive*, and when transitive is used in the active and passive *voices;* but it cannot be so used as to express an affirmation. Like an adjective, it belongs to a noun; as, "I see a man *cutting* wood." Here, *cutting* denotes an action, is in the active voice, and has an object like a transitive verb; it belongs to the noun *man*, like an adjective.*

Note.—The participle is no more entitled to be considered a distinct part of speech, than the *infinitive mood* is. They are both *participles* in the etymological sense of the term; the one participating in the properties of an *adjective* and a verb, the other of a *noun* and a verb.

CLASSES OF PARTICIPLES.

The participle has three forms in the active voice, and three in the passive.

Each voice has the *Imperfect* and the *Perfect* participle. The active voice has also the *Auxiliary Perfect* participle, and the passive voice has the *Passive* participle.

The *Imperfect* participle denotes the *continuance*

What is a participle? | Like an adjective?
Why so called? | How many participles has each verb?
In what respect is a participle like a verb? | What does the imperfect participle imply?

* Participles are intermediate between verbs and adjectives, as zoophytes are between animals and vegetables. Lord Bacon gives the name *participle* to those productions which seem to form a connecting link between the animal and vegetable kingdoms. "The *participles* or confiners between plants and living creatures are such chiefly as are fixed, and have no local motion of remove, though they have a motion in their parts. * * * There is a fabulous narration, that in the northern countries there should be an herb that groweth in the likeness of a lamb, and feedeth upon the grass in such sort as it will bare the grass round about."—*Natural History*, page 609.

of the action or state; as, "John is *cutting* wood;" "*Being loved* by all, Alice is happy."

The *Perfect* participle denotes the *completion* of the action or state; as, "*Having cut* the wood, he is making a fire;" "The wood *having been cut*, he will make a fire."

In the example, "John is *cutting* wood," the action is represented as imperfect, or continuing; in "*Having cut* the wood," the action is represented as perfect, or completed.

The *Passive* participle merely denotes that the object to whose name it belongs is *acted upon;* as, "The wood was *cut;*" "Mary is *loved.*"

The *Auxiliary Perfect* participle is used to aid in forming the perfect tenses; as, "I have *loved;*" "The wood has *been* cut."

The passive participle and the auxiliary perfect participle are always alike in form.

Remarks.—1. The *imperfect* participle is usually called the *present*, but may denote either a present, a past, or a future action; as, "I am writing, I was writing, I shall be writing." The action is present only in relation to the time of the verb with which it is connected.

2. As the imperfect participle denotes an action *continuing* or *incomplete*, so the *perfect* participle denotes an action *completed* at the time referred to by the principal verb. It may, like the imperfect participle, denote either a present, a past, or a future action, but it always represents the action as *perfect* or *completed* at the time referred to; as, "*Having cut* the wood, he made a fire yesterday;" "*Having cut* the wood, he is now making a fire;" "*Having cut* the wood to-morrow, he will make a fire."

3. That eminent grammarian, Goold Brown, calls this the *pluperfect* participle, "not because this compound is really of the pluperfect tense, but because it always denotes being, action, or passion, that is, or was, or will be *completed before* the doing or being of something else; and, of course, when the latter thing is represented as past, the participle must correspond to the

What does the perfect participle imply?
What other participles have transitive verbs?
What does the passive participle imply?
What is this participle called when used to aid in forming the perfect tenses of the active voice?

pluperfect tense of its verb; as, '*Having explained* her views, it was necessary she should expatiate on the vanity and futility of the enjoyments promised by pleasure.'—*Jamieson's Rhetoric*, p. 181. Here, *having explained* is equivalent to *when she had explained.*"—*Institutes of English Grammar*, p. 83.

Pluperfect does not mean *completed before;* it is a technical name of a particular tense, and if it is applied to a participle, it should be because the participle resembles the tense in some respect. When *past* time is referred to, it *does* resemble the pluperfect tense; but when *present* time is referred to, it resembles the *perfect* tense; and if the time is *future*, it resembles the *second future* tense. If the time referred to in the example quoted by Mr. Brown, were present, *having explained* would be equivalent to *when she has explained;* and if the time were *future*, the same participle would be equivalent to *when she shall have explained.* It would be as correct to call this the *second future* participle as the *pluperfect.*

The nature of this participle may be easily learned by observing to what tenses it is equivalent; these are the *present perfect*, the *past perfect*, and the *future perfect.* The participle, then, belongs to no particular division of time, and simply denotes action *perfect*, that is, completed at any time.

4. The passive participle is usually called the *perfect participle.* "It is manifest," says Mr. Brown, "that the perfect participle of the verb *to love*, whether active or passive, is the simple word *loved*, and not this compound [*having loved.*"] In this we think he is mistaken. If we wish to express, by a participle, an action completed at any time, we use the compound form, and this is *the* perfect participle. The characteristic of the participle in *ed* is, that it implies the *reception* of an action; as, "Cæsar was killed by Brutus." In this sentence Cæsar is represented as *acted upon* by Brutus. *Was* does not express this idea—it makes the affirmation, and points to the time, but *killed* is the word which denotes the reception of the action.* It does not denote an action *perfect*, or completed, at the time to which *was* refers. "Mary lives *loving* all, and *loved* by all." In this sentence *loved* certainly does not denote an action "*done* and *completed;*" it merely implies that the person to whose name it belongs is *acted upon.* "She is loved by all," is nothing more than "*All love her*" expressed in a passive form. This participle is the word which *forms* the passive voice—gives it its peculiar mode of signification.

The use of this participle in the perfect tenses of the active voice should not be taken into consideration in giving it a name or a definition. We

* "Brutus killed Cæsar," expresses, in the active form, what "Cæsar was killed by Brutus," does in the passive. Some logicians, in analyzing *killed*, would say, that it contained the copula *was*, and the predicate *killing;* incorrectly, however, for *killing* denotes the *continuance* of the action. Neither *killing* nor *having killed* would answer; a third participle would be necessary to denote the action without reference to the continuance or the completion. This participle would be the simple *active* participle, and would have the same relation to the active form that *killed* has to the passive. The active form expresses the copula and predicate by one word, so that there is no need of this third participle in the *active* voice. What that third participle *would* be to the active, the passive participle *is* to the passive.

might, with as much propriety, take into view the use of the verb *to have* as an auxiliary, when defining it as a principal verb. When a word entirely changes its application, it becomes in effect a different word. Words are classified according to their signification, and not according to form. It is probable that this participle was originally a *passive* participle; but so far from being a passive participle now, it is used in *intransitive* verbs, which have no passive voice. *See Remarks on the Auxiliary Verbs*, p. 105.

In the sentence, "I have *built* a house of stone," *built* has an active signification, and is the *auxiliary perfect* participle; while in the sentence, "I have a house *built* of stone," it has a passive meaning, and forms the *passive* participle.

The passive participle of certain verbs sometimes denotes completed action; as, "The house is *emptied*;" "The house is *built*;" "The letter is *written*." As far as the completion of the action is concerned, "The house is built," is equivalent to "The house has been built;" but the former sentence denotes an *existing state*, rather than a completed action. The name of the agent cannot be expressed in phrases of this kind. We cannot say, "The house is built by John." When we say, "The house is built by mechanics," we do not express an existing state.

5. The imperfect participle is sometimes improperly used for the perfect; as, "Saying [having said] this, he departed;" "This being said, [having been said,] he departed."

6. Participles are sometimes used as nouns; as, "*Playing* is pleasant;" "He spends too much time in *playing*." Participles, when used as nouns, may be called *participial nouns*. These participial nouns, in their use, resemble the infinitive more than they do the participle in its adjective sense.*

CONJUGATION.

The conjugation of a verb is the regular arrangement of its parts, according to the voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

The only regular terminations added to verbs are *est*, *s*, *ed*, *edst*, and *ing*. Thus:

What are participial nouns? | What is the conjugation of a verb?

* "It is to be observed, also, that in English there are two infinitives, one in *ing*, the same in sound and spelling as the participle present, from which, however, it should be carefully distinguished: *e. g.* 'rising early is healthful,' and 'it is healthful to rise early,' are equivalent." "Grammarians have produced much needless perplexity in speaking of the *participle in* 'ing' being employed so and so; when it is manifest that that very employment of the word constitutes it, to all intents and purposes, an *infinitive*, and not a participle. The advantage of the infinitive in *ing*, is, that it may be used in the nominative or in any oblique case."—*Archbishop Whately; Logic*, Book ii, Chap. 1, § 8.

Pain...painest...pains ..pained...painedst...paining;
Drop ..droppest..drops ..dropped..droppedst..dropping;
Love...lovest....loves...loved....lovedst....loving;
Carry..carriest...carries..carried...carriedst...carrying.

See General Rules for Spelling, iii, v, *and* vii.

All other changes are made by the use of auxiliaries.

In adding *s*, the same changes take place that occur in forming the plural of nouns; as, *wish, wishes; go, goes; tarry, tarries.*

The PRINCIPAL PARTS are the *imperfect* [*present*] *infinitive*, the *past indicative*, and the *auxiliary perfect participle*, which is the same in form as the *passive* participle. When these are known, all the parts of the verb may be formed by using the proper terminations and auxiliaries.

In *regular* verbs all that is necessary to be known is the imperfect [present] infinitive.

The present indicative is the same as the imperfect infinitive with the sign *to* omitted, except in th everb *to be*, which has *am.*

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *TO LOVE* IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Imperfect Infinitive.	*Past Indicative.*	*Auxiliary Perfect Participle.*
Love.	Loved.	Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I love,	1. We love,
2. Thou lovest,	2. Ye *or* you love,
3. He loves.*	3. They love.

What are the principal parts?

* The third person singular of the present formerly ended in *eth.* This form is still sometimes used in the solemn style. Contractions sometimes take place; as, *sayst* for *sayest.*

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE. [PERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have loved,	1. We have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,	2. You have loved,
3. He has loved.	3. They have loved.

PAST TENSE. [IMPERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I loved,	1. We loved,
2. Thou lovedst,	2. You loved,
3. He loved.	3. They loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE. [PLUPERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had loved,	1. We had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,	2. You had loved,
3. He had loved.	3. They had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall *or* will love,	1. We shall *or* will love,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt love,	2. You shall *or* will love,
3. He shall *or* will love.	3. They shall *or* will love.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE. [SECOND FUTURE.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall *or* will have loved,	1. We shall *or* will have loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have loved,	2. You shall *or* will have loved,
3. He shall *or* will have loved.	3. They shall *or* will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

This mood is the same as the indicative, except that it is preceded by a conjunction implying contingency, etc.; as, *if I love, if I have loved, if I loved*, etc. The auxiliary is often omitted in the *future* tense; as, *if I love, if thou love, if he love;* that is, *if I shall love*, etc.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I love,	1. If we love,
2. If thou lovest,	2. If you love,
3. If he loves.	3. If they love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE. [PERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I have loved,	1. If we have loved,
2. If thou hast loved,	2. If you have loved,
3. If he has loved.	3. If they have loved.

PAST TENSE. [IMPERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I loved,	1. If we loved,
2. If thou lovedst,	2. If you loved,
3. If he loved.	3. If they loved.

The pupil may proceed with the other tenses in the same way.

POTENTIAL MOOD.*

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may *or* can *or* must love,	1. We may *or* can *or* must love,
2. Thou mayst *or* canst *or* must love,	2. You may *or* can *or* must love,
3. He may *or* can *or* must love.	3. They may *or* can *or* must love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE. [PERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may *or* can† *or* must have loved,	1. We may *or* can *or* must have loved,
2. Thou mayst *or* canst *or* must have loved,	2. You may *or* can *or* must have loved,
3. He may *or* can *or* must have loved.	3. They may *or* can *or* must have loved.

* See "Remarks on the Tenses in the different Moods," 8—18, pp. 74, 75, and 76.

† *Can have* is not used in *affirmative* sentences.

PAST TENSE. [IMPERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I might, could, would, *or* should love,	1. We might, could, would, *or* should love,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst love,	2. You might, could, would, *or* should love,
3. He might, could, would, *or* should love.	3. They might, could, would, *or* should love.

PAST PERFECT TENSE. [PLUPERFECT.]

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

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Love, *or* love thou.	Love, *or* love ye, *or* love you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

IMPERFECT. [PRESENT.]	PERFECT TENSE.
To love.	To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

IMPERFECT. [PRESENT.]	PERFECT.	AUXILIARY PERFECT.
Loving.	Having loved.	Loved.

Remark.—The verb *do* is used as an auxiliary in the present and past tenses of the indicative and subjunctive, for the sake of emphasis; also in the imperative; as,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I do love,	1. We do love,
2. Thou dost love,	2. You do love,
3. He does love.	3. They do love.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I did love,	1. We did love,
2. Thou didst love,	2. You did love,
3. He did love.	3. They did love.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. Do thou love.	2. Do you love, *or* do ye love.

Remark.—*Do* is sometimes used when *shall* or *should* is omitted; as, "If thou do repent." Sometimes also when *may* is omitted; as, "That the shame of thy nakedness do not appear."—*Rev.* iii, 18.

EXERCISES.

1. Conjugate in writing the following verbs.

Learn, wish, play, jump, regret, follow.

2. Tell or write the first person singular of all the tenses of the following verbs, together with the infinitive and participles.

Paint, gather, heat, warm, look, try, study, hope, succeed.

3. Tell or write the second person singular of the same verbs—the third person—the first person plural—the second—the third.

4. In what mood, tense, number, and person, is each of the following verbs?

I have loved, he walked, we learn, I shall form, you have defeated, they will have completed, I may learn, I could walk, he could have formed, learn thou, he does desire, I did learn, thou didst remain, thou hast waited, ye have complied, wait ye, I had expected, thou hadst intended, George will learn, Joseph has waited, Mary has studied.

CONJUGATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB *TO BE.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Imperfect Infinitive.	*Past Indicative.*	*Auxiliary Perfect Participle.*
Be.	Was.	Been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am,	1. We are,
2. Thou art,	2. You are,
3. He is.	3. They are.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE. [PERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	2. You have been,
3. He has been.	3. They have been.

PAST TENSE. [IMPERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I was,	1. We were,
2. Thou wast,	2. You were,
3. He was.	3. They were.

PAST PERFECT TENSE. [PLUPERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been,	1. We had been,
2. Thou hadst been,	2. You had been,
3. He had been.	3. They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall *or* will be,	1. We shall *or* will be,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be,	2. You shall *or* will be,
3. He shall *or* will be.	3. They shall *or* will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE. [SECOND FUTURE.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall *or* will have been,	1. We shall *or* will have been,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been,	2. You shall *or* will have been,
3. He shall *or* will have been.	3. They shall *or* will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

This mood has the tenses of the indicative; and instead of the common form of the past tense, to express a supposition referring to present time, it has a separate form in the singular. *If I was*

refers to past time, and leaves it uncertain whether I was or was not: *if I were* refers to present time, and implies that I am not. *See Remarks on the Tenses in the different Moods,* 3 *and* 8.

PAST TENSE. [IMPERFECT.]

Common Form.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I was,	1. If we were,
2. If thou wast,	2. If you were,
3. If he was.	3. If they were.

Hypothetical Form.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I were,	1. If we were,
2. If thou wert,	2. If you were,
3. If he were.	3. If they were.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may *or* can *or* must be,	1. We may *or* can *or* must be,
2. Thou mayst *or* canst *or* must be,	2. You may *or* can *or* must be,
3. He may *or* can *or* must be.	3. They may *or* can *or* must be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE. [PERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may *or* can *or* must have been,	1. We may *or* can *or* must have been,
2. Thou mayst *or* canst *or* must have been,	2. You may *or* can *or* must have been,
3. He may *or* can *or* must have been.	3. They may *or* can *or* must have been.

What is said of *if I were*, etc.?

PAST TENSE. [IMPERFECT.]

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

PAST PERFECT TENSE. [PLUPERFECT.]

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

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. Be, *or* be thou, *or* do thou be.	2. Be, *or* be ye, *or* be you, *or* do ye be, *or* do you be.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

IMPERFECT TENSE. [PRESENT.]	PERFECT TENSE.
To be.	To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

IMPERFECT. [PRESENT.]	PERFECT.	AUXILIARY PERFECT.
Being.	Having been.	Been.

Remarks.—1. *Be* and *beest* were formerly used in the present; as, "We *be* twelve brethren."—*Gen.* xlii, 32. "There *be* of protestants," etc.—*Milton.* "Thus much we all know and confess, that they *be* not of the highest nature."—*Bacon.* "If thou *beest* he."—*Milton.*

2. The emphatic forms of the present and past tenses are not used in this verb.

3. *Were* is often used instead of *would be*, and *had been* instead of *would have been*. *See Remarks on the Tenses in the different moods*, 6.

EXERCISES.

Tell the mood, tense, number, and person of each of the following.

I had been, you shall be, we shall have been, be, thou art, he has been, it is, John will be, James is, Mary could be, thou couldst have been, if he were, Sarah had been, we might have been.

PASSIVE VOICE.

The passive voice is formed by using the passive participle with the verb *to be*.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *TO LOVE* IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am loved,	1. We are loved,
2. Thou art loved,	2. You are loved,
3. He is loved.	3. They are loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE. [PERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been loved,	1. We have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,	2. You have been loved,
3. He has been loved.	3. They have been loved.

PAST TENSE. [IMPERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I was loved,	1. We were loved,
2. Thou wast loved,	2. You were loved,
3. He was loved.	3. They were loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE. [PLUPERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been loved,	1. We had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,	2. You had been loved,
3. He had been loved.	3. They had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall *or* will be loved,	1. We shall *or* will be loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be loved,	2. You shall *or* will be loved,
3. He shall *or* will be loved.	3. They shall *or* will be loved.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE. [SECOND FUTURE.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall *or* will have been loved,	1. We shall *or* will have been loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been loved,	2. You shall *or* will have been loved,
3. He shall *or* will have been loved.	3. They shall *or* will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

See the conjugation of the verb *to be.*

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may *or* can *or* must be loved,	1. We may *or* can *or* must be loved,
2. Thou mayst *or* canst *or* must be loved,	2. You may *or* can *or* must be loved,
3. He may *or* can *or* must be loved.	3. They may *or* can *or* must be loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE. [PERFECT.]

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

PAST TENSE. [IMPERFECT.]

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

PAST PERFECT TENSE. [PLUPERFECT.]

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

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. Be loved, *or* be thou loved, *or* do thou be loved.	2. Be loved, *or* be ye loved, *or* be you loved, *or* do you be loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

IMPERFECT TENSE. [PRESENT.]	PERFECT TENSE.
To be loved.	To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

IMPERFECT. [PRESENT.]	PERFECT.	PASSIVE.
Being loved.	Having been loved.	Loved.

Remark.—Certain intransitive verbs have sometimes the form of the passive voice, without being passive in sense; as, "He is gone;" "The Lord is risen indeed." These do not admit after them the name of the agent with the preposition *by*, as transitive verbs in the passive voice do.

Thus, we may say, "He is loved by John;" but not, "He is gone by John." "He *has* risen," and "He *is* risen," both represent the subject as performing the action.

EXERCISES.

1. Conjugate in writing the following verbs in the passive voice.

Pain, follow, admit, attend, persuade, carry.

2. Tell or write the first person singular of all the tenses of the preceding verbs in the passive voice, together with the infinitive and participles.

3. Tell or write the second person singular of the same verbs—the third person singular—the first person plural—the second—the third.

4. In what voice, mood, tense, number, and person, is each of the following verbs?

I am loved, thou hast been deceived, he is followed, we shall be helped, he has formed, he has been formed, I will admit, we may have been deceived, you should attend, to help, to be helped, having helped, having been helped, to have been helped, to have helped.

IMPERFECT FORM.

The forms which denote the action or state as *imperfect*, or continuing, are composed of the imperfect participle and the verb *to be*. Thus,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am writing,	1. We are writing,
2. Thou art writing,	2. You are writing,
3. He is writing.	3. They are writing.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE. [PERFECT.]

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been writing,	1. We have been writing,
2. Thou hast been writing,	2. You have been writing,
3. He has been writing.	3. They have been writing.

The pupil may go through the other tenses in the same way.

What is said concerning some intransitive verbs that have the form of the passive voice?

Remarks.—1. Some verbs of this form are sometimes used in a passive sense; as, "The house *is building*;" "While these arrangements *were making*."

2. In modern usage the same idea is often expressed by the imperfect participle passive; as, "What lies at the bottom of the question which *is* now *being discussed* every where?"—*Dr. Arnold. Lectures on History.* "He struck the Count de Harcourt a violent blow, as he *was being led away*."—*James. Life of Edward the Black Prince.*

This mode of expression is not improper in the nature of things, but it is too modern to be yet considered a principle of the language.

NEGATIVE FORM.

In simple *negation* the adverb *not* is placed after the verb, or after the first auxiliary—sometimes after the object of a transitive verb; as, "I love *not* this man;" "I do *not* love you;" "I love you *not*."

Not is placed before the infinitive and participles; as, "Not to love;" "Not loving;" and after the *subject* in the imperative mood, when the subject is expressed.

The simple forms of the present and past tenses are seldom used in this negative form.

EXAMPLES.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.....I do not love.
Present Perfect...I have not loved.
Past.....I did not love.
Past Perfect.....I had not loved.
Future.....I shall *or* will not love.
Future Perfect....I shall *or* will not have loved.

Where is the adverb, *not*, placed in simple negation?

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.....If I do not love.
Present Perfect ...If I have not loved, etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present .....I may, can, *or* must not love.
Present Perfect..I may, can, *or* must not have loved.
Past .....I might, could, would, *or* should not love.
Past Perfect....I might, could, would, *or* should not have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Love not, *or* love thou not, *or* do not love, *or* do thou not love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Imperfect. [Present.]....Not loving.
Perfect.....Not to have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect. [Present.]....Not loving.
Perfect.....Not having loved.

Note.—The first person only is given. The pupil may name all the persons, and go in the same way through the passive, *I am not loved, I have not been loved*, etc.

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

In *interrogative* sentences the subject is placed after the first auxiliary, or after the verb when there is no auxiliary; as, "Lovest thou?" "Dost thou love?"

The simple forms of the present and past tenses are seldom used in interrogation.

None but the indicative and potential moods can be used interrogatively.

How is the subject placed in interrogative sentences?

EXAMPLES.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.....Do I love?
Present Perfect.....Have I loved?
Past.....Did I love?
Past Perfect.....Had I loved?
Future.....Shall I love?
Future Perfect.....Shall I have loved?

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present.....May, can, *or* must I love?
Present Perfect..May, can, *or* must I have loved?
Past.....Might, could, would, *or* should I love?
Past Perfect....Might, could, would, *or* should I have loved?

PASSIVE VOICE. Am I loved? Have I been loved? Was I loved? etc.

INTERROGATIVE NEGATIVE FORM.

In *interrogative negative* sentences the subject is placed after the first auxiliary, and followed by the adverb *not;* if no auxiliary is used, the subject and the adverb follow the verb.

EXAMPLES.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.....Do I not love?
Present Perfect.....Have I not loved?
Past.....Did I not love?
Past Perfect.....Had I not loved?
Future.....Shall I not love?
Future Perfect.....Shall I not have loved?

How is the subject placed in interrogative negative sentences?

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present.....May, can, *or* must I not love?
Present Perfect ..May, can, *or* must I not have loved?
Past.....Might, could, would, *or* should I not love?
Past Perfect.....Might, could, would, *or* should I not have loved?

PASSIVE VOICE. Am I not loved? Have I not been loved? Was I not loved? etc.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

An *irregular* verb is one which does not form its past tense and auxiliary perfect participle by adding *ed.*

There are about one hundred and seventy irregular verbs, which may be divided into two classes—those in which the past tense and auxiliary perfect participle are alike, and those in which they are unlike.

Some verbs have two forms of the past tense, or of the auxiliary perfect participle, or of both. The preferable forms are first in order. If the first forms are alike, the verb is placed in the first class; if they are different, it is placed in the second.

Note.—The second class should be particularly attended to, for it is with respect to verbs of this class that errors are most frequently committed. The past tense and the auxiliary perfect participle are alike in most verbs, and we are apt to use the one for the other when they differ. Thus, "I *done*," "I *seen*," are often used for "I *did*," "I *saw*;" and "I have *went*," "I have *drank*," for "I have *gone*," "I have *drunk*." So in the passive. "Toasts were *drank*," is now often used for "Toasts were *drunk*."*

What is an irregular verb? | What two classes of irregular verbs?

* It would be better for those who are afraid to say, "Toasts were *drunk*," lest in might be supposed that the toasts were *intoxicated*, to use some other form of expression, such as, "The company drank toasts," and not make the innocent language suffer to save the character of the toasts.

FIRST CLASS.

In which the past tense and the auxiliary perfect participle are alike in form.

Imperfect, or *Present Infinitive.*	*Past.*	*Auxiliary Perfect Participle.*
Abide	abode	abode.
Behold	beheld	beheld.
Bend	bent, bended	bent, bended.
Bereave	bereft, bereaved	bereft, bereaved.
Beseech	besought	besought.
Bind	bound	bound.
Bleed	bled	bled.
Breed	bred	bred.
Bring	brought	brought.
Build	built, builded	built, builded.
Burst	burst	burst.
Buy	bought	bought.
Cast	cast	cast.
Catch	caught, catched	caught, catched.
Clothe	clothed	clothed, clad.
Cost	cost	cost.
Creep	crept	crept.
Crow	crowed, crew	crowed.
Cut	cut	cut.
Dare, to venture*	dared, durst	dared.
Deal	dealt, dealed	dealt, dealed.
Dig	dug, digged	dug, digged.
Dwell	dwelt, dwelled	dwelt, dwelled.
Feed	fed	fed.
Feel	felt	felt.
Fight	fought	fought.
Find	found	found.
Flee	fled	fled.
Fling	flung	flung.
Get	got	got, gotten.
Gild	gilt, gilded	gilt, gilded.
Grave	graved	graved, graven.
Grind	ground	ground.
Hang	hung, hanged	hung, hanged.
Have	had	had.
Hear	heard	heard.
Heave	heaved, hove	heaved, hoven.
Hew	hewed	hewed, hewn.

Name the past tense and the auxiliary perfect participle of *abide*—of *behold*—of *bend*, etc.

* Dare, *to challenge*, is regular.

Imperfect, or *Present Infinitive.*	*Past.*	*Auxiliary Perfect Participle.*
Hit	hit	hit.
Hold	held	held.
Hurt	hurt	hurt.
Keep	kept	kept.
Kneel	kneeled, knelt	kneeled, knelt.
Knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted.
Lade	laded	laded, laden.
Lay	laid	laid.
Lead	led	led.
Leave	left	left.
Lend	lent	lent.
Let	let	let.
Light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit.
Lose	lost	lost.
Make	made	made.
Mean	meant	meant.
Meet	met	met.
Mow	mowed	mowed, mown.
Pay	paid	paid.
Put	put	put.
Quit	quitted, quit	quitted, quit.
Read	read	read.
Rend	rent	rent.*
Rid	rid	rid.
Ring	rung, rang	rung.
Saw	sawed	sawed, sawn.
Say	said	said.
Seek	sought	sought.
Seethe	seethed, sod	seethed, sodden.
Sell	sold	sold.
Send	sent	sent.
Set	set	set.
Shape	shaped	shaped, shapen.
Shave	shaved	shaved, shaven.
Shed	shed	shed.
Shine	shone, shined	shone, shined.
Shoe	shod	shod.
Shoot	shot	shot.
Shut	shut	shut.
Shred	shred	shred.
Shrink	shrunk, shrank	shrunk, shrunken.
Sing	sung, sang	sung.
Sink	sunk, sank	sunk.
Sit	sat	sat.
Sleep	slept	slept.

* "When forests are *rended*."—*Sir Walter Scott.*

Imperfect, or *Present Infinitive.*	*Past.*	*Auxiliary Perfect Participle.*
Slink	slunk	slunk.
Slit	slit, slitted	slit, slitted.
Speed	sped	sped.
Spend	spent	spent.
Spill	spilt, spilled	spilt, spilled.
Spin	spun	spun.
Spit	spit, spat	spit, spitten.
Split	split	split.
Spread	spread	spread.
Spring	sprung, sprang	sprung.
Stand	stood	stood.
Stick	stuck	stuck.
Sting	stung	stung.
Stink	stunk	stunk.
Strike	struck	struck, stricken.
String	strung	strung.
Sweat	sweated, sweat	sweated, sweat.
Swell	swelled	swelled, swollen.
Swim	swum, swam	swum.
Swing	swung	swung.
Teach	taught	taught.
Tell	told	told.
Think	thought	thought.
Thrive	thrived, throve	thrived, thriven.
Thrust	thrust	thrust.
Weep	wept	wept.
Win	won	won.
Work	worked, wrought,	worked, wrought.
Wind	wound, winded	wound.
Wring	wrung, wringed	wrung, wringed.

SECOND CLASS.

In which the past tense and the auxiliary perfect participle are different in form.

Imperfect, or *Present Infinitive.*	*Past.*	*Auxiliary Perfect Participle.*
Arise	arose	arisen.
Awake	awoke, awaked	awaked.
Be	was	been.
Bear	bore, bare	borne, born.*
Beat	beat	beaten, beat.
Become	became	become.
Befall	befell	befallen.

* *Born* signifies *brought forth*, and is now used only in the passive form, and without reference to the agent; as, "A child was born." We cannot say, "A child was born *by her*."

Imperfect, or *Present Infinitive.*	*Past.*	*Auxiliary Perfect Participle.*
Beget	begot	begotten, begot.
Begin	began	begun.
Bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid.
Blow	blew	blown.
Break	broke	broken.
Chide	chid	chidden, chid.
Choose	chose	chosen.
Cleave, to split*	clove, cleft	cloven, cleft.
Come	came	come.
Do	did	done.
Draw	drew	drawn.
Drink	drank	drunk.
Drive	drove	driven.
Eat	ate, eat	eaten.
Fall	fell	fallen.
Fly	flew	flown.
Forbear	forbore, forbare	forborne.
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot.
Forsake	forsook	forsaken.
Freeze	froze	frozen.
Give	gave	given.
Go	went	gone.
Grow	grew	grown.
Hide	hid	hidden, hid.
Know	knew	known.
Lie	lay	lain.
Ride	rode	ridden, rode.
Rise	rose	risen.
Rive	rived	riven.
Run	ran	run.
See	saw	seen.
Shake	shook	shaken.
Shear	sheared	shorn, sheared.
Show	showed	shown, showed.
Slay	slew	slain.
Slide	slid	slidden, slid.
Smite	smote	smitten, smit.
Sow	sowed	sown, sowed.
Speak	spoke	spoken.
Steal	stole	stolen.
Stride	strode, strid	stridden, strid.
Strive	strove, strived	striven, strived.
Strow	strowed	strown, strowed.
Swear	swore	sworn.
Take	took	taken.

* *Cleave, to adhere*, is regular.

Imperfect, or *Present Infinitive.*	*Past.*	*Auxiliary Perfect Participle.*
Tear	tore	torn.
Throw	threw	thrown.
Tread	trod, trode	trodden, trod.
Wear	wore	worn.
Weave	wove, weaved	woven, weaved.
Write	wrote, writ	written.

Remark.—Instead of *ed*, *t* is sometimes used in some words; thus, *smelt* is used for *smelled*, *spelt* for *spelled*, *curst* for *cursed*, *dreamt* for *dreamed*. The regular form should be used.

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following.

The tree was shook by the wind. Having arose from the bed. He set down. While yet young, he became gray, in consequence of the misfortune that had befell him. He begun well, but did not continue as he had began. The wind blowed down the apple tree. The apples had all fell off. The branches were badly broke.

A speaker was chose by the meeting. John come down stairs in a hurry. After the letter had came, I found it was so badly wrote that it could not be read. The ball was throwed over the fence. The water was drew from the well. He had mistook the meaning of the phrase. The water is froze. I seen the horse run.

He give me a dollar. He drunk too much. The wine was all drank up. The cloth is well wove. He had went away before I come. John done well. The bottle is broke. The cork was drawed out. The horses were drove to pasture. He has mistook my meaning. A race was ran. Yesterday I run all the way to school. My shoes are almost wore out. The leaves of the book are tore. Somebody has took my cup.

The speech was well spoke. He sown tares with his wheat. Goliath was smote in his forehead. Having slew the enemy, he returned. The tired man lain down. Being tired I laid down. The plants growed rapidly. When they shall have grew large they will be cut down. The child was forsook by

its parents. Some thief has stole my knife. The moon has rose. His work is did. He begun his lesson. The waggon was drawed by oxen. They were drove by a small boy. After he had fell down he laid in the dust. After laying a while, he raised up.

The door is shet. All my money is spended. He weeped bitterly. The little girl stringed the beads. A bee stinged him. He sleeped soundly. The tune was sang. He blowed the trumpet, and the laborers all come home. The dog was gave away. He knowed better.

CONJUGATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB *TO TAKE*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Imp. Infin......Take. *Past*....Took. *Aux. Per. Par*.....Taken.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	Active Voice.	*Passive Voice.*
Present	I take	I am taken.
Present Perfect	I have taken	I have been taken.
Past	I took	I was taken.
Past Perfect	I had taken	I had been taken.
Future	I shall *or* will take	I shall *or* will be taken.
Future Perfect	I shall *or* will have taken	I shall *or* will have been taken.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present .....If I take.....If I am taken.

Etc., Etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present	I may, *or* can, *or* must take.	I may, *or* can, *or* must be taken.
Present Perfect	I may, *or* can, *or* must have taken.....	I may, *or* can, *or* must have been taken.
Past	I might, could, would, *or* should take	I might, could, would, *or* should be taken.
Past Perfect	I might, could, would, *or* should have taken	I might, could, would, *or* should have been taken.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Take, *or* take thou, *or* do thou take.....	Be taken, *or* be thou taken, *or* do thou be taken.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

	Active Voice.	*Passive Voice.*
Imperfect	To take	To be taken.
Perfect	To have taken	To have been taken.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect	Taking	Being taken.
Perfect	Having taken	Having been taken.
Auxiliary Perf.	Taken	Taken.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective Verbs are such as are remarkable for wanting some of their parts. The following is a list of them.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.	*Past.*	*Present.*	*Past.*
Can	could.	——	quoth.
May	might.	Shall	should.
Must	——	Will	would.
Ought	——		

Remarks.—1. When *must* and *ought* refer to past time, a change is made in the infinitive with which they are joined. *See Remarks on the tenses in the different Moods*, 17.

2. *Quoth* is now used only in ludicrous language, and always refers to past time.

3. *Must* is not varied. The rest are varied in the second person only. *Will*, as a principal verb, is regular.

4. The word *beware* seems to have been two words, *be* and *ware*; as, "*Be* ye *war* of the sour dough of the Farisees and Sadducis."—*Wicklif.* It is used in those tenses in which *be* is used in the verb *to be*.

5. *Impersonal Verbs.*—Some verbs are used only in the third person singular, having the pronoun *it* for their subject; as, *it snows, it rains.* These are sometimes called *impersonal* verbs. *Unipersonal*, that is, having one person, would be a more appropriate name.*

What are defective verbs? Give the list of defective verbs.

What are impersonal verbs?

* "Every verb, employed in a personal mode, necessarily has a subject. But it very often happens that we are witnesses of effects whose causes are unknown to us, or that we wish to express the effects without expressing the cause otherwise than indefinitely. Then we commonly employ as Subject the pronoun of the third person, and in languages in which this Pronoun has three Genders we generally take the

AUXILIARY VERBS.

An *auxiliary* verb is one which is used in conjugating other verbs. They are *do*, *have*, *be*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, and *must*.

Do, *be* and *have* are also principal verbs.

DO.

Do is used for emphasis, and also in negative and interrogative sentences without emphasis. Formerly it was sometimes used in simple affirmative sentences; as, "The young lions *do* lack."—*Psalm* xxxiv, 10. "False witnesses *did* rise up."—*Psalm* xxxv, 11. *See the quotation from Horne Tooke, under the head of "Moods," Remark* 6.

It is sometimes used as a kind of *pro-verb*, if the expression may be allowed, standing instead of a repetition of some verb which has preceded; as, "He studies better than you *do*;" that is, than you *study*.

BE.

The verb *to be*, when used as an auxiliary, connects the subject and the participle expressing the affirmation.

HAVE.

The use of *have* as an auxiliary probably originated in its being used to express the possession of something represented as the object of an action denoted by the participle; as, "I *have* money *concealed*" [by myself;] "I have concealed money;" that is, money which is concealed. By degrees the idea of possession has been dropped; and the participle has changed its mode of signification, so that, instead of being passive, it is now active in sense, and instead of belonging to the noun, like an adjective, it now governs it in the objective case, when it is transitive. It has become so entirely changed that *intransitive* verbs have this participle, though they cannot have a *passive* participle. *See Matthiæ's Greek Grammar*, § 559.

SHALL AND WILL.

1. *Shall* is from the Anglo-Saxon *scealan*, the original meaning of which is *to owe*. Thus, "Agyf thaet thu me *scealt*," *Pay what thou owest me*, [shalt me.] "Se him *sceolde* tyn thusend punda," *Who owed* [should] *him ten*

What is an auxiliary verb?

Neuter. Thus, when we say in English, '*it thunders*,' '*it rains*,' '*it snows*,' it is clear that the pronoun '*it*' denotes in a vague and indefinite manner the Subject of which the Attribute is *thundering*, *raining*, *snowing*. It is as though we had said, 'the cause which produces the thunder, the rain, or the snow, thunders, rains, or snows.'"—*Fosdick's Translation of De Sacy's General Grammar*.

thousand pounds. Chaucer uses the word in this sense; as, "By the faith I *shall* to God;" that is, owe.

2. The original meaning may still be traced in the present use of this word; as, "Thou *shalt* not kill;" that is, thou *owest, art under obligation,* not to kill. "In the day that thou eatest thereof thou *shalt* surely die;" that is, thou *owest, art destined,* to die. "It *shall* come to pass;" that is, it *owes, is obliged, is destined,* to come to pass.

3. So in the *past* tense, "Judas Iscariot, which *should* betray him;" that is, *was destined* to betray him. *Should* is not now used in this manner.

4. This word is used to denote the obligation or necessity as arising from the *determination of another;* as, "You *shall write.*"

5. What one *owes, is obliged, destined,* to do, is, of course, future: the idea of futurity has prevailed over that of obligation in certain cases; thus, "I *shall* be compelled to leave my pleasant home;" "If ye *shall* see the Son of Man;" "Before the child *shall* know;" "Every one who *shall* be present will hear."

6. *Will* expresses *will, determination, inclination;* as, "He *will* write in spite of my opposition;" that is, *is determined.*

7. What one *wills, is determined,* to do, must be future; and in the second and third persons the idea of determination is sometimes lost in that of futurity; as, "He *will* be compelled to leave his pleasant home."

8. The mode of expressing simple futurity in English has arisen from attributing the future event to the *obligation* or *necessity,* as far as the person who foretells is concerned, and to *determination* on the part of others.

9. The foreigner, who, when drowning in the Thames, cried out, "I *will* drown, nobody *shall* help me," should have said, "I *shall* drown, nobody *will* help me;" that is, according to the original meaning of the words, I am in such circumstances that I *am obliged* to drown, nobody has the *will* to help.

10. Errors are sometimes committed by the most distinguished writers with respect to the use of *shall and will.* Thus,

"We have much to say on the subject of this Life, and *will* often find ourselves obliged to dissent from the opinions of the biographer."—*T. B. Macaulay; Art. on Bacon.*

The writer intends by *will find* to express simple futurity, and as the future action is to be performed by the person who foretells, *shall find* should be used. The writer, without intending it, has expressed his *determination* to find himself obliged to dissent

"If we consider the influence exerted by the point Daghesh on the syllable preceding it, we will perceive that," etc.—*Nordheimer; Hebrew Grammar.*

This is incorrect for the same reason.

11. The assertions of Mr. Murray, Dr. Webster, and other grammarians, that *shall* in the first person simply *foretells;* in the second and third per-

sons, *promises, commands*, or *threatens;* and that *will* in the second and third persons, *only foretells*, should be received with considerable modification.

We will consider these words, 1. as expressing *resolution;* and 2. as expressing *futurity*.

RESOLUTION.

12. *Shall* expresses a resolution or promise of an individual concerning the actions, etc., of *others*. When the first person is represented as expressing the resolution, *shall* is used in reference to the actions, etc., of the second and third persons, and *will* in reference to those of the first. Thus:

I am resolved, I promise, etc., that ..... { I *will* write. / You *shall* write. / He *shall* write.

Note.—When these forms do not depend on a preceding clause, it is always the first person that expresses the resolution.

13. When a question is asked, the resolution, etc., of the *second* person is referred to; accordingly, *shall* is used in the first and third persons, and *will* in the second. Thus:

1. *Shall* I write?
2. *Will* you write?
3. *Shall* he write?

These forms are equivalent to "Are *you* resolved," or "Are you willing that I shall write?" etc.

14. The principle may be further seen in the following examples:

You are resolved, you promise, etc., that { I *shall* write. / You *will* write. / He *shall* write.

He is resolved, etc., that ..... { I *shall* write. / You *shall* write. / He *will* write.

Will write is used when *he* refers to the person who has formed the resolution; in reference to another it would be *shall write;* as, "He is resolved that John *shall* write."

15. *Will* may express a resolution of the *subject of the verb* in all the persons. Thus,

In spite of opposition..... { I *will* write. / You *will* write. / He *will* write.

FUTURITY.

16. To express simple futurity, *shall* is applied to the future actions, etc., of the person who is represented as foretelling or supposing the future events, and *will* to those of others.

Shall, however, is used in the first person, even when others are represented as foretelling.

I *believe*, I *hope*, *etc.*, *that* ..... { I *shall* be elected. / You *will* be elected. / He *will* be elected.

Or, without any dependence on a preceding clause,

I *shall* be elected.....You *will* be elected.....He *will* be elected.

You believe, *you hope*, *etc.*, *that*..... { I *shall* be elected. / You *shall* be elected. / He *will* be elected.

He believes, *he hopes*, *etc.*, *that*..... { I *shall* be elected. / You *will* be elected. / He *shall* be elected. / John *will be elected.*

Interrogatively.

Shall I be elected?.....*Shall* you be elected?*..... *Will* he be elected?

17. *Shall* is used to denote simple futurity after the conjunctions *if*, *though*, etc., after the conjunctive adverbs *when*, *until*, *after*, *before*, etc., and after relative pronouns, when the relative clause is an essential modification of the antecedent. *See examples under "Shall and Will," 5.* In the example, "Every one who *shall* be present will hear," the relative clause, *who shall be present*, is an essential modification of the antecedent; it is not *every one* who will hear, but *every one who shall be present.* "Whosoever shall kill shall be in danger of the judgment." Here, *whosoever shall kill* is an essential modification of the antecedent (*person*) understood.

SHOULD AND WOULD.

18. In general, *should* and *would* have the same reference to obligation and will, that the present tenses *shall* and *will* have. Thus:

"Thou art the Christ which should come into the world;" that is, *was*

* Dr. Webster says, "*Shall you go?* asks for information of another's *intention.*" It appears to me that this use of the phrase is a provincialism. *Will you go?* asks for information of another's intention.

*destined** to come. "In spite of opposition he *would* go;" that is, *was determined.*

19. When a *present* or *future* tense would be followed by *shall*, a past tense is followed by *should;* if the present or future would be followed by *will*, the past is followed by *would.* Thus:

I *promise* that ..	I *will* write. You *shall* write. He *shall* write.	I *promised* that ..	I *would* write. You *should* write. He *should* write.
You *promise* that	I *shall* write. You *will* write. He *shall* write.	You *promised* that	I *should* write. You *would* write. He *should* write.
I *believe* that	I *shall* be elected. You *will* be elected. He *will* be elected.	I *believed* that	I *should* be elected. You *would* be elected. He *would* be elected.

These words are often used to express conditions, etc. *See* "*Remarks on the Tenses in the different Moods.*"

20. A clause expressing a condition or supposition may leave it uncertain whether the thing supposed does or does not, will or will not, exist; or, it may imply that it does not exist; or, it may refer to past time and imply that it *did not* exist. Thus, "If he *has* a pen," leaves it uncertain whether he has or has not a pen; "If he *had* a pen," implies that he *has not* a pen; "If he *had had* a pen," implies that he *had* not.

When *shall* would be used in a conditional clause of the first kind, or in the clause that expresses the conclusion depending on the condition, *should* is used in the corresponding one of the second, and *should have* in one of the third. When *will* would be used in one of the first kind, *would* and *would have* are used in the second and third. Thus:

"If he *has* a pen, he *shall* write;"
"If he *had* a pen, he *should* write;"
"If he *had had* a pen, he *should have* written."

"If he *has* a pen, he *will* write;"
"If he *had* a pen, he *would* write;"
"If he *had had* a pen, he *would have* written."

* *Should* is not now used in this manner.

21. The conclusion often stands without a conditional clause, but with a tacit reference to some condition; as, "I *should* be pleased to hear him," [if I had the opportunity.] "Such an event *would* be very distressing," [if it should happen.]

22. Hence it is that *should* and *would* are used to express a softened assertion: thus, instead of saying, "I doubt his candor," we sometimes say, "I *should* doubt his candor," as if there were a condition implied, "If I could." So, "It *would* seem to be necessary," is a softened mode of expressing, "It *seems* to be necessary."

23. *Should* and *would* do not always imply the non-existence of the thing supposed.

24. *Should* often denotes merely a supposed future event, and in this sense is used in all the persons, as, "If I *should* be elected, I will accept the office."

25. *Should* is used in an indefinite sense, after the conjunction *that;* as, "I am surprised that he *should* act so."

26. *Should* is often used in all the persons to denote present *obligation* or *duty*. "John *shall* write," has come to imply a *resolution* on the part of some one, and *should* is used with the original meaning of *shall;* as, "John *should* write;" that is, *owes, is under obligation*, to write.

27. To express a past obligation, a change is made, not in *should*, but in the verb with which it is connected; as, "John should *have written* yesterday."—*See* "*Remarks on the Tenses in the different Moods*," 16, 17.

28. So, *would* is sometimes used with a present signification to denote a will or wish; as, "When I *would* do good, evil is present with me."

29. *Will* is sometimes used in the present, and *would* in the past tense, to denote a repeated or customary action; as, "He *will* sometimes spend whole hours there;" "He *would* sometimes spend whole hours there."

> "These things to hear,
> *Would* Desdemona seriously incline;
> But still the house affairs *would* draw her thence;
> Which ever as she could with haste despatch,
> *She'd* come again."—*Shakspeare.*

MAY, CAN AND MUST, MIGHT AND COULD.

30. *May* had originally the signification that *can* now has; as, "I *may* all thyngis in him that comforteth me."—*Wicklif.*

31. It was sometimes written *mowe*,* and was not confined to the present and past tenses. Thus, Wicklif says,

"Many seeken to entre; and they schulen not *mowe*;" that is, shall not *may*, or be able.

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* A fact which shows that words now in use among the common people only, are not always *corruptions*, is, that the old form *mought* is still used in some places for *might*. This word occurs frequently in old writers; thus,

"Winter and summer they *mought* well fare."—*Spenser.*

"Which thou shalt *mowe* suffre."—*Chaucer.*

"Despoiled of *mowing* to do yvel," [of *maying*, being able, to do evil.]—*Chaucer.*

32. This word now generally denotes power as *granted* by some one, that is, *liberty* or *permission.*

33. With the perfect infinitive, and sometimes with the imperfect or present, it denotes *possibility;* as, "He *may* have written;" that is, it is possible that he wrote, or has written. "He *may* write, perhaps;" here *may* denotes *possibility. See* "*Remarks on the Tenses in the different Moods,*" 68, 69.

34. The original meaning of *can* is to *know;* as, "I *can* but smal grammere."—*Chaucer.*

So, in the past tense,

"A few termes *coude* he, two or three,
That he had learned out of some decree."—*Chaucer.*

35. Like *may*, it was not confined to the present and past tenses of the indicative mood: thus, Chaucer says, "She should not *con* ne mowe attaine:" that is, She should not know how, nor be able, to attain.

36. With respect to some things, to *know how* is to *be able* to do them; thus, "I know how to read," and, "I am able to read," convey the same idea. Hence *can* came to denote the idea of *ability*, while its signification of *knowledge* has gradually disappeared.

37. *Might* and *could* have, in general, the same relation to *may* and *can*, that *could* and *would* have to *shall* and *will.*

38. *Must* denotes *necessity.* When it is used to denote a *past* necessity, a change is made in the verb with which it is connected; as, "I determined to tell him, for he must have learned it some time or other:" that is, he *was necessitated* to learn it.

39. But this is not the usual signification of *must* with the perfect infinitive. "He *must* have written this letter," means, it is necessary to believe that he wrote it; not, he was necessitated to write it.

EXERCISES

ON "SHALL" AND "WILL," "SHOULD" AND "WOULD."

Correct the errors in the following sentences. The figures at the end of the sentences refer to the article which explains the principle.

I will be compelled to go home.[16] I am resolved that I shall do my duty.[12] I was resolved that I should do my duty.[18] I hope that I will see him.[16] I promise that I shall not forsake you.[12] I will be ruined if you do not assist me.[16] I hoped that I would see him.[19] I am afraid that I will not see him.[19] Where will I drive you?[13] I will be whipped, if I do this.[16] I would have been whipped, if I had done this.[20] I am resolved that I shall not be treated in this manner, if I can help it.[16] I

was resolved that I should not be treated in this manner, if I could help it.[15] I would have been obliged to desist, if he had not encouraged me.[20] Perhaps I will find some money.[16] Perhaps you shall find some money.[16] If we examine this, we will perceive its utility.[17] If we examined this, we would perceive its utility.[20] If we had examined this, we would have perceived its utility.[20] I will drown, nobody shall help me.[13, 14] He said that he would drown, and that nobody should help him.[19] You are determined that I will be deceived.[12] In spite of opposition, I shall go.[12] I would be pleased to see him.[21] What sufferings will I have to endure?[16] What sufferings would I deserve, if I were forced to do this?[20] How often will I see you?[16] Will we hear a good speech, if we go?[17] Would we hear a good speech, if we were there?[20] I will receive a letter, when the mail will have arrived.[16, 17] I believe that all shall receive their money, when the work will have been completed.[16, 17] I believed that all should receive their money, when the work would have been completed.[16, 17, 20] I would not be surprised to see him there.[22]

Remark.—These sentences may be corrected as follows: "I *will* be compelled to go home," is incorrect, because the first person foretells an event which is to happen to himself, and in that case *shall* must be used. "I am resolved that I *shall* do my duty," is wrong, because it is intended to express a resolution of the first person with regard to his own actions, and in that case *will* must be used, etc.

PARSING EXERCISES.

The words in italics are prepositions.

A good man loves God. John can write a letter. William has written two letters. You should honor your parents. I have seen George. You have deceived me. Fishes swim. Joseph has been sick. You will be sick if you eat that fruit. Men should obey their rulers. Determine to perform what you undertake. Cæsar conquered Pompey. Pompey was conquered *by* Cæsar. Cicerco was eloquent. Will you come? Has William arrived? He could cut wood. Avoid vicious company. John will visit us. The mischievous boy was chas-

tised. Your hair has been cut. I cut my thumb. Idle boys will be despised. Evil communications corrupt good manners.

Tie your brother's shoes. Ask no questions. Take your proper place. Sit *in* your own chair. Let him learn his lesson. Be advised *by* your friends. Shut the door. See the snow. Hear the winter wind blow.

Will your father come? Can the horse jump *over* the fence? Did the man kill the bear? Was the steamboat burned? Will the stage be full? May I go *to* the door? Have you studied the book? Can you parse a verb?

Table for parsing a verb.

1. What part of speech— ....and why?
2. Regular or irregular— ....and why?
3. Name the principal parts.
4. Transitive or intransitive—.and why?
5. Active or passive— .....and why?
6. Mood— .....and why?
7. Tense— .....and why?
8. Inflect the tense.
9. Number and person—.....and why?
10. Rule.

If the Verb is in the Infinitive Mood,

8. Depends on (or is governed by) what word?
9. Rule.

If the Verb is defective, tell such of the above enumerated particulars as are applicable.

MODEL.

"*A good man loves God.*"

Loves is a verb — a word by which something is affirmed; regular — it forms its past tense and perfect participle by adding *ed* — present *love*, past *loved*, participle *loved;* transitive — requires an object to complete the sense; active voice — the subject is represented as acting; indicative mood — it simply declares a thing; present tense — it expresses what takes place at the present time — singular, *I love, thou lovest, he loves;* plural, *we love, you love,*

How do you parse a verb? | How do you parse a verb in the infinitive mood?—a defective verb?

they love; singular number and third person — because the subject (*man*) is, with which it agrees.

RULE V.—A verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

"*John can write a letter.*"

Can write is a verb; irregular — its past tense and participle do not end in *ed* — present *write*, past *wrote*, participle *written;* transitive, etc.; active voice, etc.; potential mood—it asserts the power of performing an action; present tense, etc., etc.

[Better thus. *See page* 75, *Note to Remark* 9.]

Can is a verb, etc., defective — it is used only in the present and past tenses; indicative mood, etc.; present tense, etc.; third person and singular number, etc., etc.

Write is a verb, etc.; infinitive mood — it expresses action without limiting it to a subject; imperfect tense — it denotes an action not completed; it depends on (or is governed by) the verb *can.*

RULE XII.—The infinitive mood may depend on a verb, an adjective, or a noun.

"*You should honor your parents.*"

Should honor is usually parsed as in the potential mood, past tense. It may be parsed, (as we think better,) thus:

Should is a verb; defective — it is used only in the present and past tenses; indicative mood — it simply declares a thing; past tense, used here to express a *present* obligation; third person, singular, etc.

Honor is to be parsed in the same manner as *write.*

"*Pompey was conquered by Cæsar.*"

Was conquered is a verb; transitive — it requires an object to complete the sense; passive voice — the subject is represented as being acted upon; indicative mood, etc.

PREPOSITION.

A preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word; as,

"The hatred *of* vice;" "This book will be useful *to* John;" "He lives *for* glory;" "He acts consistently *with* his principles."

What is a preposition?

Here *of* shows the relation between *vice* and *hatred; to*, between *John* and *useful; for*, between *glory* and *lives; with*, between *principles* and *consistently*.

The preposition and the noun form what is called an *adjunct;* thus, *of vice* is an adjunct to *hatred; to John* is an adjunct to *useful; for glory*, to *lives; with his principles*, to *consistency*.

The words that modify the noun are considered as belonging to the adjunct. In this sentence, "He lives in the greatest seclusion," *in the greatest seclusion* is an adjunct to *lives*.

The same word may have several adjuncts; thus, "The stream runs with rapidity past the house, under the fence, into the river;" that is,

The stream runs { with rapidity, past the house, under the fence, into the river.

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

Aboard	Before	For	Throughout
About	Behind	From	Till
Above	Below	In, Into	To
According to	Beneath	Notwithstanding	Touching
Across	Beside }	Of	Toward }
After	Besides }	Off	Towards }
Against	Between	On	Under
Along	Betwixt	Out of	Underneath
Amid }	Beyond	Over	Until
Amidst }	By	Past	Unto
Among }	Concerning	Regarding	Up
Amongst }	Down	Respecting	Upon
Around	During	Round	With
At	Except	Since	Within
Athwart	Excepting	Through	Without.

Remarks.—*According, concerning, during, excepting, regarding, respecting* and *touching* were originally participles, and they may sometimes still be construed as such in those constructions in which they are usually regarded as prepositions. Thus, in this sentence, "He lives according to nature," *according* may be considered a participle belonging to *he*. "He holds the property during life;" here *during* may be regarded as a participle belonging to *life* in the nominative absolute—*life during;* that is, while life *dures* or continues.

What do the preposition and the noun form?
How many adjuncts may the same word have?
Repeat the list of prepositions.
What prepositions were originally participles?

Notwithstanding consists of the adverb *not* and the participle *withstanding*, which may be construed like *during*.

Except was originally a verb in the imperative mood; thus, "They all perished *except* one;" that is, *take out* one. The word *save* may also be parsed either as a verb or a preposition.

Some parse *out of* as two words—*out* as an adverb, and *of* as a preposition.

But in the sense of *except* is sometimes used as a preposition; as,

"The boy stood on the burning deck,
Whence all but *him* had fled."—*Hemans.*

Some would say *but he*, and if *but* were what it was originally—the imperative mood, this construction would be correct; *he* would be nominative to *but*. But to consider *but* a conjunction makes an awkward construction, "Whence all had fled, but he had not fled." *Butan* is sometimes a preposition in Anglo-Saxon; as, "Butan wifum and cildum," *without or besides women and children*. *Wifum* and *cildum* are in the *dative* or *ablative* case.

Some of the words in the list are not always prepositions. *See list of words used as different parts of speech.*

When the objective case is omitted after prepositions, they are commonly called *adverbs;* thus, "He returned from his journey, and died soon after;" that is, *after that time.*

"The king of France with forty thousand men,
Marched up a hill, and then marched *down* again;"

that is, *down the hill.*

EXERCISES.

Between what words does each of the following prepositions show a relation?

He went from Boston. He went to Philadelphia. He went from Boston to Philadelphia. He gave [to] me his book. He gave his book to me. That is pleasant to me. Walk in the path of virtue. John rode on the horse. George is obedient to his parents. The love of money is the root of all evil. The book lies before him. The book lies on the table. The book lies before him on the table. He was my companion in adversity. In adversity he was my companion. He was plunged into new difficulties by this imprudence. By this imprudence he was plunged into new difficulties. Without the aid of charity, he supported himself with credit. Of his talents much might be said; concerning his integrity, nothing.

What is said of *except* and *save*?
What is said of *but*?

When the objective case is omitted what is the preposition usually called?

Table for parsing a preposition.

1. What part of speech—and why?
2. Between what words does it show the relation?
3. Rule.

These sentences may now be parsed in full.

MODEL.

"*He went from Boston to Philadelphia.*"

From is a preposition — it shows the relation between the noun *Boston* and the verb *went.*

RULE XIV.—A preposition shows the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word.

To is a preposition — it shows the relation between the noun *Philadelphia* and the verb *went.*

Boston is a proper noun, neuter gender, third person, singular, objective case—after the preposition *from.*

RULE X.—The object of a preposition is put in the objective case.

ADVERB.

An adverb is a word used to modify or limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, "He acts *cautiously;*" "He is *remarkably* cautious;" "He acts *more* cautiously."

Remarks.—1. An adverb is an abridged expression for an *adjunct;* thus, *cautiously* means *in a cautious manner; remarkably* means *in a remarkable degree;* and *more* means *in a greater degree.* So, *here* is equivalent to *in this place; then,* to *at that time,* etc.

2. In general we have adverbs for such adjuncts as would be most commonly used. Adverbs and adjuncts are often used indiscriminately to express the same modification.

EXERCISES.

Form sentences containing the following adverbs; tell for what adjuncts the adverbs stand, and what words they modify.

Justly, wisely, happily, diligently, agreeably, fashionably, beautifully, attentively, sweetly, gloriously, skillfully, earnestly.

How do you parse a preposition?
What is an adverb?
For what is an adverb an abridged expression?—For what kind of adjuncts are adverbs employed?

Entirely, sufficiently, totally, particularly, infinitely, nearly, almost, perfectly.

Here, there, somewhere, anywhere, hither, thither, thence, nowhere, everywhere.

Now, then, to-day, anciently, hereafter.

Hitherto, henceforth, always, never.

Remarks.—1. Adverbs are generally used for those adjuncts only which are joined to verbs, adjectives, and adverbs; but they are sometimes used for those which are joined to nouns or pronouns; as, "John saw *him* only." Here the adverb *only* does not modify the verb *saw*, but the pronoun *him*; that is, it is used instead of an adjunct to *him*—"John saw him, *without any other person*."

2. In this sentence, "John only *saw* him," *only* modifies *saw*; the meaning is, John saw him, *without doing any thing else—without speaking to him*, or *without hearing him*.

3. If we place the emphasis on *John*, *only* will modify *John*; thus, "*John* only saw him," means that John and no other person saw him; John *without any other person*.

4. The adverbs used to qualify nouns are chiefly those which may refer to the exclusion or addition of objects, such as, *chiefly*, *particularly*, *especially*, *entirely*, *altogether*, *solely*, *only*, *merely*, *partly*, *also*, *likewise*. Thus, "He studies grammar *chiefly*;" that is, grammar *for the most part*, grammar *almost to the exclusion of other studies*. "He studies geology, and grammar *also*;" that is, grammar *in addition*.

5. Adverbs sometimes modify adjuncts; as, "He dwells *far* beyond St. Louis;" "The steamboat starts *long* before noon."

6. Some adjuncts in which the noun is omitted are called *adverbial phrases*; such are *in short*, *in general*, *in vain*, *at most*, *at least*, *at all*, *on high*.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs may be divided into three classes.

I. *Adverbs of* PLACE *and* ORDER; as, here, there, where, yonder, elsewhere, anywhere, hence, hither, whence, whither, upward, downward, backward, first, secondly, thirdly.

In the place of what adjuncts are adverbs generally used?
Are adverbs ever used in place of the adjuncts to nouns?
In the sentence "John saw him only," what does the adverb *only* modify? In place of what adjunct is *only* used?
What adverbs are chiefly used to modify nouns?
Do adverbs sometimes modify adjuncts? Give examples.
What are adverbial phrases?
How many classes of adverbs are there?
Mention some adverbs of place and order.

II. *Adverbs of* TIME; as now, to-day, instantly, immediately, already, recently, since, before, ago, yesterday, hitherto, to-morrow, hereafter, henceforth, soon, always, ever, never, eternally, continually, often, again, frequently, sometimes, daily, hourly, once, twice, thrice, first, next, when, then, till, early, late.

III. *Adverbs of* MANNER, DEGREE, etc.; as, well, wisely, happily, justly, gloriously, slowly, prudently, bravely, much, too, very, greatly, highly, entirely, perfectly, excessively, enough, sufficiently, how, however, so, perhaps, possibly, yes, yea, verily, truly, surely, certainly, really, doubtless, indeed, why, wherefore, therefore, more, most, less, least, thus, as, no, not, nay.

Remarks.—1. Adverbs of manner are generally formed from adjectives by adding *ly*, for *like*; thus, *just*, *justly*.

2. In general, when an adjective ends in *ly* no adverb is formed from it; but an adjunct is used to express the idea; thus, "He acted *in* a *manly* manner," not *manlily*.

3. *Nay*, *no*, and *not* are called *negative* adverbs; *nay* is nearly obsolete; *no* is generally used to denote denial in the answer to a question, and seems to stand for *not*, and the sentence contained in the question, the necessary changes for person, etc., being made. Thus, "Will you go?" "*No*," that is, I will not go. It may be considered simply as used for *not*, the rest of the sentence being understood.

Yes is generally used to denote assent in the answer to a question, and may be considered as modifying some word in a manner similar to *no*.

4. *Here*, *there*, and *where* are sometimes compounded with prepositions to form other adverbs; as, *hereby*, *thereby*, *whereby*, *therefore*, (therefor), *wherefore*, *wherewith*, *therewith*.

5. *Therefore*, *wherefore*, and *also* are sometimes called *conjunctions*; but they are evidently adverbs; they are used for the adjuncts, *for the reason*, *for which reason*, *in addition*.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

Some adverbs stand for two adjuncts, one of which contains a relative pronoun, and the other

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Mention some adverbs of time—of manner, degree, etc.
How are adverbs of manner generally formed?
Of what is the termination *ly*, in such cases, a contraction?
When the adjective ends in *ly*, how is the idea expressed?
What are negative adverbs?
How is *no* used?—*yes*?
What is said of *here*, *there*, and *where*?
What are conjunctive adverbs?

the antecedent: these are called *conjunctive adverbs.*

Thus, "I shall see you *when* you come;" that is, *at the time at which* you come. "He will remain *while* you are absent;" that is, *during the time during which* you are absent. "The book is not *where* I left it;" that is, *in the place in which* I left it.

Remarks.—1. It would seem that each of these adverbs modifies two words; the adjunct containing the antecedent modifies one, and that containing the relative modifies the other. Thus, in the first example, *when* modifies *shall see* and *come.*

2. In reality, these words are like the relative with the antecedent omitted; the antecedent adverb or adjunct being *omitted.* Thus, the first example is equivalent to, "I shall see you *then*, or *at the time*, when you come."

"It placed was
There where the mouldered earth had caved the bank."—*Spenser.*

"Before I go *whence* I shall not return," is equivalent to "Before I go *to the place whence*, or *from which*, I shall not return." "*When* a few years are come, *then* I shall go *the way whence* I shall not return."—*Bible.*

3. The words which are used as conjunctive adverbs, are such as *when, where, while, whither, whence.*

4. These words are not always conjunctive adverbs; some of them are sometimes used instead of adjuncts containing *interrogative* pronouns; as, "*When* (*at what time*) will he come?" So in indirect questions; as, "Tell me *when* (*at what time*) he will come."

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

A few adverbs are compared by adding *er* and *est;* as, *soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest; fast, faster, fastest.*

The following are irregularly compared:—*badly* or *ill, worse, worst; far, farther, farthest; little, less, least; much, more, most; well, better, best.*

What do conjunctive adverbs modify?
In the sentence, "I shall see you when you come," what does *when* modify?
What part of speech do the conjunctive adverbs resemble?
What words are used as conjunctive adverbs?
In what other way are they sometimes used?
How are adverbs compared?
Which are irregularly compared?

Most adverbs of manner may be compared by means of the adverbs *more* and *most;* as, *cautiously, more cautiously, most cautiously;* that is, cautiously *in a higher degree,* cautiously *in the highest degree.*

PARSING EXERCISES.

He acts justly. He behaved badly. God is present everywhere. Come hither. He is a truly great man. Beasts should be kindly treated. Be more cautious. Act more wisely.

The Peri yet may be forgiven,
Who brings to this eternal gate
The gift that is most dear to Heaven.

I have seen him often. Vice may be seen too often. He writes very rapidly. The wicked walk on every side, when the vilest men are exalted.

He passed where Newark's stately tower
Looks out from Yarrow's birchen bower.

Catch the manners living as they rise. Live while you live. Improve time as it flies.

Him to unthrone
We then may hope, when everlasting Fate
Shall yield to fickle Chance.

Table for parsing an adverb.

1. What part of speech—and why?
2. What does it modify?
3. Rule.

It is also well to mention the adjunct in place of which the adverb is used.

MODEL.

"*He acts justly.*"

Justly is an adverb — it is used instead of the adjunct, "in a just manner," and it modifies the verb *acts.*

RULE XV.—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

"*He is a truly great man.*"

Truly is an adverb — it is used instead of the adjunct, "in truth," and it modifies the adjective *great.*

RULE XV.—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

How can most adverbs of manner be compared? | **How do you parse an adverb?**

"*Catch the manners living as they rise.*"

As is a conjunctive adverb — it stands for two adjuncts, "at the time," and "in which," and modifies *catch* and *rise*.

RULE XV.—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

CONJUNCTION.

A conjunction is a word which connects words or propositions; as, "John *and* James are happy, *because* they are good."

Here *and* connects the *words* John and James, and *because* connects the *propositions*, or *clauses*, "John and James are happy," and "they are good."

Conjunctions are usually divided into two classes —*copulative* and *disjunctive*.

The principal *copulative* conjunctions are *and, both, as, because, for, if, since, that.*

And is used to connect something as an *addition* to what precedes; the others principally serve to connect to the leading proposition another which expresses a *supposition*, *cause*, *result*, etc. *Both* is used with *and* to mark the connection more forcibly. *And* is properly *the* copulative conjunction.

The principal *disjunctive* conjunctions are *or, either, nor, neither, than, though, although, yet, but, except, whether, lest, unless, notwithstanding.*

Or is used to connect something as an *alternative* to what precedes; the others principally serve to connect to the leading proposition another which expresses a *concession*, a *doubt*, or something *opposed* to what is expressed in the leading proposition. *Either* is used with *or* as *both* is with *and*; *nor* and *neither* are *negative*.

What is a conjunction?
How are conjunctions classed?
Mention the principal copulative conjunctions—disjunctive.

EXERCISES.

What does each of the following conjunctions connect?

Peter and John went to the temple. Virtue is praised and neglected. The moon and stars were shining. You will be despised, and he will be honored. You must labor if you would succeed. If you would succeed, you must labor. George and James will go. George or James will go. Both George and James will go. Either George or James will go. Neither George nor James will go. He was poor though he might have been rich. He was poor, but he might have been rich. He was poor, yet he might have been rich. He was poor, notwithstanding he might have been rich. Wisdom is better than riches (are.) Tell me whether you will go or stay.

Table for parsing a conjunction.

Tell, 1. What part of speech?
2. What words or propositions does it connect?
3. Rule.

PARSING EXERCISES.

The preceding exercises may be parsed in full.

MODEL.

"*Peter and John went to the temple.*"

And is a conjunction — it connects *Peter* and *John*.

RULE XVI.—Conjunctions connect words and propositions.

"*You will be despised, and he will be honored.*"

And is a conjunction — it connects the two propositions, "You will be despised," and "he will be honored."

RULE XVI.—Conjunctions connect words and propositions.

INTERJECTION.

An interjection is a word used in exclamation, to express some strong or sudden emotion; as, "Oh! what a fall was there!"

How do you parse a conjunction? | What is an interjection?

LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

The following are some of the principal interjections:—*Ah! alas! oh! ha! O! fudge! pish! tush! pshaw! poh! pugh! fie! avaunt! ho! holla! aha! huzza! hurrah! welcome! hail! all-hail! ho! hush! hist! heighho! heyday! bravo! adieu!*

Some words belonging to other classes are called interjections when uttered in an unconnected and forcible manner; as, *Strange! wonderful! what! behold! off! away! wo!*

PARSING EXERCISES.

He died, alas! in early youth. Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro. Oh! make her a grave where the sunbeams rest.

Alas! when evil men are strong,
No life is good, no pleasure long.

To parse an interjection,

Tell, 1. What part of speech—and why?
2. Rule.

MODEL.

"*He died, alas! in early youth.*"

Alas is an interjection — it is used in exclamation, to denote a strong emotion; it has no grammatical connection with any other word.

RULE XVII.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with other words.

WORDS BELONGING TO DIFFERENT CLASSES.

Many words belong to different classes; thus, *iron* may be either a *noun* or a *verb*, or an *adjective;* as, "Iron is a hard metal;" "To iron clothes;" "An iron rod."

Name some interjections.
When are other parts of speech used as interjections?
How do you parse an interjection?
Does the same word ever belong to different classes? Give examples.

Some of the words commonly employed as different parts of speech are here mentioned.

MUCH is used,
1. As an *adverb*—"You have your mother *much* offended."
2. As an *adjective*—"I have taken *much* pains."
3. As a *noun*—"Where *much* is given, *much* is required."

SINCE is used,
1. As a *preposition*—"*Since* that time."
2. As a *conjunction*—"I will go, *since* you desire it."
3. As an *adverb*—"I saw him long *since*."

BUT is used,
1. As a *conjunction*—"He is sick, *but* you are well."
2. As a *preposition*—"All *but* him had fled."
3. As an *adverb*—"We are *but* (*only*) of yesterday."

AFTER is used,
1. As a *preposition*—"*After* that time."
2. As an *adverb*—"*After* I had seen him."

So *before*, *below*, *above*, etc.

NOTWITHSTANDING is used,
1. As a *preposition*—"*Notwithstanding* his merit."
2. As a *conjunction*—"He is respected, *notwithstanding* he is poor."

THAT is used,
1. As an *adjective*—"Give me *that* book."
2. As a *pronoun*—"The child *that* was sick."
3. As a *conjunction*—"I tell you *that* you must try."

AS is used,
1. As an *adverb*—"He acted *as* he was directed."
2. As a *conjunction*—"*As* (*since*) you have requested me, I will do so."
3. As a *pronoun*—"Such *as* should be saved."

FOR is used,
1. As a *preposition*—"This is good *for* us."
2. As a *conjunction*—"Love God, *for* he loves you."

THE is used,
1. As a *limiting adjective* (or article)—"*The* man."
2. As an *adverb*—"*The* wiser he is, the better he is."

WHAT is used,
1. As a *relative pronoun*—"He got *what* he wanted."
2. As a *limiting adjective*—"*What* man is there?"

Mention the different classes in which the following words are used, and give examples of each: ***Much***, ***since***, ***but***, ***after***, ***notwithstanding***, ***that***, ***as***, ***for***, ***the***, ***what?***

WHAT is used,

3. As an *adverb*—"*What* (*partly*) by entreaty, and *what* by threatening, I succeeded."

4. As an *interjection*—"*What!* warder, ho!"

Remarks.—1. *But* is an adverb when *only* may be used in its place; as, "Our light affliction, which is *but* (*only*) for a moment." *But* has been made to assume this meaning by the omission of the negative which was originally used with it; thus, "Our light affliction which is not but (*except*) for a moment."

2. Some grammarians assert that *that*, in all those cases in which it is supposed to be a conjunction, is merely a pronoun standing for a sentence or part of a sentence; or rather a limiting adjective. This sentence, "I wish you to believe *that* I would not willingly hurt a fly," is resolved thus: "I would not willingly hurt a fly; I wish you to believe *that* [assertion;"] "I wish you to believe *that* [assertion] I would not willingly hurt a fly."

That in its origin is the passive participle of the Anglo-Saxon verb *thean, to take, to assume;* but the derivation, and the ancient mode of using a word, do not always show how it is used at present; though a knowledge of them may be useful for this purpose, and may show how present usage originated. *That*, as a conjunction, is merely a *connective*, or, if the expression may be allowed, an *introduction* to a clause, and does not refer to *assertion* or *fact*, etc. The following is a correct English sentence: "I wish you to believe this assertion, that I would not willingly hurt a fly." How would a sentence of this kind appear when resolved in the mode adopted by Horne Tooke and others? "I wish you to believe this assertion, that [assertion] — would not willingly hurt a fly."

3. In such sentences as the following, *so* and *as* are usually considered conjunctions; "She is *as* amiable *as* her sister;" "*As* two are to four, *so* are six to twelve;" "No lamb was e'er *so* mild *as* he;" "He acted *as* he was directed." But in all these sentences *as* and *so* are *adverbs*, being used instead of adjuncts. Thus, "She is amiable *in the same degree in which* her sister is;" "Six are to twelve *in the proportion in which* two are to four;" "No lamb was e'er mild *in the degree in which* he is." *As*, in the last sentence, is a *conjunctive* adverb; thus, "He acted *in the manner in which* he was directed to act."

When is *but* an adverb?

What is said of *so* and *as*?

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX treats of the arrangement of words in propositions, and their relation to each other.

A proposition consists of a *subject* and a *predicate*.

The subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed.

The predicate is that which is affirmed of the subject. Thus, "John runs." Here *John* is the subject, and *runs* is the predicate.

Note 1.—The word *affirm* must be understood to include *interrogations*, *commands*, etc.

Note 2.—The name of the object addressed does not form a part of the proposition: thus, "*William*, John runs."

Note 3.—In interrogations, the subject often comes after the verb; thus, "What says the *preacher*?"

EXERCISES.

1. Name the subject and predicate in each of the following propositions.

Peter jumps. God exists. Virtue will triumph. I can write. Children play. Children love to play. Vice is pernicious. He is happy. Happy is he. Diana is great. Great is Diana. Blessed are peacemakers. Gratiano has gone along with him. With him has Gratiano gone along. In their ship Lorenzo is not. What is man? Who art thou? Where is John? Whither art thou going? Is happiness to be found among men?

Go thou. Go in peace. Study thou thy lesson. Study thy lesson. Stay with me. Love virtue. Honor thy father and thy mother.

Of what does Syntax treat?
Of what does a proposition consist?
What is the subject of a proposition?—the predicate?
What does the word *affirm* include?

2. Form a predicate for each of the following subjects.

George. Virtue. Industry. Happiness. Rain. Grass. Horses. Religion. Birds. Knowledge.

SUBJECT.

I. The subject is either *grammatical* or *logical.*

The grammatical subject is either a noun or some word standing for a noun. The logical subject consists of the grammatical subject with its various *modifications.*

Thus, "The consciousness of a well spent life is pleasant." Here *consciousness* is the grammatical, and *the consciousness of a well spent life* the logical subject.

If the grammatical subject is not modified, it is the same as the logical subject.

Thus, in the proposition, "John runs," *John* is both the grammatical and the logical subject.

EXERCISES.

Name the grammatical and logical subjects in the following propositions.

Ripe peaches are excellent. The love of virtue is commendable. A beautiful prospect is admired. Unripe apples are not wholesome. Wise men avoid temptation. Thomas will study his lesson. All boys do not study. All good boys study. Men often do wrong. Great men often do wrong. Great and virtuous men often do wrong. Man sins. The man sins. A man sins. That man is wicked. No man is perfect.

Thus lived and died Alexander the Great. Beautiful are the lofty trees of that extensive forest. Gloomy and dark art thou. Now heaves the enraptured breast with strong emotion.

How many kinds of subjects? | What is the grammatical subject?—the logical?

II. The subject is also either *simple* or *compound.* A simple subject is a single noun, or word standing for a noun, either alone or variously modified; as, "*Life* is short;" "*The longest life of man* is short."

A compound subject consists of two or more simple subjects to which one predicate belongs; as, "*The moon* and *stars* shone;" "*Two* and *three* make five;" "*This most excellent man*, and *that consummate villain*, were born in London."

EXERCISES.

1. Tell whether the subject in each of the following propositions is simple or compound.

Virtue is often neglected. The most exalted virtue is often neglected. Virtue and vice are often treated alike. Socrates, the philosopher and friend of his country, was condemned to death. Socrates, the philosopher, and Cicero, the friend of his country, were condemned to death. You and I will go together. What goodly virtues bloom on the poisonous branches of ambition! Your servants, the accusers of my son, behaved improperly. The generous Valdez, and my Lord Ordonio, have arm and will to aid the noble sufferer. A storm of wind and rain arose.

Among the disciples of Zeno may be mentioned Perseus, Aristo the Chian, Herillus, and Sphaerus. Then rushed the steed to battle driven. Furious Frank and fiery Hun shout in their sulphurous canopy.

What have John and James done? What are men and angels compared to thee? What harm has that great and good man done?

2. Form three sentences with a simple, and three with a compound subject.

What is a simple subject?—a compound?

MODIFIED SUBJECT.

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

A grammatical subject may be modified or limited in different ways:

1. By a noun, in the same case, annexed to it for the sake of explanation or description; as, "John the *Baptist* came."

2. By a noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, "*Milton's* writings are sublime;" "*My* brother is here."

3. By an adjunct; as, "The love *of learning* is commendable."

4. By an adjective or participle; as, "*Envious* time flies;" "*The* flowers fade;" "*All* men die;" "*A* horse neighs;" "He, *shouting*, made the onset."

5. By a relative pronoun, and the words connected with it; (a relative clause;) as, "The boy *who studies* will improve."

6. By an infinitive; as, "A desire *to learn* is praiseworthy."

7. By an entire clause; as, "A belief *that God is merciful* affords consolation."

Remark.—A noun may be modified in any of the ways above mentioned, even when it is not the grammatical subject; as, "John the Baptist." Here *Baptist* is modified by *the*. "The love of sound learning is commendable." Here *learning* is modified by *sound*. "I know his devotion to the study of the works of nature." Here *devotion* is modified by the adjunct *to the study; study* is modified by *of the works;* and *works* by *of nature*.

EXERCISES.

What is the logical subject in each of the following propositions?—the grammatical? By what is the grammatical subject modified?

1. Nero the tyrant was hated. Cicero the orator was slain. Xenophon the historian was a disciple of Socrates. I John saw these things. We Christians are favored.

When are words said to modify or limit others?
What is the first way in which a grammatical subject may be modified?—the second?—the third?—the fourth?—the fifth?—the sixth?—the seventh?

2. Bonaparte's energy was remarkable. Peter's book is torn. John's pen is spoiled. Plato's works are written in Greek. My knife is sharp. Your opinion is correct. His imagination is lively. Their wants are great.

3. The love of money is the root of all evil. Beauty of form should not excite pride. Vulgarity in conversation is ungentlemanly. The voice of truth will be heard. The wish for happiness is general. Slaves to sin are miserable. The night after the battle was dark. A river in France is called the Seine. The men of pure heart shall see God. The hope of better things cheers us. The dominion of unbridled appetites must cease.

4. Envious men are wretched. The longest life of man is short. The afflicted nation mourns. Short pleasure produces long pain. Then rose the wise Nestor. Vain are his fondest hopes. Short is our earthly life. Then rushed the steed to battle driven. Far flashed the red artillery.

5. He who does no good, does harm. The lady who gave me that book, is my friend. The bird which you saw, flew away. The child to whom you gave the toy, loves you. Many men whom indolence has sunk into obscurity, might have become eminent. He who disobeys the commands of God, will meet with certain punishment.

6. The time to study has arrived. A wish to be distinguished is manifest in him. An opportunity to go is presented.

7. A wish that he would consent was expressed. An assurance that he would come was given.

MODIFIED ADJECTIVE, ADVERB, ETC.

An adjective modifying a noun may itself be modified:

1. By an adjunct; as, "A pen is useful *for writing*."

What is the first way in which an adjective may be modified?

2. By an adverb; as, "That *very* large tree has fallen."
3. By an infinitive; as, "He is ready *to go*."

An adverb may be modified:

1. By another adverb; as, "*More* openly."
2. By an adjunct; as, "Agreeably *to nature*."

A compound grammatical subject, considered as one complex idea, may itself be modified; as, "All bad books are pernicious;" "The first two verses were sung."

All modifies not *books* alone, but the complex idea *bad books; first* modifies *two verses*.

EXERCISES.

1. By what are the adjectives modified in the following propositions?

Ajax was mighty in arms. He led a very unhappy life. That poem is exceedingly beautiful. Demosthenes was superior to Æschines in eloquence. John is ready to recite. He was extremely idle. This is wonderful to be related.

"Here rests his head upon the lap of earth
A youth to fortune and to fame unknown."

2. By what are the adverbs in the following propositions modified?

He was very highly esteemed. He was most ardently devoted to study. James is much more happy now. That book was published very recently. William studies best of all. He returned long before night.

3. How is the grammatical subject in the following propositions modified?

All bad men will be punished. All good boys love their parents. All men of integrity are respected. The black dog bites.

INFINITIVES, ETC., AS SUBJECTS.

An infinitive, a participle used as a noun, or an entire clause, may be the subject of a proposition;

What is the second way in which an adjective may be modified?—the third? How may an adverb be modified?

What does *all* modify in this sentence, "All bad books are pernicious?"

as, "*To lie* is base;" "*Lying* is base;" "*That men should lie* is base."

So also a clause, consisting of an infinitive, with its subject in the objective preceded by *for;* as, "*For men to lie* is base."

The verbs and participial nouns in such cases may be modified like the verb of a predicate. *See the article* "*Modified Predicate,*" p. 135. Thus, "To hate our enemies is forbidden."

The infinitive mood, the participial noun, the finite verb* with its subject, and the infinitive with its subject in the objective, may be considered the *grammatical* subjects. *That* and *for* may be considered as belonging to the subject.

In such cases, when the subject comes after the predicate, the pronoun *it* is used; as, "*It* is base *that men should lie.*"

In this and similar propositions, the word *it* is not the subject; it serves only to introduce the sentence in a particular manner.

The word *there* is often used to introduce a sentence, when the subject comes after the predicate; as, "There are five men here."

Note.—In the following pages, when the term *subject* alone is used, the grammatical subject is intended.

EXERCISES.

Name the subject and predicate in each of the following propositions.

To be good is to be happy. To know is to be powerful. To be here is good. It is good to be here. That we should be here is good. It is good that we should be here. To study strengthens the mind. It strengthens the mind to study. It alarmed her to see the soldiers. "Know thyself," is a saying of one of the wise men of Greece.

What is the subject of the proposition, "To lie is base?"—of "Lying is base?"—of "That men should lie is base?"—of "For men to lie is base?"

What purpose does the pronoun *it* serve in such sentences as this, "It is base that men should lie?"

How is *there* often used?

* Any verb, not in the infinitive mood, is called a *finite* verb.

Four boys are in this class. There are four boys in this class. A large number was present. There was a large number present. There were five loaves in the basket.

PREDICATE.

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

The grammatical predicate is a verb. The logical predicate consists of the grammatical predicate with its various modifications.

Thus, "Scipio *routed the forces of Hannibal.*" Here, *routed* is the grammatical, and *routed the forces of Hannibal* the logical predicate.

Note.—If the grammatical predicate is not modified, it is the same as the logical.

EXERCISES.

Name the logical and grammatical predicates in each of the following propositions.

Cicero delivered four orations against Catiline. James was expelled from his kingdom. William the Conqueror governed England. John preached in the wilderness. The sentinel stars set their watch in the sky. Washington was called the Father of his Country. John walks slowly.

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

A simple predicate is one which contains a single finite verb; as, "Pleasure *is brief;*" "They *are scattered in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America.*"

A compound predicate consists of two or more simple predicates belonging to the same subject; as, "He *laughs* and *weeps.*"

What is the grammatical predicate? What is the logical predicate?

What is a simple predicate?—a compound predicate?

EXERCISES.

Tell whether the predicate in each of the following propositions is simple or compound.

John desires to learn. The devils believe and tremble. They were commanded to return to their own country. The bird chirps and sings. Honesty is praised and [is] neglected. He was attacked and [was] slain. The houses were plundered and burned. He left his home and went to a foreign land. He comes in the roar of a thousand storms, and scatters battle from his eyes. High on a throne of royal state, Satan exalted sat.

MODIFIED PREDICATE.

A grammatical predicate may be modified, or limited, in different ways:

1. By a noun, or pronoun, in the same case as the subject; as, "He was called *John*;" "She moves a *goddess*;" "It is *he*."

2. By a noun, or pronoun, in the objective case; as, "John struck *Alfred*;" "I saw *them*."

3. By an adjective referring to the subject; as, "Aristides was called *just*."

4. By an adjunct; as, "William spoke *to Thomas*."

5. By an adverb; as, "George learns *rapidly*."

6. By an infinitive; as, "James wishes *to learn*."

7. By a dependent clause; as, "James wishes *that you should learn*;" "James wishes *you to learn*."

Remarks.—1. An infinitive or participle may be modified like the verb of a predicate.

2. All other words used to modify verbs may themselves be modified in the ways mentioned under the article "*Modified Subject*."

EXERCISES.

How is the grammatical predicate in each of the following propositions modified?

1. She is a queen. She walks a queen. He is an orator.

What is the first way in which a grammatical predicate may be modified?—the second?—the third?—the fourth?—the fifth?—the sixth?—the seventh?—How may an infinitive or participle be modified?

He is considered a poet. Washington was elected President of the United States.

2. The Duke of Wellington defeated Bonaparte. God governs the world. Virtue bestows tranquillity. Labor conquers all things. Him I know. That man I have never seen before.

3. He is proud. You are happy. He is fond of novelty. You are too eager in the pursuit of riches.

4. Bonaparte marched into Russia. He came to the city. Pompey was defeated by Cæsar. He walks with a staff.

5. The evening fled swiftly. The sun shines beautifully. The grass grows rapidly. He studies diligently.

6. I desire to see him. He labors to do good. William has determined to go. He strives to excel.

7. I wish that he may be chosen. I hope that you may be happy. I confess that I am in fault. I believe that he is a good man. I believe him to be a good man.

SENTENCES.

A sentence may consist either of one proposition, or of two or more propositions connected together.

A sentence consisting of one proposition is called a *simple* sentence.

A sentence consisting of two or more propositions is called a *compound* sentence, and the propositions of which it is composed are called *members* or *clauses*.

Thus, "Phocion was poor," is a simple sentence; "Phocion was poor, though he might have been rich," is a compound sentence. In this compound sentence, "Phocion was poor," and "he might have been rich," are *members* or *clauses*.

Of what does a sentence consist? What is a simple sentence? | What is a compound sentence?

EXERCISES.

Which of the following sentences are simple, and which compound?

Age increases the desire of living. Age increases the desire of living, though it lessens the enjoyments of life. Age, though it lessens the enjoyments of life, increases the desire of living. He will not be pardoned, unless he repent. They all slumbered while the bridegroom tarried. While the bridegroom tarried, they all slumbered. John's devotion to study, and his blameless conduct, commanded the approbation of all. I will go, if you command me.

INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

The members of a compound sentence are either *independent* or *dependent*.

An independent clause is one which makes complete sense by itself.

A dependent clause is one which makes complete sense only in connection with another clause.

Thus, "That man is happy, though he is affected with disease." Here the former clause is independent, the latter dependent.

Remark.—*And* connects propositions of the same kind, either independent or dependent; as, "The winds subside and the clouds disperse." So also the negatives *neither* and *nor;* (equivalent to *and not;*) as, "The winds did not subside, nor did the clouds disperse."

That member of a compound sentence on which the other members depend, is called the *leading clause;* its subject, the *leading subject;* and its verb, the *leading verb.*

What is an independent clause?—a dependent?

EXERCISES.

Which are independent and which dependent clauses in the following sentences? Which are the leading subjects, and which the leading verbs?

You will suffer, if you sin. If you sin, you will suffer. The wicked flee, when no man pursues. I am saddest when I sing. When I sing I am saddest. He will be ruined, unless he change his course. Unless he change his course, he will be ruined. I did not see him till he had spoken. No man can say that he is dishonest. I will not believe that he is dishonest. That he is dishonest, I will not believe.

CONNECTION OF CLAUSES.

The members of a compound sentence may be connected by relatives, conjunctions, or adverbs.

Thus, "He is respected by all who know him;" "He fled when danger appeared;" "You say that he is honest." In the first sentence, the relative *who*, besides being the subject of the verb *know*, connects the clause to which it belongs to the leading clause; in the second sentence, the adverb *when* connects the clauses; in the third, the conjunction *that*.

An infinitive with its subject may be united to another clause without a connective; as, "I believe John to be honest;" that is, "I believe that John is honest."

The connecting word is sometimes omitted; as, "This is the man I saw;" "Thou canst not say I did it." *Whom* is omitted in the former sentence, and *that* in the latter.

Instead of a dependent clause connected by a conjunction, a noun and a participle sometimes stand as an abridged proposition; as, "The enemy having been subdued, he departed;" that is, when the enemy had been subdued.

How may the members of a compound sentence be connected?
What may be united to another clause without a connective?
Is the connecting word always expressed?
What sometimes stands as an abridged proposition?

EXERCISES.

1. Name the connecting words in the last exercises.

2. What connecting words are omitted in the following sentences?

I am sure he was there. He took all he could find. I would have spoken to him, had I seen him. Had I seen him, I would have spoken to him. He is the best musician I ever heard.

EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

Agreement is the correspondence of one word with another in gender, number, case, or person.

Government is the influence of one word upon the case of another.

A word is said to *depend* on another when its case, gender, number, mood, tense, or person, is determined by that word.

A word is said to *follow* another when it depends upon it in construction, whatever may be its position in the proposition.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

I.

A noun or pronoun, annexed to another noun or pronoun, for the sake of explanation or emphasis, is put in the same case.

II.

Adjectives and participles belong to nouns or pronouns.

III.

Pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person.

IV.

The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case.

What is agreement?
What is government?

When is a word said to depend on another?
When is a word said to follow another?

V.

A verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

VI.

A noun or pronoun, in the predicate, after any but a transitive verb in the active voice, is put in the same case as the subject, when it denotes the same person or thing.

VII.

The nominative case is sometimes used without a verb.

VIII.

A noun in the possessive case limits the meaning of another noun.

IX.

The object of a transitive verb is put in the objective case.

X.

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

XI.

The infinitive sometimes has a subject in the objective.

XII.

The infinitive mood may depend on a verb, an adjective, or a noun.

XIII.

Participles are modified in the same way as their verbs are.

XIV.

A preposition shows the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word.

XV.

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

XVI.

Conjunctions connect words and propositions.

XVII.

Interjections have no grammatical connection with other words.

RULE I.

A noun or pronoun, annexed to another noun or pronoun, for the sake of explanation or emphasis, is put in the same case; as,

"*Paul* an *apostle*;" "The *city Rome*;" "*We men* are mortal;" "These words were spoken to *us men*;" "Brutus killed *Cæsar, him* who had been his friend."

Remarks.—1. The annexed word is said to be in *apposition* with the other.

2. The noun is sometimes *repeated*, for the sake of emphasis; as, "*Company*, villainous *company*, hath been the spoil of me."—*Shakspeare.*

3. A noun is sometimes in apposition with a sentence, and a sentence sometimes in apposition with a noun; as, "*He recovered*, a *result* which was not expected;" "This *truth* once known—*to bless is to be blessed.*"

4. The proper name of a place, instead of being put in apposition with the preceding common noun, is generally preceded by the preposition *of;* as, "The *city of Rome*;" "The *state of Ohio.*" The same construction occurs with titles, etc.; as, "He has the *title of King.*"

5. The explanatory word is sometimes placed *before* the word with which it is in apposition; as,

"Poor *wanderers* of a stormy day,
From wave to wave we're driven."—*T. Moore.*

What is the rule for nouns in apposition? For what purpose is the noun sometimes repeated?
What is said of a noun in apposition with a sentence, etc.?
What is said of the proper name of a place in connection with a common noun?
Does the explanatory word always come after the noun with which it is in apposition?

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED.

Religion, the support of adversity, adorns prosperity. Romulus, the founder of Rome, killed his brother Remus. Stephen, the martyr, was stoned. The lips of Isaiah the prophet were touched with fire.

This book belongs to my friend Thompson, him who was with me yesterday.

"The night's long hours still find me thinking
Of thee, thee, only thee."

MODEL.

Support is a common noun, etc.; in the nominative case—because *religion* is, with which it is in apposition; according to Rule 1. "*A noun or pronoun*," etc.

Note.—The "Exercises to be corrected" may also be used as parsing lessons.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

They slew Varus, he that was mentioned before. This is my cousin, her who lives in New York. Will you act thus towards me, I who have so often assisted you.

RULE II.

Adjectives and participles belong to nouns or pronouns.

Note.—This rule includes articles, and those adjectives which are sometimes called *adjective pronouns*.

Remarks.—1. Any thing used as a noun—an infinitive, a participle, [participial noun,] or a whole clause, may have adjectives belonging to it; as, "*To die for our country* is glorious;" "*Learning languages* is difficult;" "*That any should be so foolish* is surprising."

2. An adjective, in connection with an infinitive, or a participial noun, is often used without reference to any particular object, to denote an *abstract* idea; as, "*To be good* is *to be happy*;" (that is, *goodness* is *happiness*;) "Virtue consists, not in *appearing good*, but in *being good*."

What is the rule for adjectives and participles?—What does this rule include? May any thing besides nouns have adjectives belonging to it? How is an adjective often used in connection with an infinitive or a participial noun?

3. The noun is often omitted; thus, "The *wicked* [persons] persecute the *good* [persons;"] "*Some* [books] of the books are worthless;" "Judas was one of the *twelve* [apostles;"] "*Each* [person] has his faults."

4. An adjective, generally in connection with *the*, is often used in the sense of an *abstract noun;* as, "He has an eye for *the beautiful* in nature and art;" "I admire *green*."

5. Participles sometimes refer to some indefinite word which is omitted; as, "*Granting* this to be true, what is the inference?" that is, *we* granting.

6. (*a*) When the comparative degree is used, the two objects, or classes of objects, compared, are represented as *distinct* from each other; as, "Wisdom is better than jewels." It would not be correct to say, "Solomon was wiser than the Hebrew kings," because Solomon was one of those kings.

(*b*) When the superlative is used, the objects compared are represented as belonging to the *same* class; if several classes are compared, they are represented as included in some larger class. Thus, "Solomon was the wisest of the Hebrew kings." It would not be correct to say, "Solomon was the wisest of the *Roman* kings," because he was not one of those kings.

It is not correct to say, "Eve was the fairest of her daughters," nor, "Eve was fairer than any woman," because the former expression represents Eve as one of her own daughters, and the latter excludes her from the class of women.

To express Eve's superiority, we may say, "Eve was the fairest of women," or, "Eve was fairer than any other woman." The word *other* separates Eve and other women into two classes—Eve was not one of the *other* women.

7. The comparative is used in the manner of the superlative when *two* of the same class are compared; as, "John is the *wiser* of the two." We sometimes, however, say, "The *wisest* of the two."

8. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided; as, "*more wiser*, *lesser*, *worser*, *most straitest*." But *lesser* in some cases is used; as, "The *Lesser* Asia."

9. *This* and *that* refer to singular nouns, and *these* and *those* to plural nouns; as, *that kind*, *those kinds*.

10. When objects are contrasted, *that* and *those* refer to the first mentioned, *this* and *these* to the last; as, "Virtue and vice are as opposite to each other as light and darkness; *that* ennobles the mind, *this* debases it."

"Farewell my friends! farewell my foes!
My peace with *these*, my love with *those!*"—*Burns.*

Is the noun always expressed?
Give an example in which the adjective is used in the sense of a noun.
Give an example in which the participle refers to some indefinite word which is omitted.
When the comparative degree is used how are the objects represented?
When the superlative is used, how are the objects represented?
When is the comparative used in the manner of the superlative?
Is it correct to say *more wiser*, etc.?
To what do *this* and *that*, *these* and *those* refer?
When objects are contrasted, to what do these words refer?

11. *This here* and *that there* are vulgarisms which should be avoided.

12. The pronoun *them* should not be used instead of the adjective *those;* as, "*them books.*"

13. Singular nouns are sometimes improperly used with numeral adjectives which denote more than one; as, "Twenty *pound.*"

Yet such expressions as twenty *head of cattle, a hundred yoke of oxen, ten sail of vessels,* are authorized.

14. *Each, every; either, neither,* always refer to nouns in the *third person singular;* and verbs and pronouns referring to them, should, consequently, be in the third person singular; as, "Each [person] of you *has his* faults,"—not "*have your* faults."

But such expressions as *every three weeks* are correct, because the whole is taken as *one* portion of time.

15. *Either* and *neither* cannot properly be applied to more than two objects. "*Either* of the *three,*" should be "*Any one* of the three;" and "*Neither* of the three," should be "*None* of the three."

Dr. Webster says that *neither* "by *usage* is applicable to *any* number referring to individuals separately considered."

Note.—For the rules concerning the use of the *articles,* see *Articles,* p. 40.

16. After some verbs, particularly after certain infinitive verbs, it is often difficult to decide whether adjectives or adverbs should be used. After *to be,* or *to become,* it is easy to see that the word should be an adjective, and not an adverb; but when other verbs are employed, it is more difficult to decide.

The following directions will enable us to decide correctly in most instances.

(1.) The adverb should not be used, if the corresponding adjunct will not convey the intended idea.

(2.) When the verb *to be* and the verb *to become* can be substituted for any other, without materially changing the sense or the construction, that other verb must be connected with an adjective, and not with an adverb.

Thus, "The rose smells *sweet.*" It would not be correct to say, "The rose smells *sweetly,*" (*in a sweet manner,*) because this would represent the rose as performing the operation of smelling in a particular manner. We can say, "The rose *is* sweet," [to the smell.]

We often hear persons say, "I feel badly," when they mean that they are sick. They do not mean that they *feel in a bad manner,* but that they feel [are] bad; that is, unwell.*

Is it correct to say *this here book?*
Why is it incorrect to say *them books?*
Is it incorrect to say *twenty pound?*
To what do *each, every, either,* and *neither* refer?
To what number of objects may *either* and *neither* be applied?
What rules are given with respect to the employment of adjectives and adverbs?

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* *Bad,* however, is not the appropriate adjective; it is ambiguous, to say the least.

Another very common form of expression is, "He arrived *safely*." This is incorrect. It is not meant that he arrived *in a safe manner*, but that he *was* safe when he arrived. "They escaped all *safe* to the land."—Acts xxvii, 44.

Some forms are subjoined which may be useful.

"This plant grows [becomes] tall."
"This plant grows rapidly," [in a rapid manner.]
"She looks [is] cold."
"She looks coldly [in a cold manner] on him."
"He feels [is] warm."
"He feels warmly [in a warm manner] the insult offered him."
"Harriet always appears neat."
"Harriet always dresses neatly."
"He lives free from care."
"He lives freely at another's expense."
"This statement seems correct."
"The statement seems correctly made."
"The apple tastes sour."
"The clouds look dark."
"How pleasant the fields look!"
"He feels happy."
"The clay burns [becomes] white."
"The moon shines bright."
"He stands firm."
"He grows old."

"So while we taste the fragrance of the rose,
Glows not her blush the fairer?"

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

There was the honest cock-robin, the favorite game of stripling sportsmen, with its loud, querulous note; and [there were] the twittering blackbirds, flying in sable clouds; and the golden-winged woodpecker, with his splendid plumage; and the cedar-bird, with its red-tipped wings and yellow-tipped tail, and its little montero cap of feathers; and the blue jay, that noisy coxcomb, in his gay, light-blue coat and white underclothes, screaming and chattering, nodding and bobbing, and bowing, and pretending to be on good terms with every songster of the grove.—*Washington Irving.*

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Rem.* 6.] Solomon was wiser than the ancient kings. Numa was wiser than any Roman king. That ship is larger

than any ship. China has a greater population than any nation on earth. Jacob loved Joseph more than all his children. George IV. was the most powerful of the Roman kings. Mary is the most beautiful of her sisters. The father is the tallest of his children. He is the most industrious of all the rest.

[*Rem.* 8.] A more healthier place cannot be found. The nightingale's voice is the most sweetest in the grove. This is the worser evil.

[*Rem.* 9.] I do not like those kind of men. Who broke that tongs? Will you have some of those molasses? These sort of things are easily managed.

[*Rem.* 10.] Wealth and poverty are both temptations to man; this tends to excite pride, that discontent. Religion raises men above themselves, irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of earth, this opens for them a prospect to the skies.

[*Rem.* 11.] This here apple is green, and that there is rotten.

[*Rem.* 12.] I never read them books. Them men spoke to me.

[*Rem.* 13.] I walked ten mile in three hour. I bought three cord of wood. The pole is ten foot high.

[*Rem.* 14.] Let each of them be heard in their turn. Each of you are entitled to your share. Every one of us have our faults. Let each esteem others better than themselves. Neither of us have had our portion. Have either of you your knives? Every one of us have recited our lessons. Neither of those men seem to have any idea that their opinions may be wrong. If either of these two qualities are wanting, the language is imperfect.

[*Rem.* 15.] Either of those six men can do it. Either of the three will answer.

[*Rem.* 16.] Magnesia feels smoothly. Heaven opened widely her ever during gates. He sat silently. Did you arrive safely? The apple tastes sourly. The cloth was colored blackly. She seems neatly. The breaking waves dashed highly.

RULE III.

Pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person; as,

"This is the friend of *whom* I spoke; *he* has just arrived;" "Lying is a vice *which* I despise; *it* is disgusting."

Note.—For the limitations, explanations, etc., see Etymology.

Remarks.—1. Pronouns sometimes refer to propositions and phrases; as, "*She is handsome*, and she has the misfortune of knowing *it*;" "*You have overcome envy with glory, which* [thing] is very difficult."

2. Pronouns referring to two or more nouns, when the objects are taken together, should be in the plural; as, "*John* and *James* attend to *their* studies."

3. The nouns in such cases are generally connected by *and*. But *and* may come between nouns when the objects are not taken together; as, "John, (and not James,)* attends to *his* studies;" "*Every* book, and *every* paper, is kept in *its* place;" "*Each* book, and *each* paper, is kept in *its* place;" "*No* book, and *no* paper is out of *its* place."

When the nouns express different characters of *the same* person, the pronouns should be singular; as, "*That* great statesman and general lost his life."

4. When two or more nouns in the singular, are connected by *or* or *nor*, the objects are not taken together, and the pronoun must be singular; as, "Either John or James attends to *his* studies;" "Neither John nor James attends to *his* studies."

5. When the objects are taken together, and the nouns or pronouns are of *different persons*, the plural pronoun referring to them must be of the *first person*, if one of the antecedents is of the first person; and of the second, if the antecedents are of the second and third persons; as, "James, and thou, and I, are attached to *our* country;" "James and I are attached to *our* country;" "James and thou are attached to *your* country."

6. Collective nouns in the singular, may have pronouns in the plural, when reference is made to the individuals composing the collection; as, "The *multitude* eagerly pursue pleasure as *their* chief good."

What is the rule for the agreement of pronouns?
Give some examples in which pronouns refer to propositions, or phrases.
When pronouns refer to two or more nouns, in what number should they be?
Give some examples in which *and* comes between nouns when the objects are not taken together.
What is said concerning nouns connected by *or* or *nor*?
When the nouns or pronouns are of different persons, of what person is the plural pronoun referring to them?
When may collective nouns in the singular have pronouns in the plural?

* The parenthetical marks are not necessary.

7. A singular noun, after *many a*, may have a plural pronoun; as,

"Full *many a lady*
Have I eyed with best regard; and many a time
The harmony of *their* tongues hath into bondage
Brought my too diligent ear."—*Shakspeare.*

But pronouns in the same clause with the noun must be singular; as,

"Full *many a flower* is born to blush unseen,
And waste *its* sweetness on the desert air."—*Gray.*

8. The neuter pronoun *it* is applied to animals whose sex is unknown or unnecessary to be regarded. *See* "*Gender*," p. 24.

9. The pronoun *it* is variously used. *For its use with verbs usually called* impersonal, *see* "*Defective Verbs.*" *For its use when an infinitive or a clause is the subject of a verb, see* "*Infinitive Mood, etc., as Subjects*," p. 132.

Before the verb *to be*, it may refer to a noun or pronoun in the predicate of either the singular or the plural number, and of any person and gender; as, "*It* is a *man* who is coming;" "*It* is *I*;" "*It* is *men* who range them;" "*It* is *books* that I love."

In such constructions, it stands instead of *the person, the persons, the thing*, etc. Thus, "*The person* who is coming is a man;" "*The person* is I," or, "I am *the person*;" "*The persons* who range them are men;" "*The things* that I love are books," or "Books are *the things* that I love." But the verb after *it* is always of the third person singular. In Chaucer we find, "It *am* I."

This word sometimes stands for *the state* or *condition of things;* as, "That *it* may go well with thee;" "*It* shall be well with the righteous;" "How fares *it* with thee?"

It is sometimes an expletive; as,

"Come and trip *it* as you go
On the light fantastic toe."—*Milton.*

10. Relatives and interrogatives are placed as near as possible to the beginning of their clauses; as, "This is the man *whom I saw*;" "*Who* is this man?"

In the clauses to which these words belong, the predicate is placed first; so that the objective case and the predicate nominative *precede* the verb; *whom* is the object of the verb *saw*, and *who* is the predicate nominative after *is*.

11. The relative is sometimes omitted; as, "This is the man [whom] I saw." It is generally inelegant to omit the relative in the nominative case; as, "The captain had several men in the ship, died of the scurvy."

12. The relative *who* is applied to persons, and *which* to things without life, and to the lower animals; as, "The *man who;* the *book which*, the *horse which*."

13. When things and the lower animals are spoken of as persons, they

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In what number is the pronoun referring to a singular noun after *many a*?
How is the pronoun *it* used?—How are relatives and interrogatives placed?
Mention some instance in which the relative is omitted.
What is the difference in application between *who* and *which*?

take pronouns representing persons; as, "*Night*, sable goddess, from *her* ebon throne;" "The *lion* said to the *ass*, *who* had been hunting with *him*."

14. The relative *which* is sometimes applied to young children; as, "The child *which* was sick." It was formerly applied to all persons; as, "Our Father *which* art in heaven." The interrogative *which* is applied to persons and things indiscriminately; as, "*Which man* did you see?" "*Which book* did you read?"

15. A collective noun, when it does not refer directly to the individuals composing the collection, should not be represented by *who;* thus, we should not say, "He is on the committee *who* was appointed;" but *that* or *which* was appointed.

16. The relative *which* sometimes stands after the proper name of a person; but, in such cases it refers, not to the person, but to the *word;* as, "Herod—*which* [word] is another name for cruelty."

17. *Which* sometimes stands after a common noun denoting a person, when the character and not the person is referred to; as, "He is a good writer, *which* [thing] is all that he professes to be."

18. A relative clause usually modifies the antecedent, and is essential to it; as, "Boys *who do their duty*, will be loved." Here, *that* may be used for *who*. But sometimes the relative clause merely expresses an additional affirmation, and *who* and *which* are equivalent to *and he*, *and it*, etc., or simply *he*, *it*, etc.; as, "God is the sovereign of the heavens, *who* gives us every blessing, and *whom* we are bound to revere;" "He came to the town Cirta, *which* he immediately besieged." Here the relative *that* cannot be used.

19. *That* is used in preference to *who* or *which* in the following cases:

(1.) After adjectives in the superlative degree; as, "Charles XII. was one of the *greatest* madmen *that* the world ever saw."

(2.) After *same*, *very*, and *all;* as, "He is the *same* man that I saw before." "He is the *very* man *that* did it;" "It was *all that* he could do."

(3.) After *who;* as, "*Who that* knows him would speak thus?"

(4.) When the relative refers to both persons and things; as, "The *men* and *cities that* he saw."

20. *That* never admits a preposition before it, but it may be the object of a preposition following it. We cannot say, "This is the man *of that* he spoke;" but we may say, "This is the man *that* he spoke *of*." *That* is sometimes used when a preposition is omitted; as, "In the day *that* thou eatest thereof;" that is, in the day *in which*.

21. It is inelegant to mingle the solemn and familiar styles in addressing the same object; as, "Aleefa, *thou* art more beautiful than the moon on her fourteenth night, but *your* wickedness causes me to hate *you*."

What is said of using *who* to refer to collective nouns?
What is said of the relative *which* after the proper name of a person?
Does the relative clause always modify the antecedent?
What is the first case in which *that* is used in preference to *who* or *which*?—the second?—the third?—the fourth?
What is said of *that* in connection with a preposition?
What is said of mingling the solemn and familiar styles?

22. A change should not be made from one relative to another in the same connection; thus, it is improper to say, "The man *that* met us to-day, and *whom* you saw yesterday, is the same." *Whom* should be changed to *that*, or *that* to *who*.

23. A relative clause which modifies the subject should not be placed after a noun in the predicate; thus, "He should not keep a horse that cannot ride," should be, "He that cannot ride, should not keep a horse."

Mr. Murray's seventh rule is, "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."

There is no necessity for this rule, if the relative clause is in its proper place. The first sentence quoted should be, "I, who command you, am the man." This has a different meaning from "I am the man who commands you."

24. Pronouns are sometimes made to precede their nouns; as,

> "When round the ruins of *their* ancient oak,
> The *peasants* flocked to hear the minstrel play."—*Rogers.*

25. The English language is deficient in not having a pronoun of the third person singular, applicable to either sex—one that would correspond to the noun *person*.

If we wish to refer to a person without revealing the sex of that person, we meet with a difficulty; thus, "The person who informed me declared that (—) was present." Here, if we use either *he* or *she*, we disclose what we wish to conceal; we are obliged to resort to an awkward construction—to repeat the noun, or use both the masculine and feminine pronouns. "If any man or woman shall violate *his or her* pledge, *he or she* shall pay a fine." Here is an unpleasant construction.

This deficiency has led to an improper use of the plural pronoun *they;* as, "The *person* who informed me, declared that *they* were present."

26. *He*, in the singular, is often used instead of *the person;* as, "*He* who is just, will be rewarded;" that is, *the person who*. In the plural, some use the corresponding pronoun *they*, others use the adjective *those*, referring to the noun *persons* understood; thus, "*They* or *those who* are just, will be rewarded." *Those* is used more frequently than *they*.

27. In the use of pronouns, care should be taken to avoid ambiguity. The following sentence is ambiguous: "John told James that this was the man that *he* had seen before." We cannot tell to which of the two nouns, *John* and *James*, the pronoun *he* refers.

What of changing from one relative to another?
What is said concerning the position of a relative clause modifying the subject?
Do pronouns ever precede their nouns?
What deficiency of the English language in respect to pronouns is mentioned?
To what has this deficiency led?
What is used in the plural to correspond to *he* in the singular when it stands for *the person?*
Mention a sentence in which the use of a pronoun leads to ambiguity.

To avoid this ambiguity, the noun is sometimes repeated after the pronoun; as, "John told James that this was the man that he [John,] or that he [James] had seen before." The idea may be expressed in some other form; as, "John said to James, 'This is the man that I saw before, *or*, that you saw before.'"

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

He who ridicules the little imperfections and weaknesses of his friends will in time find mankind united against him.

The man who is faithfully attached to religion may be relied on with confidence.

"I feel a newer life in every gale;
The winds, that fan the flowers,
And with their welcome breathings fill the sail,
Tell of serener hours;
Of hours that glide unfelt away
Beneath the sky of May."—*Percival.*

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

I do not blame any person for being tender of their reputation. Rebecca took goodly raiment and put them upon Jacob. Every one must judge of their own feelings.* One should not think too favorably of ourselves. I felt her pulse and they beat 120 times in a minute. I have tasted the molasses, and they are excellent. The mind, as well as the body of man, demands his proper food. Let every boy answer for themselves.

[*Rem.* 2.] Mary and Martha are careful of her books. Discontent and sorrow manifested itself in his countenance. Hatred and animosity are inconsistent with Christian charity; guard against the slightest indulgence of it.

[*Rem.* 3.] Every plant and every flower proclaims their Maker's praise. Sarah, and Anne too, has lost their bonnets.

[*Rem.* 4.] A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a book. James or John will favor us with their company. Neither Sarah, Anne, nor Jane

How may this ambiguity be avoided?

* See *Rem.* 14 under Rule II, and Exercises.

has performed their task. A man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which will move only as they are moved. One or the other must relinquish their claim.

[*Rem.* 6.] The council were divided in its sentiments. The meeting was not unanimous, and it separated without coming to a decision. The people have no opinion of its own. Send the multitude away, that it may go and buy itself bread.

[*Rem.* 7.] Many a man loses their character by such acts. Many a book has corrupted the morals of their readers.

[*Rem.* 11.] There were several present could get no seat. He was a man had no influence.

[*Rem.* 12.] This is the tree whom I planted. That is the vice whom I hate. There was a certain householder which planted a vineyard. The nations who have wise rulers are happy. The birds who swim have webbed feet. He has a soul who cannot be influenced by such motives. Brave souls,* which have fought against tyranny.

[*Rem.* 13.] They took the virgin Truth, and hewed its lovely form into a thousand pieces. Policy keeps coining truth in its mints—such truth as it can tolerate; and every die, except its own, it breaks and casts away.

[*Rem.* 15.] The court, who has great influence on the public manners, ought to be very exemplary. He met several crowds, who were going up the street.

[*Rem.* 16.] It is no wonder that such a man did not shine at the court of Elizabeth—who was but another name for prudence. He spoke of Nero—who is another name for cruelty.

[*Rem.* 19.] It is the best which can be got. He was the first who entered. It is the same horse which you saw yesterday. It was all which he had to give. Solomon was the wisest man whom the world had seen. The lady and the lap-dog which we saw at the window, have disappeared. Who, who has any regard for his character, would act thus?

[*Rem.* 22.] The lady whom we saw to-day, and that was at

* *Souls* here means *persons*.

our house yesterday, is the same. O thou, who hast preserved us, and that wilt continue to preserve us!

[*Rem.* 23.] I have been appointed general who give the orders to-day. He needs no spectacles that cannot see.

[*Rem.* 27.] Jane told Mary that her book was spoiled. The lord cannot refuse to admit the heir of his tenant upon his death; nor can he remove his present tenant so long as he lives.

RULE IV.

The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case; as, "He *is studious;*" "She *is virtuous.*"

Note.—Any verb, not in the infinitive mood, is called a finite verb. This term is used in the rule, because the infinitive sometimes takes a subject in the objective case. *See Rule* xi.

Remarks.—1. Infinitives, etc., may be the subjects of verbs. *See* "*Infinitives, etc., as Subjects,*" p. 132.

2. Every nominative, except the cases referred to in Rule vii., must be the subject of a verb expressed or understood; as, "Who spoke? He;" that is, he spoke.

The following sentence is incorrect: "These evils were caused by Catiline, *who*, if he had been punished, the republic would not have been exposed to so great dangers." Here *who* is a nominative without a verb. The idea may be expressed thus, "These evils were caused by Catiline, the punishment of whom would have prevented the republic from being exposed to so great dangers;" or, the sentence may continue in the same form, with *who* omitted. "These evils were caused by Catiline; if he had been punished," etc.

"*This man*, though he has a great amount of knowledge, yet he keeps it all to himself," should be, "Though this man has," etc.

3. The verb is frequently omitted, particularly in the answers to questions, and after *as* and *than;* as, "Who gave you this book? John;" that is, "John *gave* it;" "You have read more than I;" that is, "than I *have read;*" "I study as well as he;" that is, "as he *studies;*" "The smoother the surface [is], the deeper the water [is.]"

What is the rule for the subject of a finite verb?
What is a finite verb?
What, besides nouns and pronouns, may be the subjects of verbs?
Should every nominative be the subject of a verb?
Mention some examples of the violation of this principle.
Mention some examples in which the verb is omitted.

4. The subject generally precedes the verb; but it is sometimes placed after the verb, or after the first auxiliary; as, "Will *he* go?" "Go *thou*;" "Knowest *thou* the land?" "Were *he* good, he would be happy;" "Here am *I*;" "There is a *man*;" "Great is *Diana*;" "Ye shall not eat of it, neither shall *ye* touch it;" "Said *he*;" "Began the reverend *sage*;" "Him followed his next *mate*."

"Burned Marmion's swarthy *cheek* like fire,
And shook his very *frame* for ire."—*Sir W. Scott.*

5. Every relative pronoun has a clause of its own, and the antecedent has no grammatical connection with any word in the relative clause. When the antecedent is in the nominative case, we must go beyond all the relative clauses to find its verb.

Thus, "God, by *whose* kindness we live, to *whom* nothing is similar, by *whom* all things were made, *is* eternal." If we include each relative clause in a parenthesis, we shall see the connection of the subject with the verb more readily; thus, "God, (by whose kindness we live,) (to whom nothing is similar,) (by whom all things were made,) is eternal."

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

"Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight."

"On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow;
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Iser, rolling rapidly."

"Oh! lives there, Heaven, beneath thy dread expanse,
One hopeless, dark idolater of Chance!"

The man whose thoughts never rise above the objects of sense, who never feels an emotion of gratitude to the Giver of all blessings, whose wishes are confined to this transitory life, is little elevated above the brutes.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

Him and me are of the same age. You and me will be scolded. Them that seek knowledge will find it. Them are excellent cherries. You are as old as her. Who has a knife? Me. Who found my book? Her and him. He has more books than me. Mary is more diligent than her. You can write as well as me. Whom do you think has come to see us? That is the boy, whom we think deserves the prize. These are

How is the subject placed? | What is said of the antecedent of a relative pronoun?

the men whom we might suppose are the authors of the work. Whom of all men in the world, do you think was chosen ambassador.

[*Rem.* 2.] Two nouns, 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 to respect genuine merit.

RULE V.

A verb must agree with its subject in number and person; as, "I write, thou writest, he writes."

Remarks.—1. When an infinitive or a clause is the subject, it requires a verb of the third person singular.

2. Nominatives have plural *verbs* in every case in which they would have plural pronouns, and singular verbs in every case in which they would have singular pronouns. *See Rule* iii. *Remarks* 2, 3, 4, 6, 7.

(1.) When the subject consists of two or more nominatives taken together, (in which case they are connected by *and* expressed or understood,) the verb must be plural; as, "John and James *attend*."

The same remark applies to infinitives and clauses used as subjects; as, "To be rich, and to be happy, *are* different things."

When the nouns denote but one person, the verb is singular; as, "The saint, the father, and the husband *prays*."—*Burns*.

(2.) If the singular nominatives between which *and* is placed, are not taken together, the verb is singular; as, "John, and not James, *attends*;" "John, and James also, *attends*." In each of these sentences, *John* is the subject of *attends*, and *James* is the subject of the verb *attends* understood. Thus, "John attends, and James attends not;" "John attends, and James also attends." The verb which is expressed agrees, of course, with the nominative that belongs to it; if that nominative is plural, the verb should be plural, etc.; as, "*Friends*, not merit, *cause* his promotion."

When *each*, *every*, or *no* is used, the objects are taken separately, and the verb must be singular; as, "Each book and paper *is* kept;" "Every book and paper *is* kept;" "No book and no paper *is* kept."

What is the rule for the agreement of a verb?
When an infinitive or clause is the subject, in what person and number must the verb be?
When the subject consists of two or more nominatives taken together, in what number must the verb be?
If the singular nominatives between which *and* is placed are not taken together, in what number must the verb be?
In what number must the verb be when *each*, *every*, or *no*, is used?

(3.) When two or more singular nominatives are connected by *or* or *nor*, the objects are taken separately, and the verb is singular; as, "John or James *attends*;" "Neither John nor James *attends*."

(4.) Collective nouns in the singular may have verbs in the plural, when the reference is to the individuals composing the collection; as, "The *multitude* eagerly *pursue* pleasure;" that is, the persons composing the multitude.

When a collective noun denotes the collection as *one body*, the verb must be singular; as, "The *company was* large." Here we do not mean that the persons composing the company were large.

(5.) A nominative after *many a* demands a singular verb; as, "Full *many a flower is* born."

Note.—In the plural, the verb is the same in all the persons; and hence the principle in *Remark* 5, under Rule iii. is not applicable to verbs.

8. When the nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, are of different persons or numbers, the verb agrees with the nominative next to it; as, "Either thou or I *am* concerned;" "I or thou *art* to blame;" "Neither you nor he *is* in fault;" "Neither poverty nor riches *were* injurious to him."

In general, it is better not to use such constructions as these. A verb is supposed to be understood with each of the nominatives, except that which is next to the verb; and it is generally better to express it, or to use some other form for conveying the idea. Thus, "Either thou art concerned, or I am;" or, "One of us is concerned;" "I am to blame, or thou art;" or, "One of us is to blame;" or, "The blame rests on me or thee;" "He was injured by neither poverty nor riches," etc.

4. Every finite verb not in the imperative mood should have a subject expressed, except when the verb is connected to another.

The following sentence is incorrect; "The whole is produced as an illusion of the first class, and *hopes* it will be found worthy of patronage." Here *hopes* is connected to *is produced*, and *the whole* is represented as hoping, etc. It should be, "*and he* hopes," etc.

"Any person finding the spectacles, and *will return* them to the Galt House, shall be liberally rewarded." Here *person* is the subject of *shall be rewarded*, and *will return* has no subject. It should be, "Any person who shall find the spectacles, and return them," etc.

Note.—The subject is sometimes omitted when it is the antecedent to a relative pronoun. *See* p. 50, etc.

5. The adjuncts of the nominative should not affect the form of the verb; thus, "The *number* of oysters *increases*;" not *increase*. "The ship, with all the crew, *was* lost;" not *were*.

In what number must be verb be when two or more singular nominatives are connected by *or* or *nor*?
In what number must the verb be when the subject is a collective noun?
In what number is the verb after *many a*?
When the nominatives connected by *or* or *nor* are of different persons, with which must the verb agree?
Should every verb have a subject expressed?
Should the adjuncts of the nominative affect the form of the verb?

In the last sentence there is but one nominative, *ship*, which is singular, and requires a singular verb. Some writers use the plural form in such cases, but they should not be imitated. In most cases it is better to use *and*, with a plural verb; as, "The ship and all the crew were lost."

EXAMPLES TO BE PARSED.

Mary and Anne run. George or William has gone to town. The jury have agreed in a verdict. The army consists of a thousand men. Every man, woman, and child, was saved. Many a man has ruined himself by such conduct. That great general and statesman has been slandered. Each man and woman has contributed a small sum.

MODEL.

"*Mary and Anne run.*"

Run is a verb—a word by which something is affirmed, etc.; third person plural—because the subject consists of two nominatives of the third person taken together, according to Remark 2, (1.) under Rule iii., which says, "When the subject consists," etc.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

They was discontented. You has no book. Does you live there? You is here. You was there. We was delighted. Thou are expected. Thou has been pleased. Was you present? Circumstances alters cases. Them's my sentiments. Molasses are sweet. His pulse are very quick. He dare not do it. She need not do it. Bad boys hates study. Fifty pounds of wheat contains forty pounds of flour. There's two or three of us here.

"Then, from mountain-tops and valleys,
Armed with cross and brand,
Trusty Switzers round him rallies
For the holy land."
"While ever and anon there falls
Huge heaps of hoary, ruined walls."

I who is before you, am the man. Thou, who are the author of life, can restore it. The number that have been chosen, are twenty. There was more apples than one.

"O thou my voice inspire
Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire."

[*Rem.* 2. (1.)] Idleness and ignorance produces many vices. Temperance and exercise preserves health. Time and tide waits for no man. Our welfare and security consists in unity. Honor and fame from no condition rises. He and I was there. The love of virtue and devotion to pleasure is opposed to each other. His energy and industry was remarkable. What means that noise and excitement? Much does human pride and folly require correction.

[*Rem.* 2. (2.)] The mind, and not the body, sin. Merit, and not patronage, cause his promotion. Diligent industry, and not mean savings, produce honorable competence. Virtue, and not riches, constitute the happiness of a nation. Books, and not pleasure, occupies his time.

Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water, teem with life. Every man and every woman were numbered. Every sight, and every sound amaze him. And every eye and every heart, are joyful. No oppressor, no tyrant, triumph there. No wife, no mother, were there to comfort him. Each day, and hour, and moment, are to be properly employed.

[*Rem.* 2. (3.)] Neither John nor Joseph were there. Our happiness or misery are, in a great measure, put into our own hands. William or Jonathan have the book. When sickness, infirmity, or misfortune, affects us, the sincerity of friendship is proved. Neither George, nor Thomas, nor Richard, are studying. Either Charles, or Robert, or Benjamin, have seen him. Either ability or inclination were wanting. A tart reply, a proneness to rebuke, or a captious spirit, are capable of embittering domestic life.

[*Rem.* 2. (4.)] All the world is spectators of your conduct. The council was divided in their sentiments. The audience was much pleased. The public is requested to attend. The council was not unanimous. In France, the peasantry goes barefoot, while the middle sort makes use of wooden shoes. The majority was disposed to adopt the measure.

The corporation consist of a mayor and council. The British parliament are composed of king, lords, and commons. The

congress of the United States are composed of a senate and a house of representatives. The committee were very full when this point was decided. Generation after generation pass away. That nation are powerful. That society are flourishing. The assembly were dissolved. Congress have adjourned.

[*Rem.* 2. (5.)] Many a man have lost his character by such means. Many a one have been deceived by him.

[*Rem.* 3.] Either John or I is concerned. Either thou or I art greatly mistaken. You or George have done wrong. Neither John nor his brothers was there. The author or his works is in fault.

[*Rem.* 4.] If the calm in which he was born, and lasted so long, had continued, etc. As it hath pleased him, of his goodness to give you a safe deliverance, and hath preserved you in the great danger, etc. These we have extracted from a historian of undoubted credit, and are the same, etc. A man whose inclinations led him to be corrupt, and had great abilities, etc.

"Will martial flames forever fire thy mind,
And never, never be to heaven resigned?"—*Pope.*

[*Rem.* 5.] A part of the exports consist of raw silk. The derivation of these words are uncertain. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons. The general, with some soldiers, were taken.

RULE VI.

A noun or pronoun in the predicate, after any but a transitive verb in the active voice, is put in the same case as the subject, when it denotes the same person or thing; as, "I *am* he;" "Stephen *died a* martyr;" "He *was called* John;" "*I took* it *to be him.*"

What is the rule for a noun in the predicate?

Note.—In the last sentence *it* is the subject of the infinitive *to be*, [*See Rule* xi.,] and is in the objective case; for this reason, *him*, in the predicate, is put in the objective case.

Remarks.—1. The predicate nominative is sometimes placed before the verb, and the subject after the verb, particularly when the predicate is an interrogative pronoun; [*See Rule* iii. *Remark* 10;] as, "Who is he?" "A train-band *captain* eke was he."—*Cowper.*

There is an error in the following sentence: "*Whom* do men say that I am?" If the subject and predicate were placed in their usual order, the sentence would be, "Do men say that *I* am *whom?*" *Whom* should be *who*, because the subject *I* is in the nominative.

Note.—It will often help us to understand the construction of sentences, if we use some other word instead of the interrogative; thus, "Do men say that *I* am *he?*"

A person referring to two men in company with each other, asks, "Which is the governor?" Here *which* is the subject; the answer would be, "This is the governor."

2. In relative clauses, in indirect questions, and in some other cases, both nominatives are placed *before* the verb; as, "He is not the same man *that he* was;" "Tell me *who he* is;" "The *dog it* was that died."—*Goldsmith.*

3. When a question is made without an interrogative pronoun, and a simple form is used, both nominatives are placed *after* the verb; as, "Is *he* a *student?*" If a compound form is used, the subject is placed after the first auxiliary, and the predicate nominative after the rest of the verb; as, "Has *he* been a *student?*"

4. The form of the verb is not affected by the predicate nominative; the subject and the verb may be of a different person or number from that of the predicate nominative; as, "Thou art he;" "Words are wind;" "His meat was locusts."

We may change such sentences as the last, so as to make the predicate nominative the subject, without materially changing the sense; as, "*Locusts* were his *meat.*" In the sentence, "Locusts were his meat," we affirm something of the subject *locusts.*

In the following sentence, *waters* and *clouds* are supposed to form the subject; "His pavilion *were* dark *waters* and thick *clouds* of the sky;" that is, "Dark waters and thick clouds of the sky were his pavilion."

Such forms as "His pavilion were," etc., are not agreeable to the ear.

It is often better to express the idea in a different way; thus, "Dark waters and thick clouds of the sky *formed* his pavilion;" or, "His pavilion was formed of dark waters and thick clouds of the sky;" "His meat *consisted* of locusts," etc.

Is the predicate nominative always placed after the verb?
In what cases are both nominatives placed before the verb?
When are both nominatives placed after the verb?
What is said of the effect of the predicate nominative upon the form of the verb?

In this sentence, "The *wages* of sin *is death*," *wages* is generally said to be plural, and *death* is considered the subject; but *wages* is used as singular in King James's translation; as, "He that earneth wages, earneth wages to put it in a bag with holes."—*Haggai* i. 6.

5. The infinitive, when used simply as the noun-form of the verb, differs, in construction, from the finite verb in no respect but in having no subject. It has an object when the finite verb has; it is modified in the same way by adverbs and adjuncts; it has an adjective after it when the finite verb has; in short, it has every thing *after* it, that is in the predicate, that the finite verb has, and differs from the finite verb only in wanting what goes before, that is, the subject. Thus:

He *killed* a man,	*To kill* a man;
He *killed* a man maliciously with a sword,	*To kill* a man maliciously with a sword;
He *is* good,	*To be* good.

Hence, the infinitive may have a *predicate* nominative, though it cannot have a *subject* nominative; as, "To become a *grammarian* requires study;" "He wishes to be an *officer*;" "He affects to be a *lord*;" "He hopes to be elected *governor*;" "It is supposed to be *he*."

A noun or pronoun, after the infinitive of an intransitive or passive verb, is the predicate nominative, except when the infinitive has a subject in the objective.

Such expressions as, *To be taught grammar*, *To be allowed a seat*, are also excepted. *See Rule* ix. *Remark*.

The same general principle is seen in the construction of the participle; thus, "I have some recollection of his father's *being a judge*." Here *judge* is the predicate nominative. *See Rule* xiii.

Dr. Bullions supposes the noun or pronoun, in such cases, to be in the objective; as, "To be the *slave* of passion, is of all slavery the most wretched." He supposes the following sentences to be correct: "He was not sure of its being *me*;" "Its being *me* needs make no difference in your determination." *Me* in each of these sentences ought to be *I*.

Dr. B., to support his views, refers to a Latin and Greek idiom, according to which the accusative is used after the infinitive of intransitive and passive verbs. But this idiom does not correspond to the English. In the Latin and Greek languages, the infinitive takes a subject in the accusative so generally, that there is always a reference to this construction, and adjectives and nouns after these verbs are generally put in the accusative, except in cases of attraction, to agree with the subject expressed or understood. In the English language, however, it is not a general principle that the infinitive takes a subject. But Dr. B. makes the objective to be used more fre-

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In what respect does the infinitive differ in construction from the finite verb?
In what case is a noun or pronoun after the infinitive of an intransitive or passive verb?
In the construction of what other class of words is the same general principle seen?

quently in English, than the accusative is even in Greek. In such a phrase, for instance, as, "On account of his *being* a *man*," he would consider *man* in the objective, while, in the Greek, the corresponding word may be in the *nominative.* (*Dia to anthropos einai.*)

Mr. G. Brown quotes this sentence, "To affect to be a *lord* in one's closet would be a romantic *madness*;" and says, "In this last sentence, *lord* is in the objective after *to be*; and *madness* in the nominative after *would be.*"

Mr. Brown does not take the ground that the noun, after the infinitive or an intransitive or passive verb, is *always* in the objective; hence I cannot discover on what principle he supposes *lord* to be in the objective. Can it be that he supposes it to be in this case, because it comes after the transitive verb *to affect?* It is certainly not the object of that verb; and the words that follow the infinitive are not at all affected by the word on which the infinitive depends. If such phrase as the following were used, "To affect *to kill* a lord," *lord* would be in the objective, because *to kill* is transitive, and not because *to affect* is.

The German language, in the use of the infinitive, resembles the English more than the Latin and Greek do. In that language, the nominative, and not the accusative, is used after the infinitive of intransitive and passive verbs; as, "Der (not *den*) Sclave der Leidenschaft zu seyn," *To be the slave of passion;* "Der Ruf ein guter Prinz zu seyn," (not einen guten Prinzen,) *The reputation of being (to be) a good prince.**

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

Paul was an inspired apostle. George Washington was chosen commander of the American Army. John Adams was elected president. That man was appointed secretary. It was he that spoke. It is I.

"Tom struts a soldier, open, bold and brave;
Will sneaks a scrivener, an exceeding knave."—*Pope.*

MODEL.

"*Paul was an inspired apostle.*"

Apostle is a common noun, etc.; predicate nominative after *was;* Rule vi. "A noun or pronoun," etc.

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* "Respecting the case of the noun or pronoun in such phrases as, 'To be a *foreigner*,' 'His being a *lawyer*,' 'Its being *he*,' etc., there has been some diversity of opinion. To say nothing of others, an opinion was hazarded in my 'Principles of English Grammar,' p. 82, that such words are in the objective case. Mr. Butler, in his excellent Grammar, p. 146, has reasoned the case, and shown clearly, by reference to a similar construction in German, which has a closer analogy to the English than the Latin or Greek has, that it is simply the predicate nominative. . . . . I have, accordingly, adopted the correction."—*Bullions's Analytical and Practical Grammar*, p. 288.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

It is me. I did not know it was him. I am certain it could not have been her. It is them that deserve the blame. I would not accept the offer, if I were him. It is not me that he is angry with. I know not whether it was them who managed the affair, but I am certain it was not him. I suppose it to be he. It may have been him. I believed it to be she. It must be her.

[*Rem.* 1.] Whom is he? Whom do you think he is? Who do you suppose him to be? Whom do the people say she is?

RULE VII.

The nominative case is sometimes used without a verb.

This takes place:

1. When an address is made; as, "*Plato*, thou reasonest well."

2. In mere exclamations; as, "O the *times!* O the *manners!*"

3. When the attention is directed to an object before an affirmation is made respecting it; as,

"The Pilgrim *Fathers*, where are they?"

4. When a noun and a participle are used instead of a dependent clause; as, "*Shame* being lost, all virtue is lost;" that is, *when shame is lost.*

Remarks.—1. A noun used in this way with a participle is said to be in the *nominative case absolute.* When an address is made, the name of the object addressed is usually said to be in the *nominative case independent. Times, manners,* and *Fathers* may also be said to be in the nominative case independent.

What is the rule for the nominative case without a verb?
When does this take place?
When is a noun said to be in the nominative case absolute?
When in the nominative case independent?

2. *Being* and *having been* are sometimes omitted, when the nominative is absolute; as,

"Her *wheel* at rest, the matron thrills no more
With treasured tales and legendary lore."—*Rogers.*

"*He destroyed*,
Or *won* to what may work his utter loss," etc.

Being is omitted after *which*, and *having been* before *destroyed* and *won*.

3. The objective should not be used for the nominative absolute; thus, we should say, *he destroyed*, not *him destroyed*.

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

These matters having been arranged, the company separated. He dismounted, his horse being unmanageable. What could they do, a youth being their leader?

Good, the more
Communicated, more abundant grows,
The Author not impaired but honored more.—*Milton.*

Ah, then, what honest triumph flushed my breast;
This truth once known—to bless is to be blessed.—*Rogers.*

Soul of the just! companion of the dead!
Where is thy home, and whither art thou fled?—*Campbell.*

Those evening bells! those evening bells!
How many a tale their music tells,
Of youth, and home, and that sweet time
When last I heard their soothing chime!—*T. Moore.*

My friends, do they now and then send
A wish, or a thought after me?—*Cowper.*

The lady of his love—oh! she was changed
As by the sickness of the soul.—*Byron.*

The warlike of the isles,
The men of field and wave!
Are not the rocks their funeral pile,
The seas and shores their grave?—*Hemans.*

"*These matters having been arranged*," etc.

Matters is a common noun, etc.: nominative case absolute, with the participle *having been arranged*. *Rule* vii.

What participles are sometimes omitted? | What case is sometimes improperly used for the nominative absolute?

Having been arranged is the perfect passive participle of the verb *to arrange;* it belongs to the noun *matters*. *Rule* ii.

"*Soul of the just,*" etc.

Soul is a common noun, neuter gender, second person singular, nominative case independent—an address being made. *Rule* vii.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Rem.* 3.] Whose gray top shall tremble, him descending. Him whom they justly called the Father of his country, having been taken captive, the whole army surrendered. Them refusing to comply, I withdrew. And me, what shall I do?

RULE VIII.

A noun in the possessive case limits the meaning of another noun; as, "John's *book;* his *book.*"

Remarks.—1. The name of the object possessed is sometimes omitted, when it may be easily supplied. With the pronouns *ours, yours,* etc., it is never expressed. [*See* "*Personal Pronouns,*" *Remarks* 1, 2.]

Thus, "This book is Henry's [book];" "This is a book of Henry's [books];" "This book is yours [book];"* "This is a book of yours [books];" "He is at the governor's [house]."

2. The apostrophe is never used with pronouns.

3. The relation of possession may be denoted by the preposition *of*, with the objective; thus, "My *father's* house," and "The house of my *father*," express the same idea.

But *of* does not always denote possession. "A crown of gold," signifies "A crown made of gold," "A house of representatives," signifies "A house consisting of representatives." In such cases the possessive cannot be used.

4. When the idea may be expressed by either of these forms we should use that by which we may avoid harshness and ambiguity. Thus, instead of "his son's wife's sister," we should say, "the sister of his son's wife;"

What is the rule for the possessive case?
Is the name of the object possessed always expressed?
In what other way may the relation of possession be denoted?
When the idea may be expressed by either of these forms, which should be used?

* If the noun were expressed, *yours* would be *your*.

instead of "the distress of the son of the king," we should say, "the distress of the king's son."

"The love of God," may denote either the love which God feels, or the love which is felt towards God; but "God's love," denotes only the love which God feels.

5. When two or more nouns are used as the designation of one individual, the possessive termination is added to the last; as, "*Paul the apostle's* advice;" "*General Washington's* tent;" "*Smith the bookseller's* house;" "*The Duke of Wellington's* exploits."

Here *Wellington's* is not in the possessive, but in the objective after *of; Duke* is in the possessive, but the whole is taken as one name, and the possessive termination is placed at the end.

6. When the possessive termination is placed thus, the words are so closely connected as to form but one name. If any thing more is added, the termination must be placed after it. We may say, "Charles Stuart's death," or, "The King of England's death," but not "Charles Stuart, the King of England's death."

"This fact appears from Dr. Bacon of Birmingham's experiments." Here "of Birmingham" is added to the name of the individual to designate his place of residence, and the possessive termination should not be placed after *Birmingham.*

7. When two or more nouns in the possessive case are connected by *and*, the possessive termination should be added to each of them; as, "These are *John's* and *Eliza's* books."

It would be better to say, "These books belong to John and Eliza."

But, if objects are possessed in common by two or more, and the nouns are closely connected without any intervening words, the possessive termination is added to the last noun only; as, "These are John and Eliza's books."

It would be better to say, "These books belong in common to John and Eliza."

8. Mr. Murray says, "But when a pause is proper, and the governing word not expressed; and 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 to the other; as, 'I reside at Lord Stormont's, my old patron and benefactor;' 'Whose glory did he emulate? He emulated Cæsar's, the greatest general of antiquity.'"

Such constructions should not be used. Instead of the sentences quoted by Mr. Murray, we may say, "I reside at the house (or mansion, or seat) of Lord Stormont, my old patron and benefactor;" "Whose glory did he emu-

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When two or more nouns are used as the designation of one individual, where is the possessive termination placed?

Is it proper to say, "Charles Stuart, the King of England's death?" Why?

When two or more nouns in the possessive case are connected by *and*, where should the possessive termination be placed?

What change should be made in such sentences as, "I reside at Lord Stormont's, my old patron and benefactor?"

late? He emulated that (or the glory) of Cæsar, the greatest general of antiquity." So, instead of, "These psalms are David's, the king, priest, and prophet of the Jewish people," we may say, "These psalms were written by David," etc. Instead of, "I left the parcel at Smith's, the bookseller and stationer," we may say, "I left the parcel at the residence (or shop) of Smith, the bookseller and stationer."

9. Nothing, except some necessary modifying word, should come between the possessive case and the name of the object possessed. "She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding," should be, "She began to extol the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

10. A participial noun, either alone or modified by other words, may be placed after the possessive case; as, "I am opposed to John's *writing*," "I am opposed to his *devoting himself so exclusively to one subject*."

This is one of the most common idioms of the language; and no other case than the possessive should be used in the preceding and similar sentences. Thus, when we wish to express opposition to the performance of the action, it is incorrect to say, "I am opposed to John writing."

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

Earth's serenest prospects fly,
Hope's enchantments never die.—*Montgomery.*

Thy father's virtue is not thine.

This man was taken by the Duke's officers, who, in obedience to their master's directions, had driven him from all his hiding places.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

His brothers offence is not his. A mothers tenderness, and a fathers care, are natures gifts for mans advantage. John Thomson his book. Lucy Townsend her book.

[*Rem.* 2.] This book is your's. The tree is known by it's fruit. You have left your books, and have taken our's and their's.

[*Rem.* 3.] The bill passed the Lord's house, but was defeated

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What may come between the possessive case and the name of the object possessed?

What is said of the participial noun after the possessive case?

in the Common's house. The Representatives' house convened to-day.

[*Rem.* 4.] The world's government is not left to chance. She married my son's wife's brother. The extent of the prerogative of the King of England is sufficiently ascertained. It was necessary to have the physician's and the surgeon's advice. John and Andrews occupation was that of fishermen. It was the men's, women's, and children's lot to suffer calamities.

[*Rem.* 5.] The Bishop's of Landaff excellent book. Doctor's Norwood practice. He is at Smith's the bookseller. The King's of England son.

[*Rem.* 6.] Arthur Wellesley, duke of Wellington's exploits. John Brown of Haddington's works. Edward the second of England's Queen.

[*Rem.* 9.] She praised the child's, as she called him, ready wit. They condemned King Corney's, as he was called, dissipated habits.

[*Rem.* 10.] He was averse to the nation involving itself in war. They have no notion of the same persons possessing different accomplishments. What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily? He being a rich man did not make him a happy man. Much depends on your pupil composing frequently. I am opposed to him going. Such will ever be the consequence of youth associating with vicious companions.

RULE IX.

The object of a transitive verb is put in the objective case; as, "*He built* a house."

Remarks.—1. An infinitive, a participial noun, or a clause, may supply the place of the objective; as, "Boys love *to play*;" "Boys love *playing*;" "I know *that you are happy*;" "I know *who lives here.*"

What is the rule for the object of a transitive verb?

What may supply the place of the objective?

2. When the subject and object are nouns, the object must usually be placed after the verb, because the position in the sentence determines the case; thus, "Alexander conquered *Darius*;" not "*Darius* conquered Alexander."

But when pronouns are used, the object may be placed before the verb; as, "*Him* followed his next mate;" "This *subject* he has examined."

As relatives and interrogatives stand as near as possible to the beginning of their clauses, they always precede the verb; as, "He *whom* I serve is eternal;" "*Whom* do you serve?"

3. The object of the verb is omitted, when it is something indefinite or easily supplied; as, "John reads."

4. Some intransitive verbs are followed by an objective of kindred signification to their own; as, "He *runs* a *race*;" "They *live* a happy *life*." Allied to this construction are such expressions as the following: "Death *grinned* horribly a ghastly *smile*;" "Her lips *blush* deeper *sweets*;" "Groves, whose rich trees *wept* odorous *gums* and *balms*;" "From that sapphire fount the crisped brooks *ran nectar*."

5. Transitive verbs are sometimes improperly used as intransitive; as, "I must premise *with* three circumstances;" "I cannot allow *of* that." The preposition should be erased in each one of these sentences. *To locate* is sometimes improperly used as intransitive; as, "He has located in Cincinnati;" by which is meant that he has become a resident of Cincinnati.

6. Intransitive verbs are sometimes improperly used as transitive; "He repented *him* of his design." *Him* should be erased. It is not elegant to say, "He *grows* corn;" or, "This land *grows* corn." We should say, "He *raises* or *cultivates* corn;" "This land *produces* corn."

7. Some verbs may be followed by two objectives denoting the same person or thing; as, "Romulus called the *city Rome*."

The verbs referred to in this remark, are all those verbs that in the passive voice have a predicate nominative; such as, *to choose, to appoint, to elect, to constitute, to render, to name, to call, to esteem, to consider, to reckon.*

After some of these verbs we may suppose an ellipsis of the verb *to be*; as, "I consider him [to be] a good man."

It is hardly proper to call this *apposition*. A noun in apposition with another noun, is annexed for the sake of *explanation* or *description*, and *may* be omitted; but in this construction, the second noun is essential. There is quite a difference between, "He called Cicero the father of his country;"

Where should the object be placed?
When is the object omitted?
What is said of the objective after some intransitive verbs?
Mention some instances in which transitive verbs are improperly used as intransitive.—Some in which intransitive verbs are improperly used as transitive.
What is the remark concerning two objectives denoting the same person or thing?
Is this properly called *apposition*?

and "He called Cicero the father of his country." In the first sentence "who was" may be supplied; as, "He called Cicero, who was the father of his country."

8. Some verbs are followed by two objectives, one denoting a *person*, and the other generally denoting a *thing*; as, "James gave *me* a *book*;" "Forgive *us* our *debts*;" "John taught *him grammar*;" "He granted *me* a *favor*;" "Buy *me* a *book*;" "They allowed *him* a *seat*;" "It cost *him* a *dollar*."

A preposition is understood with the objective of the person, which must be expressed when this objective comes after the objective of the thing; as, "James gave a book to me;" "They allowed a seat to him."

9. The objective with which a preposition has been understood has been mistaken for the object of the verb, and is, from this mistake, often made the subject of the verb in the passive voice—the other objective being retained after the passive; as, "*I* was given a *book* by James;" "*He* was allowed a *seat*." Such expressions should be avoided. With the verb *to ask* and *to teach*, however, this construction is used by good authors; as, "*He* was asked his *opinion*;" "*He* was taught *grammar*." It would be better to say, "His opinion was asked;" "Grammar was taught him;" or, "He learned grammar."

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herds wind slowly o'er the lea;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Come, behold the doings of Jehovah!
What astonishing things he hath wrought in the earth.
He quieteth wars to the end of the earth;
The bow he breaketh in pieces, and cutteth asunder the spear;
The chariots he burneth with fire.

Yet him whose heart is ill at ease,
Such peaceful solitudes displease.

John calls me his friend, but James considers me his enemy. The Americans chose George Washington president. John wrote in his grammar, "John Thomson Brown's book."

Teach me submission to thy will. Give us our daily bread.

What is the remark concerning such expressions as, "James gave me a book?" | What is said of such expressions as, "I was given a book by James?"

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

Who did he see? He that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply. They that honor me, I will honor. Who do you think I saw? Who did he marry? The man who he raised from obscurity is dead. His wrath will consume ye both. This is a friend who you must receive cordially. He who committed the offence thou shouldst punish, not I who am innocent.

[*Rem.* 9.] He was denied the privilege. We were shown several beautiful pictures. He was promised the situation. He was told this fact some time ago. I was offered the employment. You were paid a high compliment. He was afforded an opportunity.

RULE X.

The object of a preposition is put in the objective case; as, "*He spoke to* me."

Remarks.—1. A preposition may be followed by a participial noun, either alone or modified by other words; as "He is engaged in *writing*;" "He accused me of *having defrauded* him."

2. The preposition *about* is sometimes followed by the infinitive mood; as, "He is about *to go*."

Other prepositions, especially *for*, were formerly placed before the infinitive; as, "What went ye out for *to see?*"

For is sometimes placed before the infinitive with its subject in the objective; as, "This is a dangerous opinion for *men to entertain*." Here *for* shows the relation between *dangerous* and *men to entertain*—not *men* merely. [*See Rule* xi.]

3. Some prepositions are followed by adverbs; as, *at once, for ever, from above, from afar*. The adverbs, in such cases, are equivalent to nouns; thus, *at once* is equivalent to *at one time*. In some instances a noun may be supplied; as, "From [places which are] *afar*."

What is the rule for the objective after prepositions?
What is said of the participial noun after a preposition?
What preposition is sometimes followed by the infinitive?
What is said of such phrases as, "This is a dangerous opinion for men to entertain?"
What is said of *at once*, etc.?

From hence, from thence, etc., are often used, though the preposition is unnecessary.

From is sometimes placed before adjuncts; as, "He came from *under the tree*." In such cases a noun may generally be supplied after *from*; thus, "He came from [his position] under the tree."

4. A clause is sometimes made the object of a preposition; as, "Much will depend on *who the commissioners are*."

5. The object of the preposition is sometimes omitted when it is the antecedent to a relative pronoun. *See* page 51, etc.

6. The preposition is sometimes placed after the objective; as,

> "Though bush and floweret never grow
> My dark, unwarming *shade below*."—*Campbell.*

In familiar language, it is allowable to place prepositions after relatives and interrogatives which depend on them; as, "Whom did he speak to?" instead of "To whom did he speak?"

7. *Home*, and nouns denoting time, extent of space, and degree of difference, are put in the objective case without a preposition; as, "He went *home*;" "I was there five *years*;" "He rode forty *miles* that *day*;" "The pole is ten *feet* long;" "This is a great *deal* better than that."

A preposition may be supplied with some of these; as, "He went [to] home;" "I was there [during] five years;" "This is [by] a great deal better than that;" "He rode forty miles [on] that day." With others it is difficult to say what preposition may be supplied. Some say, "He rode [through] forty miles;" "The pole is long [to] ten feet."

8. The objective is used without a preposition after the adjective *worth*, and sometimes after *like*, *near*, and *nigh*; as, "This hat is worth five dollars;" "He is like [to] his father."

Some consider *worth*, as used above, a noun, with *of the* understood before it, and *of* after it; thus, "This hat is [of the] worth [of] five dollars." Mr. Goold Brown and others call it a preposition. But it is used as an adjective by ancient writers; as, "The more is he *worth* and *worthi*."—*Piers Ploughman*. In the following passage from Wiclif it has *to* connected with it: "If the salt vanishe away, wherynne schal it be salted? *To* nothing is it *worth* over." *Worth* means *equal in value*, and *to* may be supplied after it; thus, "This hat is worth [equal in value] to five dollars;" "This book is worth to nothing."

What is said of such expressions as, "He came from under the tree?"
Does the preposition always precede the objective?
What nouns are put in the objective without a preposition?
Name some words which are followed by the objective without a preposition.
What preposition may be supplied after the adjective *worth*?

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

"Therefore all seasons shall be sweet to thee,
Whether the summer clothe the general earth
With greenness, or the redbreast sit and sing
Betwixt the tufts of snow on the bare branch
Of mossy apple-tree, while the nigh thatch
Smokes in the sun-thaw."—*Coleridge.*

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

He went with Prettyman and I. To who did you speak? Who did you speak to? Who does it belong to? It was divided between he and I. Let no quarrel occur among ye. From he that is needy turn not away. It was said by somebody, I know not who.

RULE XI.

The infinitive has sometimes a subject in the objective case; as, "*I believe* him *to be an honest man;*" "*He commanded the* horse *to be saddled;*" "*I confess* myself *to be in fault;*" "*Let* him *be punished.*"

Remarks.—1. *Him*, in the first sentence quoted, is not the object of the verb *believe*, but the subject of *to be*. In the second sentence, *horse* is not the object of *commanded*—it is not meant that a command was given to the horse.

2. The objective in such case, is equivalent to the nominative with *that*, and the infinitive to a finite verb; thus, "I believe *that he is an honest man;*" "He commanded *that the horse should be saddled.*"

3. When the infinitive with its subject is the subject of another verb, it is introduced by *for;* as, "*For* you to go is better;" "It is better *for* you to go."

"It is better for you to go," may also mean, "To go is better for you." This is a different construction: *for* expresses the relation between *better* and *you;* but, as it is used in the preceding paragraph, it serves merely to introduce the infinitive with its subject.

What is the rule for the subject of the infinitive?
To what are the objective and infinitive equivalent?
When the infinitive with its subject is the subject of another verb, how is it introduced?

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

I wish you to learn. I acknowledge him to be a worthy man. He took it to be me. I supposed him to be a gentleman. That will cause you to be despised. Will you let him be ruined? Let us go. For me to leave you is necessary. It is pleasant for brethren to dwell together in unity. I discovered John to be a scholar. I found him to be a villain.

RULE XII.

The infinitive mood may depend on a verb, an adjective, or a noun; as, "Cease *to do evil;*" "*He is* anxious *to learn;*" "*He has a* desire *to learn.*"

Remarks.—1. The infinitive sometimes depends on the preposition *about;* as, "He is *about* to learn."

2. The infinitive is sometimes used, generally after *so as* or *too*, to denote a *result;* as, "The difficulties were *so* great *as* to deter him;" "He is *too* proud to labor."

The infinitive is often used elliptically after *than;* as, "Nothing makes a man suspect much, more than to know little [does]."

3. The infinitive is sometimes used to denote a *purpose;* as, "Those who came to *scoff* remained *to pray.*" In this sense it is often preceded by *in order;* thus, "Those who came *in order* to scoff, remained *in order* to pray." The preposition *for* was formerly used before the infinitive denoting a purpose; as, "What went ye out *for* to see?"

4. The infinitive, especially in the passive voice, is often used to denote *obligation* or *necessity;* as, "This is a thing *to be desired.*" The verb *to be* is sometimes expressed in such cases; as, "This is a thing *which is* to be desired."

5. The infinitive is sometimes used absolutely; as, "To confess the truth, I was in fault." Here *to confess* has no dependence on other words. *Which is* might be supplied, if the infinitive were placed after the other clause; thus, "I was in fault, which is to confess the truth."

What is the rule for the infinitive?
On what preposition does the infinitive sometimes depend?
How is the infinitive used after *so as*?—after *than*?
What is said of the infinitive denoting a purpose?—denoting obligation or necessity?—of the infinitive used absolutely?

6. The infinitive is often construed like a noun, and may be the subject of a verb, or the object, or stand as the predicate nominative, or be placed in apposition with a noun; as, "*To play* is pleasant;" "Boys love *to play*;" "To study is not *to play*."

7. After the active voice of the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and some others, the infinitive is used without *to*; as, "He bids me *come*;" "I saw him *write*;" "We heard him *tell* the story."

To is generally expressed after the passive voice of these verbs; as, "He was seen *to write*."

The verbs after *may*, *can*, *must*, etc., are infinitives with *to* omitted.

8. The infinitive is sometimes omitted; as, "I believed him [to be] honest." So *to be* in the passive infinitive is sometimes omitted; as, "I supposed him [to be] cured;" "He heard the letter [to be] read."

9. The perfect infinitive is sometimes improperly used for the imperfect [present]; as, "Yesterday I hoped *to have seen you*." The perfect infinitive represents an action as *past* at the time referred to; but this infinitive is used to express an action, which, though past at the time of speaking, was not so at the time to which the finite verb refers. This sentence should be, "Yesterday I hoped to see you."

If we intend to refer the *seeing* to the time denoted by *yesterday*, and the *hoping* to some previous time, we should say, "I had hoped to see you yesterday."

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

Cease to do evil. Learn to do well. Be not anxious to acquire wealth. A friend should be willing to bear a friend's infirmities. He has a wish to do good. We are under obligation to assist the poor. I am not so wicked as to act so. He managed the business so as to pay his debts. This is a consummation devoutly to be wished. The old are to be respected. To be candid, I am sorry to see you. Did you hear him say so? He saw me do it. You need not be alarmed. I saw the boat launched.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

Cease do evil. Please excuse my absence. It is better to live on a little, than outlive a great deal. You ought not walk so fast.

Mention some examples in which the infinitive is construed as a noun.
When is the sign *to* omitted?
What are the verbs after *may*, *can*, *must*, etc.?
Give an example in which the infinitive is omitted.
What is said of the improper use of the perfect infinitive?

[*Rem.* 7.] They need not to run so fast. He bade me to go home. Let no rash promise to be made. I have seen some persons to conduct themselves very discreetly. I felt a chilling sensation to creep over me.

He was seen enter the house. He was heard make this assertion. They were bid come into the house.

[*Rem.* 9.] I found him better than I expected to have found him. I intended to have started yesterday. I was once inclined to have gone on shore. I was then disposed to have yielded. I cannot excuse the remissness of those whose business it should have been to have interposed their good offices. They would have found it difficult to have accomplished their purpose. We have done no more than it was our duty to have done. It would have been no difficult matter to have compiled a volume of such amusing precedents. He was too young to have felt his loss. The books were to have been sold to-day.

RULE XIII.

Participles are modified in the same way as their verbs are.

Thus, if the verb is followed by the objective case, so is the participle; as, "He *sees* me," "*Seeing* me," "*Having seen* me."

If the verb has two objectives, the participle has also; as, "He *calls* him John," "*Calling* him John," "*Having called* him John."

If the verb takes a predicate nominative, so does the participle; as, "He *is* a judge," "*Being* a judge," "*Having been* a judge."

The same adjuncts that modify the verb, modify the participle; as, "He *speaks* of me," "*Speaking* of me," "*Having spoken* of me."

How are participles modified?

Note.—The participle is modified like the verb in the *same voice.*

Remarks.—1. The *participial noun*, like the infinitive, has the properties both of a noun and a verb; both it and the infinitive are modified just as participles are. *See Rule* vi. *Remark* 5.

2. The participial noun may be used either in the nominative or the objective, but not in the possessive case. It may be the subject of a verb, or the object of a verb, or of a preposition, and at the same time have its own object; thus, "Its excesses may be restrained without *destroying* its influence;" "He studied to avoid *expressing* himself too severely." In the first sentence *destroying* is a participial noun in the objective after the preposition *without*, and *influence* is, in the objective after *destroying;* in the second, *expressing* is the object of the verb *to avoid*, and *himself* is the object of *expressing.*

3. When a noun is limited by an adjective, though it may have the form of a participle, it is simply a noun, and should be construed as such.

Thus, "By *the observing of* these rules;" "This is *a complete forsaking of* truth;" "For *the* more *easy reading of* large numbers."

Errors are sometimes committed by leaving out *of* after such nouns; as, "By the observing these rules." Both the adjective and *of* may be omitted, however, and then the word becomes a participial noun; as, "By observing these rules."

The participial noun should not be followed by *of;* as, "By *observing of* these rules." If the verb from which it is derived is followed by *of*, the participial noun is also; as, "He spoke *of* those rules," "By speaking *of* those rules."

4. When the participle is changed into a noun, it cannot be modified by adverbs, as the participial noun may be; thus, it is incorrect to say, "For the more *easily* reading of large numbers;" but "For reading large numbers more easily" is correct.

5. The participial noun is often connected with the possessive case; as, "I have some recollection of his *father's being* a judge."

Mr. Goold Brown and others suppose *judge* to be in the *possessive* case in apposition with *father's;* Dr. Bullions says that it is in the *objective.* It is simply the predicate *nominative. See Rule* vi. *Remark* 5.

Mr. Brown has not shown his usual acuteness in treating of the participle. He seems to consider the participial noun as simply a participle—the *adjective-form* of the verb, and this mistake has caused him to find fault with some of the most common constructions of the language, such as, "He studied to avoid *expressing* himself too severely." He says, "If the examples are good *English*, (for the point is questionable), the verbs are all *in-*

What is said of the participial noun? What is said of such expressions as, "By the observing of these rules?" | What errors are mentioned?

transitive, and the participles relate to the nominatives going before, as in the text quoted in the preceding observation."* "The analogy of general grammar," says Mr. B., "evidently requires in such cases the infinitive or a noun."

The truth is, that the participle in such cases *is* a verbal noun, and allied to the infinitive; in the German and Greek, for instance, the infinitive is generally used, when in English the participial noun is employed.† In the first of the following sentences, *expressing* is a simple participle—an *adjective;* in the second it is a *noun;* "He reproved John, *expressing* himself very severely;" "He studied to avoid *expressing* himself too severely." But Mr. Brown seems to think that *expressing* is *always* an adjective.

7. When the auxiliary perfect participle, (or the passive, which is the same in form), and the past tense of the verb differ in form, one is often incorrectly used for the other; thus, "I *done*" is often used for "I *did*," "I *seen*" for "I *saw*," "I have *went*" for "I have *gone*," "I have *wrote*" for "I have *written*." Such errors should be carefully avoided. *See List of Irregular Verbs, Second Class*, p. 100.

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

I saw a man cutting wood. The young maiden was seen standing on the shore, exposed to the merciless winds, and extending her hands towards heaven. Having lost his wealth, he was deserted. He employs part of his time in teaching his brother arithmetic. By yielding to temptation, we become less able to resist it. After having read the book, I returned it. Judas, surnamed Iscariot, betrayed Christ. There is no doubt of his being a great statesman.

MODEL.

"*I saw a man cutting wood.*"

Cutting is the imperfect active participle of the verb *to cut;* it belongs to the noun *man*, according to Rule ii.

Wood is a common noun, etc.; in the objective case—the object of the transitive participle *cutting*. *Rule* xiii. and *Rule* ix.

What errors are sometimes committed in regard to verbs whose past tense and auxiliary perfect participle differ in form?

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* The text is, "They continued *asking* him." Here *asking* may be considered a participle belonging to *they*, and not a participial noun—the object of the verb *continued*. But this is a different construction from that mentioned above.

† See quotation from Archbishop Whately, p. 81.

"*He employs part of his time in teaching his brother arithmetic.*"

Teaching is a participial noun from the verb *to teach;* in the objective case after the preposition *in*. *Rule* x.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Rem.* 3.] By the obtaining wisdom, you will command esteem. By obtaining of wisdom, you will command esteem. In avoiding of one error do not fall into another. This was a forsaking his duty.

[*Rem.* 7.] This man been here yesterday. Cain slain his brother. I seen you. He done it. You have not did as I told you. He has broke the cup. Toasts were drank. I have drank enough. The ground is froze. He run a mile. Some one has took my pen. The bird has forsook her nest. He has spoke an hour. Your knife has been stole. The letter is wrote. I have chose you. That tree has fell down. The hogs have eat the apples. The tree was shook by the wind. He drunk too much. He has began to study. I begun to be afraid.

RULE XIV.

A preposition shows the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word.

See Etymology of Prepositions, and Rule x.

Note.—The other word usually precedes.

Remarks.—1. The noun or pronoun is sometimes omitted; as, "He is a man [whom] I should like to become acquainted with;" "He gave assistance to [him] whoever had need of it."

2. The preceding word is sometimes omitted; as, "[To speak] in a word, he is ruined."

3. Two prepositions are sometimes placed before the same noun or pronoun; as, "He came *from*, and is now returning *to*, France." This is inelegant; it should be, "He came from France, and is now returning to it." Such expressions are allowable in forms of law.

What is the rule for prepositions?
Mention some examples in which the noun or pronoun is omitted.
Give an example in which the preceding word is omitted.
What is said of placing two prepositions before the same noun or pronoun?

4. We should take care to use the proper preposition in every instance. Some improprieties are here noticed.

"He was dependent of [on] the Papal crown."
"He was eager of [in] recommending that measure."
"He found the greatest difficulty of [in] writing."
"I have no occasion of [for] his services."
"This had a great share of [in] urging him."
"He has a capacity of [for] enjoyment."
"You have bestowed them to [upon] the most deserving."
"He accuses me for [of] having done this."
"He has a great abhorrence to [of] such men."
"You have a prejudice to [against] my cause."
"There is no need for [of] his assistance."
"Her sobriety is no derogation to [from] her understanding."
"He died for [of] thirst."
"This is very different to [from] that."
"He is reconciled with [to] the king."
"They have a great resemblance with [to] each other."
"That was agreeable with [to] his principles."
"Virtue and vice differ widely with [from] each other."
"You may safely confide on [in] him."
"He does not profit from [by] experience."
"You may rely in [on] what I tell you."
"This tale is founded in [on] facts."
"They have quarreled among [with] each other."
"They must be followed with [by] appropriate prepositions."

5. A taste *of* a thing implies actual enjoyment; a taste *for* it implies capacity for enjoyment.

We are disappointed *of* a thing, when we cannot get it; and we are disappointed *in* it, when we have it, and find it does not answer our expectations.

In is used before the names of countries, cities, and large towns; and *at* before the names of villages, single houses, and cities which are in distant countries; thus, "He lives *in* France, or *in* Philadelphia;" "He lives *at* Houghton;" "He resides *at* Rome."

In is often improperly used for *into*, to denote entrance, etc.; as, "He went in (*into*) the house."

Between or *betwixt* has reference to two objects or classes of objects; when the reference is to more than two, *among* or *amidst* must be used; as, "He divided it *between* John and James;" "He divided it *among* John, James, and William."

Mention some improprieties in the use of prepositions.

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

You will gain happiness by a life of virtue. By a life of virtue you will gain happiness. To a man of energy, this is easy. By close attention to study, he became learned. In what character he was admitted, is unknown.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Rem.* 3.] The pronoun is governed by, and agrees with, the preceding word. He came to, but was driven from, the house.

[*Rem.* 4.] She finds a difficulty of fixing her mind. We can fully confide on none but the truly good. We should entertain no prejudice to such things. She has an abhorrence to all deceitful conduct. The politeness of the world has the same resemblance with benevolence, that the shadow has with the substance.

[*Rem.* 5.] When we have had a true taste for the pleasures of virtue, we can have no taste of those of vice. We are often disappointed of things, which before possession promised much enjoyment. It rained so violently that we were disappointed in our walk. They resided some time at Italy. He lives at Boston. He ran out of one house in another. Let us go in that garden. He threw it in the water. The bird flew up in the tree.

RULE XV.

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

[*See Etymology of Adverbs.*]

Remarks.—1. Adverbs should be placed as near to the words which they modify, as they can be without producing harshness.

Note.—The same remark applies to adjuncts. Any more definite rule would be liable to so many exceptions as to be nearly useless.

What is the rule for adverbs?

What is said concerning the position of adverbs and adjuncts?

Such adverbs as *only*, *merely*, *chiefly*,* are frequently misplaced; thus, "I only saw John, and not James;" "I saw John only, but did not speak to him." The first sentence should be, "I saw only John," or, "I saw John only;" the second should be, "I only saw John."

2. In familiar language, *here*, *there* and *where* are used for *hither*, *thither*, and *whither*.

3. Two negatives should not be used to express a negation, because they destroy each other, or are equivalent to an affirmative; thus, "*Nor* did they *not* deserve the condemnation," means that they *did* deserve it.

4. Adjectives should not be used as adverbs, nor adverbs as adjectives; "He writes *beautiful*," should be, "He writes *beautifully*;" "The *above* lines," should be, "The *preceding* lines;" "Thine *often* infirmities," should be, "Thy *frequent* infirmities."

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

Is it not sweet to think, hereafter,
When the spirit leaves this sphere,
Love, with deathless wing, shall waft her
To those she long hath mourned for here?
Hearts from which 't was death to sever,
Eyes this world can ne'er restore,
There, as warm, as bright as ever,
Shall meet us and be lost no more.—*T. Moore.*

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Rem.* 1.] We should not be overcome by present events totally. He was pleasing not often, because he was vain. In the proper disposition of adverbs, the sound carefully requires to be consulted as well as the sense. We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure. They seemed to be nearly dressed alike.

Wanted a young man to take care of some horses, of a religious turn of mind.

The following verses were written by a young man who has long lain in the grave, for his own amusement.

At that time I wished any body would hang me a hundred times. A public dinner was given to the inhabitants of roast

What is the effect of two negatives? | What caution is given with respect to the use of adjectives and adverbs?

* *See Etymology of Adverbs*, Remarks 1, 2, 3, 4, p. 118.

beef and plum-pudding. I saw the kettle had been scoured with half an eye. He rode to town and drove twelve cows on horseback.

He only read one book, and not two. He read the book only, but did not keep it. He chiefly spoke of virtue, and not of vice. He only reads English, and not French.

[*Rem.* 3.] I never drink nothing. I cannot see to write no more. Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise. Will he never be no better? I am resolved not to do so, neither at present, nor at any other time.

[*Rem.* 4.] She walks graceful. He spoke eloquent. Did he arrive safely? The boat moves rapid. He spoke harsh to her. His expressions sounded harshly. The king acted bolder than the duke. She is a remarkable pretty girl. My foot slipped, and I pretty near fell down.

RULE XVI.

Conjunctions connect words and propositions.

Remarks.—1. The conjunction is sometimes omitted; as, "They confess the power, (*and*) wisdom, and love of their Creator;" "I believe (*that*) he is a good man."

2. Some conjunctions are used before the first of two, and sometimes more, connected words or clauses, to mark the connection more forcibly; as, "*Both* John and James were there." Here *and* connects *John* and *James*, and *both* is used to mark the connection more forcibly. *Neither* and *either* are used in the same way before *nor* and *or*; as, "*Neither* John *nor* James was there."

3. After the conjunctions *than*, *though* and *if*, and also after *as*,* there is often an ellipsis: as, "My punishment is greater than (*that is which*) I can bear;" "My punishment is as great as (*that is which*) I can bear;" "I love wisdom better than (*I love*) riches;" "False flew the shaft, though (*it was*) pointed well;" "It will answer, if (*it is*) well executed."

What is the rule for conjunctions? Mention some examples in which the conjunction is omitted.

What is said of such expressions as, "Both John and James were there?" What often takes place after *than*, *though*, *if*, and *as*?

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* *See Words belonging to different classes*, Remark 8, p. 126.

4. After *than* the objective case of the relative pronoun is used, even when any other word would be in the nominative; as, "Satan, than *whom*, Beelzebub excepted, none higher sat."—*Milton.* This is an anomaly, which some grammarians explain by supposing that *than* was formerly used as a preposition.

5. *As* frequently joins to a word another denoting *character* or *office*, etc.; as, "They employed him *as* a clerk;" "He was employed *as* a clerk." After the infinitive, or a participial noun, *as* may be placed before a noun without connecting it to any preceding noun; as, "He wished to be employed *as* a clerk."

Such constructions may perhaps be considered, at least in their origin, elliptical; thus, "They employed him as a clerk (*is employed.*)" *As*, thus used, would be an adverb.

6. Two parts of different propositions may be connected, when the remaining part of the one is the same as that of the other; as, "This always has been, and always will be, admired."

But if the remaining part of one is not the same as that of the other, the two parts should not be connected. Thus, it is incorrect to say, "This always has, and always will, be admired," because, if *be admired* is added to the first part, it will be, *has be admired.*

"He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Cynthio." This is inaccurate, because we cannot say, "He was more beloved *as* Cynthio." It should be, "He was more beloved than Cynthio, but not so much admired" —*as Cynthio* being understood.

7. After the comparative degree, and after *other* and *else*, which partake of the nature of the comparative, *than* is used to introduce the latter term of comparison; as, "He is greater *than* I;" "It is no other *than* he;" "What else do you expect *than* this?"

8. After expressions denoting *doubt*, *fear*, and *denial*, *but*, *but that*, or *lest* is often improperly used instead of *that*; as, "I do not doubt *but that* he is honest;" "I am afraid *lest* he may not return."

9. After conjunctions denoting *doubt* or *contingency*, *shall* and *should* ought not to be omitted, unless futurity is implied. "Though man *be* a sinner, yet God is merciful to him," should be, "Though man *is* a sinner," etc.

10. Mr. Brown's thirteenth rule is, "When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed." Mr. Murray, Dr. Bullions, and other distinguished grammarians, lay down the same principle, That they are mistaken, the following sentences, taken at random from several authors, will show:

What peculiarity in the use of the relative pronoun after *than*?
What is said of such sentences as, "They employed him as a clerk?"
When may two parts of different propositions be connected?
How is *than* used after the comparative degree, etc.?
After expressions denoting doubt, fear, and denial, what words are improperly used instead of *that*?
What is said of the omission of *shall* and *should* after conjunctions denoting doubt or contingency?
When verbs are connected by a conjunction, must they always be in the same mood, tense, etc.?

"So that neither angel, man, nor world, *could stand*, or *can stand*."—*Bacon.*
"Who *was* and *is* from everlasting."—*Id.*

"Horatio *says*, 'tis but our fantasy,
And *will* not *let* belief take hold of him."—*Shakspeare.*

"Lucretius, without impeachment, *versifies* his Epicurism to Ennius, and *had* the honor."—*Milton.*
"We *have* not *found* them all, Lords and Commons, nor ever *shall do*."—*Id.*
"He *was* skilful in many languages, and *had*, by reading and composition, *attained* the full mastery of his own."—*Johnson.*
"He yet *shared* only the common weakness of mankind, and *might be* no less sincere than his opponents."—*Id.*
"Here thy temple *was* and *is*."—*Byron.*
"He *wishes* and *can wish* for this alone."—*Coleridge.*

"He went like one that *had been stunned*,
And *is* of sense forlorn."—*Id.*

"One eye *had lost* its pupil, and *was glaring*."—*W. Irving.*
"*Was* yet so peculiar in its causes and character, and *has been followed*, and *must* still *be followed*."—*Daniel Webster.*
"All *is* still there, and blank, and lifeless, and *has been* so for ages."—*Buckminster.*
"They *had danced*, and *feasted*, and *were* now in deep sleep."—*Miss Sedgwick.*

In some of the preceding quotations, separate nominatives might be used, but in others, such a construction would be inelegant.

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

Many a vanished year and age,
And tempest's breath, and battle's rage,
Have swept o'er Corinth; yet she stands,
A fortress formed to Freedom's hands.
The whirlwind's wrath, the earthquake's shock,
Have left untouched her hoary rock,
The keystone of a land, which still,
Though fallen, looks proudly on that hill.—*Byron.*

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Rem.* 6.] Such works always have, and always will, be read. 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. This dedication may serve for

almost any book that has, or ever shall be, published. The intentions of these philosophers might, and probably were, good. They differ and contend against one another.

[*Rem.* 7.] He has little more of the scholar besides the name. They had no sooner risen but they applied themselves to their studies. These savages seemed to have no other element but war. What else do you expect but disgrace? It was no other but his father. This is nothing else but treason. Have you no other proof except this? He no sooner sees him but he runs to embrace him.

[*Rem.* 8.] I do not doubt but that he is just. I have no fear lest he will succeed. I have no doubt but he has merit. I do not deny but that he is energetic.

[*Rem.* 9.] Though he be poor, he is contented. If he know the way, he does not need a guide. I respect him, though he chide me. I cannot tell whether he be the same that we saw.

RULE XVII.

Interjections have no grammatical connection with other words.

Remarks.—1. *Ah* is sometimes placed before the objective case of the pronoun of the first person; as, "Ah *me!*" This seems to be, as it were, an *objective independent*. The same construction is used without the interjection; as, "*Me* miserable! which way shall I fly!"

Some explain this construction by supposing an ellipsis; "Ah! [pity] me."

2. Ellipses frequently occur after interjections; as, "O! that I had the wings of a dove!" "O for a closer walk with God!" "Oh! a chair." In the first two quotations, *I wish* may be inserted after the interjections; in the last, *I wish for;* or, *give me*, may be used.

EXERCISES TO BE PARSED.

Oh! I am dumb. Alas! unhappy man! what hast thou done! O for a minute more of life! Ah! unhappy me!

O grave, where is thy victory! O death, where is thy sting!

What is the rule for interjections?
What is said of the use of the objective case after interjections?
Mention some cases of ellipsis after interjections.

PROSODY.

PROSODY treats of the laws of versification.

A *verse* is a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged in regular order, and constituting a line of poetry.

A *foot* is a portion of a verse, consisting of two or more syllables combined according to accent.

A straight line (—) over a syllable shows that it is accented, and a curved line (⏑) that it is unaccented.

Remark.—In the poetry of some languages, syllables are *long* and *short*, instead of accented and unaccented. A long syllable occupies twice the time of a short one.

The principal feet are

The *Iambus*, ⏑ —	The *Anapest*, ⏑ ⏑ —
The *Trochee*, — ⏑	The *Dactyl*, — ⏑ ⏑
The *Spondee*, — —	The *Amphibrach*, ⏑ — ⏑
The *Pyrrhic*, ⏑ ⏑	The *Tribrach*, ⏑ ⏑ ⏑

The *iambus* has the *second* syllable accented, and the first unaccented; as, dĕvōte, crĕāte.

The *trochee* has the *first* syllable accented, and the second unaccented; as, nōblĕ, hămlĕt.

The *anapest* has the *last* syllable accented, and the first two unaccented; as, ăcquiēsce, mĭsbĕhāve.

The *dactyl* has the *first* syllable accented, and the last two unaccented; as, lăbŏrĕr, pōsĭtĭve.

The *spondee* consists of two accented syllables; as, the pāle mōon.

The *pyrrhic* consists of two unaccented syllables; as, ŏn thĕ tall tree.

Of what does prosody treat?
What is a verse?—a foot?
What marks are used to denote accented and unaccented syllables?
Name the principal feet.
What is an iambus?—a trochee?—an anapest?—a dactyl?—a spondee?—a pyrrhic?

The *amphibrach* has the middle syllable accented, and the first and last unaccented; as, dŏmĕstĭc.

The *tribrach* consists of three unaccented syllables; as, numĕrăblĕ.

The pyrrhic, spondee, and tribrach occur occasionally. The amphibrach is the iambus with an additional short syllable.

EXERCISES.

What foot does each of the following words form?

Amity, console, other, compose, comfort, dactyl, defile, glory, over, prosody, minute, absent, overcome, happiness, devotee, unite, reproduce, absentee, artifice, dismay, comet, correct, sober, elegant, journal, deceive, unfit, river, silver, decry, destiny, dissent, devote, undeserved, syllable, temple, gather, winter, fuel, restore, return, distant, happy, morose, incomplete, complete, valley, helping, simple, deserve, finish.

If a verse is composed principally of iambuses, it is called *iambic* verse; if of trochees, *trochaic;* if of anapests, *anapestic;* if of dactyls, *dactylic.*

Rhyme is a similarity of sound between the last syllables of different verses.

Blank verse is without rhyme.

Scanning is the dividing of a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

A verse which is complete is called *acatalectic;* one which is deficient is called *catalectic;* one which has a redundant syllable is called *hypercatalectic*, or *hypermeter.*

IAMBIC VERSE.

1. *Of one foot.*

'Tĭs swĕet
To meet.

2. *Of two feet.*

Swĕet rū | răl scĕne
Ŏf flŏcks | ănd grĕen.

What is an amphibrach?—a tribrach?
What is iambic verse?—trochaic?—anapestic?—dactylic?
What is rhyme?
What is blank verse?
What is scanning?
What is a verse which is complete called?
What is one which is deficient called?
What is one which has a redundant syllable called?
Mention an iambic verse of one foot.—Of two feet.

3. *Of three feet.*

Thĕ stārs | wĭth dēep | ămāze
Stănd fixed | wĭth stēad | fāst gāze.

4. *Of four feet.*

Strănge sōunds | ălōng | thĕ chān | cĕl pāssed,
The banners waved without a blast.

5. *Of five feet.*

Āll crīmes | shăll cēase, | ănd ān | cient frāud | shăll fāil;
Returning Justice lift aloft her scale.

6. *Of six feet.*

His heart | ĭs sād, | hĭs hōpe | ĭs gōne, | hĭs light | ĭs pāssed,
He sits and mourns in silent grief the ling'ring day.

7. *Of seven feet.*

Thĕre's beaū | tў āll | ărōund | ōur pāths, | ĭf būt | ōur wātch | fŭl ēyes
Can trace it 'midst familiar things, and through their lowly guise.

Each of these species of iambic verse may have an additional short syllable. Thus:

1. Dĭsdāinĭng.
2. Upōn | ă mōun | taĭn.
3. Whĕn ōn | hĕr Mā | kĕr's bō | sŏm.
4. Bŭt hāil, | thŏu gōd | dĕss, sāge | ănd hō | ly.
5. Whăt slēn | der yoūth, | bĕdēwed | wĭth lĭ | quĭd ō | dōur.
6. Whōse frōnt | cān brāve | thĕ stōrm, | bŭt will | nŏt rēar | the flōw | ĕr.
7. Tō scāt | tĕr ō'er | hĭs pāth | ōf fāme | brĭght hūes | ōf gēm | like shōw | ĕrs.

Iambic verse of five feet is called *Heroic* verse.

A verse of six feet is called an *Alexandrine.*

An *Elegiac stanza* consists of four heroic verses rhyming alternately; as,

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

The *Spenserian stanza* consists of eight heroic verses, fol-

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Mention an iambic verse of three feet.—Of four feet.—Of five feet.—Of six feet.—Of seven feet.
Mention some iambic verses which take an additional short syllable.
What is heroic verse?
What is an Alexandrine?
Of what does an elegiac stanza consist?
Of what does the Spenserian stanza consist?

lowed by an Alexandrine. The first verse rhymes with the third; the second with the fourth, fifth, and seventh; and the sixth with the eighth and ninth; as,

And greedy Avarice by him did ride,
Upon a camel laden all with gold;
Two iron coffers hung on either side,
With precious metal full as they might hold;
And in his lap a heap of coin he told;
For of his wicked pelf his god he made,
And unto hell himself for money sold;
Accursed usury was all his trade;
And right and wrong alike in equal balance weighed.

This stanza is named from the poet Spenser. It is the measure in which his "Faerie Queene" is written.

Iambic verse of seven feet is usually divided into two lines; the first containing four feet, the second three; as,

When all thy mercies, O my God,
My rising soul surveys,
Transported with the view I'm lost
In wonder, love, and praise.

This is what is called *common meter.*

Long meter has four iambuses in a verse.

Short meter has three iambuses in the first, second, and fourth verses, and four in the third.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. *Of one foot.*

Strāyĭng,
Playing.

2. *Of two feet.*

Rĭch thĕ | trēasŭre,
Sweet the pleasure.

From whom is the Spenserian stanza named?
How is iambic verse of seven feet usually divided?
What is common meter?—long meter?—short meter?
Mention a trochaic verse of one foot.—Of two feet.

3. *Of three feet.*

Gō whĕre | glōrў | wāits thĕe,
But when fame elates thee.

4. *Of four feet.*

Māids ăre | sĭttĭng | bў thŏ | fōuntăin,
Bright the moon o'er yonder mountain.

5. *Of five feet.*

Āll thăt | wălk ŏn | fōot ŏr | rĭde ĭn | chărĭŏts,
All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. *Of six feet.*

Ōn ă | mōuntăin, | strētched bĕ | nēath ă | hōarў | wĭllŏw,
Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.

In iambic verse, the accent is on the even syllables; in trochaic, on the odd.

Trochaic verse may take an additional *long* syllable; thus,

1. Ōn thy | stāte
Whĭrlwinds wait.
2. Ānd ăt | nĭght thĕy | slēep
In the rocking deep.
3. Theē thĕ | vōice, thĕ | dānce ŏ | bēy,
Tempered to thy warbled lay.
4. Īdlĕ | ăftĕr | dĭnnĕr | ĭn hĭs | chāir
Sat a farmer, ruddy, fat, and fair.
5. Hāil tŏ | thēe, blĭthe | spĭrĭt! | bĭrd thŏu | nēvĕr | wērt,
That from heav'n or near it, pourest thy full heart.
6. Nĭght ănd | mōrnĭng | wēre ăt | mēetĭng | ōvĕr | Wătĕr | loo;
Cocks had sung their earliest greeting; faint and low they crew.

In the last two forms, each line is usually divided into two. Thus:

Hail to thee, blithe spirit!
Bird thou never wert, etc.

Night and morning were at meeting
Over Waterloo.

Trochaic verse, with an additional long syllable, is the same as iambic verse without the initial short syllable.

Mention a trochaic verse of three feet.—Of four feet.—Of five feet.—Of six feet.

Where is the accent in iambic verse?—In trochaic?

Mention some trochaic verses which take an additional long syllable.

ANAPESTIC VERSE.

1. *Of one foot.*

Bŭt tŏo făr
Each proud star.

2. *Of two feet.*

Whĕre thĕ sŭn | lŏves tŏ păuse,
With so fond a delay,
That the night only draws
A thin veil o'er the day.

3. *Of three feet.*

Ĭ hăve fŏund | ŏut ă gĭft | fŏr my făir,
I have found where the wood-pigeons breed.

4. *Of four feet.*

Thĕre ĭs nŏt | ĭn thĕ wĭde | wŏrld ă văl | lĕy sŏ swēet
As the vale in whose bosom the bright waters meet.

The first form is ambiguous, since by putting a little more stress on the first syllable, we may scan it as a trochee with an additional long syllable.

An additional short syllable may be added to each of these forms. But when a short syllable is added to the first form, we usually give more stress to the first syllable, and make two trochees.

DACTYLIC VERSE.

1. *Of one foot.*

Vĕrĭlў,
Mĕrrĭlў.

2. *Of two feet.*

Gĕntlĕ ănd | lŏvelў fŏrm,
Whăt dŏst thŏu | hĕre,
Whĕn thĕ fĭĕrce | bättlĕ stŏrm
Bŏre dŏwn thĕ | spĕar?

3. *Of three feet.*

Mărch tŏ thĕ | bättlĕ fĭĕld | fĕarlĕsslў.

Mention an anapestic verse of one foot.—Of two feet.—Of three feet.—Of four feet.
Why is the first form ambiguous?
When an additional short syllable is added, how may the verse be scanned?
Mention a dactylic verse of one foot.—Of two feet.—Of three feet.

4. *Of four feet.*

Bāchĕlŏr's | Hāll, whăt ă | quāre lŏokĭng | plăce ĭt ĭs,
Kāpe mĕ frŏm | sĭch āll thĕ | dāys ŏf my | lĭfe!
Sūre bŭt I | thĭnk whăt ă | būrnĭn dĭs | grăce ĭt ĭs
Nĕvĕr ăt | āll tŏ bĕ | gĕttĭng ă | wĭfe.

A dactylic verse scarcely ever ends with a dactyl. Sometimes one long syllable is added, sometimes a trochee. Thus:

Brĭghtĕst ănd | bĕst ŏf thĕ | sōns ŏf thĕ | mōrnĭng,
Dāwn ŏn ŏur | dārknĕss, ănd | lēnd ŭs thĭne | āid.

Scarcely any poem is perfectly regular in its feet. Iambic verse, for instance, admits of either of the other feet. Thus:

Prōphĕt of plagues, forever boding ill.
Mūrmŭrĭng, and with him fled the shades of night.
Before all temples thĕ ūpright heart and pure.
Brought death ĭntŏ the world and all our woes.
And thunders down impetŭoŭs tŏ the plain.

In iambic verse, the initial short syllable is often omitted, and the verse becomes trochaic, with an additional long syllable.

In trochaic verse, if the initial long syllable is omitted, the line becomes iambic, with an additional short syllable.

In anapestic verse, if the two initial short syllables are omitted, the verse becomes dactylic, with a long syllable added.

In dactylic verse, if the initial long syllable is omitted, the verse becomes anapestic.

By intermingling iambuses and anapests a pleasing movement is produced. This is often done by modern poets. Thus:

Ỿ cōme, | Ỿ cōme! | yĕ hăve cālled | mĕ lōng,
I cōme | o'ĕr thĕ mōun | taĭns wĭth lĭght | ănd sōng!
Ye may trace my steps o'er the wakening earth,
By the winds which tell of the violet's birth,
By the primrose stars of the shadowy grass,
By the green leaves opening as I pass.

Mention a dactylic verse of four feet.
How does dactylic verse usually end?
Are poems always regular in their feet?
If the initial short syllable is omitted in iambic verse, what does the verse become?
If the initial long syllable is omitted in trochaic verse, what does the verse become?
How may an anapestic verse become dactylic?
How may a dactylic verse become anapestic?
What is produced by intermingling anapests with iambuses?

EXERCISES IN SCANNING.

(*The following extracts are also suitable for Parsing Exercises.*)

Sweet rural scene
Of flocks and green,
At careless ease my limbs are spread:
All nature still
But yonder rill,
And list'nĭng pĭnes nod o'er my head.—*Young.*

And ne'er did Grecian chisel trace
A Nymph, a Naiăd, ŏr a Grace
Of finer form, or lovelĭĕr fāce!
What though the sun, with ardent frown,
Had slightly tinged her cheek with brown,
The sportive toil, which, short and light,
Had dyed her glowing hue so bright,
Served too in hastĭĕr swĕll to show
Short glimpsĕs of ă brēast ŏf snow;
What though no rule of courtly grace
To measured mood had trained her pace,
A foot more light, a step more true,
Nĕ'er frŏm the heath-flŏwĕr dāshed the dew:
E'ĕn the slight hare-bell raised its head,
Elastĭc frŏm her airy tread:
What though upon her speech there hung
The accĕnts ŏf a mountain tongue—
Those silver sounds, so soft, so dear,
The list'ner held his breath to hear.—*Sir W. Scott.*

Ōft ĭn the stilly night,
Ere slumber's chain has bound me,
Fond Memŏrў brĭngs the light
Of other days around me;
The smiles, the tears,
Of boyhood's years,
The words of love then spoken;
The eyes that shone,
Now dimmed and gone,
The cheerful hearts now broken.—*T. Moore.*

What kind of verse is the following?

Of man's first disobedĭence, ănd the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death ĭntŏ the world, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore ŭs, ănd regain the blissful sēat,

Sing, heavenly Muse, thăt ŏn the secret top
Of Oreb, ŏr of Sinai, didst inspire
That shepherd, who first taught the chosen Seed
In thĕ beginning how the Heavĕns ănd Earth
Rōse ŏut of Chaos.—*Milton.*

Hark! his hands the lyre explore;
Bright-eyed Fancy, hovering o'er,
Scatters from her golden urn
Thoughts that breathe, and words that burn.—*Gray.*

When, around thee dying,
Autumn leaves are lying,
Oh! then remember me.
And, at night, when gazing
On the gay hearth blazing,
Oh! still remember me.
Then should music, stealing
All the soul of feeling,
To thy heart appealing,
Draw one tear from thee;
Then let memory bring thee
Strains I used to sing thee—
Oh! then remember me.—*T. Moore.*

What is the following stanza called?

To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell,
To slowly trace the forest's shady scene,
Where things that own not man's dominion dwell,
And mortal foot hath ne'er or rarely been;
To climb the trackless mountain all unseen,
With the wild flock that never needs a fold;
Alone o'er steeps and foaming falls to lean;
This is not solitude; 't is but to hold
Converse with nature's charms, and view her stores unrolled.—*Byron.*

Come as the winds come when
Forests are rended;
Come as the waves come when
Navies are stranded—
Faster come, faster come—
Faster and faster—
Chief, vassal, page and groom,
Tenant and master.—*Sir W. Scott.*

Come ye disconsolate, where'er ye languish,
Come, at the shrine of God fervently kneel;
Here bring your wounded hearts, here tell your anguish:
Earth has no sorrow that Heav'n cannot heal.—*T. Moore.*

What is the following stanza called?

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?—*Gray.*

Alas! they had been friends in youth;
But whispering tongues can poison truth;
And constancy lives in realms above;
And life is thorny; and youth is vain;
And to be wroth with one we love
Doth work like madness in the brain.
And thus it chanced, as I divine,
With Roland and Sir Leoline.
Each spake words of high disdain
And insult to his heart's best brother:
They parted—ne'er to meet again!
But never either found another
To free the hollow heart from paining.
They stood aloof, the scars remaining,
Like cliffs which had been torn asunder;
A dreary sea now flows between;
But neither heat, nor frost, nor thunder,
Shall wholly do away, I ween,
The marks of that which once hath been.—*Coleridge.*

I am monarch of all I survey,
My right there is none to dispute;
From the centre all round to the sea,
I am lord of the fowl and the brute.—*Cowper.*

Our bugles sang truce, for the night-cloud had lowered,
And the sentinel stars set their watch in the sky;
And thousands had sunk on the ground overpowered,
The weary to sleep, and the wounded to die.—*Campbell.*

"I hear thee speak of the better land,
Thou callest its children a happy band;
Mother! oh where is that radiant shore?
Shall we not seek it, and weep no more?
Is it where the flower of the orange blows,
And the fire-flies glance through the myrtle boughs?"
—"Not there, not there, my child!"

"Is it where the feathery palm-trees rise,
And the date grows ripe under sunny skies?
Or 'midst the green islands of glittering seas,
Where fragrant forests perfume the breeze,

And strange, bright birds on their starry wings
Bear the rich hues of all glorious things?"
—"Not there, not there, my child!"

"Is it far away, in some region old,
Where the rivers wander o'er sands of gold?
Where the burning rays of the ruby shine,
And the diamond lights up the secret mine,
And the pearl gleams forth from the coral strand?
Is it there, sweet mother, that better land?"
—"Not there, not there, my child!"

"Eye hath not seen it, my gentle boy!
Ear hath not heard its deep sounds of joy;
Dreams cannot picture a world so fair—
Sorrow and death may not enter there;
Time doth not breathe on its fadeless bloom,
Far beyond the clouds, and beyond the tomb,
—It is there, it is there, my child!"—*Hemans.*

How many feet are wanting in the first and last lines of the following extracts?

'Tis a time
For memory and for tears. Within the deep,
Still chambers of the heart, a spectre dire,
Whose tones are like the wizard voice of Time
Heard from the tomb of Ages, points its cold
And solemn finger to the beautiful
And holy visions that have passed away,
And left no shadow of their loveliness
On the dead waste of life.—*Prentice.*

Now gentle gales
Fanning their odoriferous wings dispense
Native perfumes, and whisper whence they stole
Those balmy spoils.—*Milton.*

We do pray for mercy;
And that same prayer doth teach us all to render
The deeds of mercy.—*Shakspeare.*

Is anything wanting in any of the following verses?

Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring
Of woes unnumbered, goddess, sing
That wrath which hurled to Pluto's reign
The souls of mighty chiefs, untimely slain.
Whose bones, unburied on the naked shore,
Devouring dogs and vultures tore.

POETIC PAUSES.

There should be a pause at the close of every verse, even where no pause is required by the sense. This is called the *final* pause.

The *sentential* pause, or pause for sense, requires a change of tone; but, in the final pause, the voice should be merely suspended, without being either raised or depressed.

In many instances, the ear can distinguish verse from prose only by means of the final pause. Blank verse, if the final pause is omitted, and there is no sentential pause at the end of the line, sounds as if it were only poetical prose. This will be made evident by arranging a few verses as they would be read without this pause.

"His spear, to equal which the tallest pine hewn on Norwegian hills, to be the mast of some great admiral, were but a wand, he walked with, to support uneasy steps over the burning marle—not like those steps on heaven's azure; and the torrid clime smote on him sore besides, vaulted with fire."

Tell where the final pause should be in the preceding. It is heroic verse.

The *cesural* pause divides the line into two equal or unequal parts, and is made naturally by the voice in reading verse correctly.

The shorter kinds of verse are without this pause.

The natural place for it is near the middle of the line; the sense of the passage, however, often requires it to be removed from its natural position. If it always recurred at the same place, the verse would be too monotonous.

In the following heroic verses, the cesural pause is in the middle of the third foot, that is, in the middle of the line:

The steer and lion" at one crib shall meet,
And harmless serpents" lick the pilgrim's feet.

What is the final pause?
What is the difference between the sentential pause and the final pause?
What is the cesural pause?
Where is the natural place for this pause?
Mention a verse in which this pause takes place in the middle of the line.

In the following line the pause is at the end of the third foot, because it cannot take place in the middle of a word:

The crested basilisk" and speckled snake.

In the following, it takes place in the middle of the fourth foot, because all the preceding words are so intimately connected that a pause would mar the sense:

And on the sightless eyeball" pour the day.

It may fall even in the middle of the first foot, or of the last, but then there is usually a second pause.

But not to me returns
Day" or the sweet approach of even or morn.

No sooner had the Almighty ceased," but all
The multitude of angels" with a shout
Loud" as from numbers without number," sweet
As from blest voices" uttering joy.

Besides the cesural pause there are often *demicesuras*, or half pauses. Thus:

Warms' in the sun," refreshes' in the breeze,
Glows' in the stars," and blossoms' in the trees;
Lives' through all life," extends' through all extent,
Spreads' undivided," operates' unspent.

Show the place of the cesural pause in the following:

Rapt into future times, the bard begun!
A virgin shall conceive, a virgin bear a son!
From Jesse's root behold a branch arise,
Whose sacred flower with fragrance fills the skies;
The ethereal spirit o'er its leaves shall move,
And on its top descend the mystic dove.

These are thy glorious works, Parent of Good,
Almighty; thine this universal frame,
Thus wondrous fair; thyself how wondrous then!

Mention an heroic verse in which this pause takes place at the end of the third foot.

Mention an heroic verse in which this pause occurs in the middle of the fourth foot.

In what other places may the cesural pause occur?

What is a demicesura?

Unspeakable, who sitt'st above these heavens,
To us invisible; or dimly seen
In these thy lower works: yet these declare
Thy goodness beyond thought, and power divine.
Speak ye who best can tell, ye sons of light,
Angels; for ye behold him, and with songs
And choral symphonies, day without night,
Circle his throne, rejoicing; ye in heaven,
On earth, join all ye creatures to extol
Him first, him last, him midst, and without end.

PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION treats of the points and marks which are used in writing.

These marks are used chiefly to denote pauses.

The following are the principal marks used in writing:

The Comma [,], the Semicolon [;], the Colon [:], the Period [.], the Note of Interrogation [?], the Note of Exclamation [!], the Dash [—], and the Parenthesis [()].

The comma marks the shortest pause; the semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the colon, a pause double that of the semicolon; and the period, the longest pause.

Note.—The duration of the pauses must be left to the taste of the reader.

COMMA.

The general rule is, that a comma is used in those parts of a sentence in which a short pause is required.

RULE I.

In general, the comma is not used in a simple sentence; as, "Hope is necessary in every condition in life."

Of what does punctuation treat?
For what purpose are these marks used?
Describe the principal marks.
What is the relative duration of the pauses?
What is the general rule for the comma?
Is the comma used in a simple sentence?

But when the logical subject is rendered long by the addition of adjuncts to the grammatical subject, a comma may be placed after the logical subject; as, "The necessity of an early acquaintance with history, has always been acknowledged;" "To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character."

EXERCISES.

Are the following sentences correctly punctuated?

All finery, is a sign of littleness. Idleness is the great fomenter of all corruptions in the human heart. The tear of repentance, brings its own relief. To be, contents his natural desire. The fear of the Lord, is the beginning of wisdom.

A steady and undivided attention to one pursuit will give success. The punishment of the reckless disturbers of society tends to secure peace.

RULE II.

The clauses of a compound sentence are generally separated by a comma; as, "Phocion was poor, though he might have been rich;" "Phocion, though he might have been rich, was poor;" "This principle, which had been instilled into his mind from his youth, influenced all his conduct;" "This work, said he, is amusing."

But when the members are closely connected, the comma is not used; as, "Revelation teaches us how we may attain happiness;" "Principles which are instilled into the mind in youth, have the greatest influence."

In the first example, the dependent clause is the object of the verb *teaches*, and is, of course, closely connected; in the second, the relative clause modifies the noun *principles*, and forms with that noun the logical subject.

Where is the comma used in compound sentences? | Are the clauses always separated by the comma?

EXERCISES.

Are the following sentences correctly punctuated?

If ignorance is bliss 'tis folly to be wise. Love not sleep lest thou come to poverty. Cast out the scorner and contention shall go out.

He, that hath pity upon the poor, lendeth unto the Lord. He knows how weak we are.

RULE III.

Two words of the same class—whether nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs—connected by a conjunction, do not admit of a comma between them; as, "Reason and virtue answer one great aim;" "He is a plain and honest man;" "Religion expands and elevates the mind;" "We must live virtuously or viciously."

But if the connected words have adjuncts, the comma may be inserted; as, "Intemperance destroys the vigor of our bodies, and the strength of our minds."

When a pause between two words will give distinctness or emphasis, the comma is inserted; as, "'Tis certain he could write, and cipher too;" "A good man will love himself too well to *lose*, and his neighbor too well to *win*, an estate by gaming."

When the conjunction is understood, the comma is used; as, "Reason, virtue answer one great aim;" "He is a plain, honest man."

EXERCISES.

Point out the errors in punctuation in the following examples.

The man of virtue, and honor will be trusted. We are fearfully, and wonderfully made. The earth, and the moon are planets. She is gentle, and affectionate.

What is the rule concerning two words of the same class connected by a conjunction? | When may the comma be inserted?

A proper love for our country and a proper love for the human race are consistent with each other. He is studious of change and pleased with novelty. He can read but not write. I mean virtue and not selfishness.

He was a brave pious man. She is a gentle affectionate woman.

RULE IV.

When three or more words of the same class are connected by conjunctions expressed or understood, the comma is used after every one but the last; as, "He was a brave, wise, and pious man."

If several nouns are connected to form a compound subject, the comma is inserted after every one; as, "Poetry, music, and painting, are fine arts."

When words are used together in pairs, they should be separated in pairs by the comma; as, "Truth is fair and artless, simple and sincere, uniform and consistent;" "We should be moderate, whether we eat or drink, labor or sleep."

EXERCISES.

Insert the comma where it is required in the following sentences.

Success generally depends on acting prudently steadily and vigorously. He ruined himself by self-conceit presumption and obstinacy. He is a noble high-minded generous man. The sight the hearing the taste the smell and the feeling are the five senses. Self-conceit presumption and obstinacy blast the prospects of many a youth.

Anarchy and confusion poverty and distress desolation and ruin are the consequences of civil war. There is a natural difference between merit and demerit virtue and vice wisdom and folly.

What is the rule with respect to three or more words of the same class connected by a conjunction?

What takes place when several nouns are connected to form a compound subject? —When words are used together in pairs?

RULE V.

The nominative case independent, the nominative absolute, and the infinitive absolute, with their adjuncts or the words closely connected with them, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by the comma; as, "My son, give me thy heart;" "Those happy dreams, whither have they fled?" "At length, his object having been effected, he returned;" "To confess the truth, I was in fault."

EXERCISES.

Insert the comma where it is required in the following sentences.

Continue my dear child to walk in the path of virtue. You may go John to your seat. Shame being lost all is lost.

And now my race of terror run
Mine be the eve of tropic sun.

To prevent dispute I submitted to the terms. To say the least they have shown great want of prudence.

RULE VI.

When a noun in apposition with another, has several words connected with it, the noun and the words connected with it should be separated from the rest of the sentence by the comma; as, "Paul, the apostle of the gentiles, was eminent for his zeal."

Remark.—A single noun in apposition with another is not separated from it by the comma; as, "Paul the apostle was eminent for his zeal."

What is the rule with respect to the nominative case independent, etc.? | What is the rule with respect to nouns in apposition?

EXERCISES.

Insert the comma where it is required in the following sentences.

Hope the balm of life soothes us under every misfortune. Augustus the Roman emperor was a patron of the arts. The emperor Augustus was a patron of the arts. Death the king of terrors chose a prime minister. The patriarch Joseph is an illustrious example of filial affection.

RULE VII.

Adverbs and adjuncts, when not closely connected with some particular word in the sentence, are often separated from the rest of the sentence by the comma; as, "Lastly, strive to preserve a conscience void of offence;" "He is not good; he cannot, therefore, be great;" "He is, in my opinion, a very worthy man."

If adverbs and adjuncts are placed out of their natural order, they are generally separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma; as, "Formerly, knowledge was not so generally diffused as it is now;" "To God, nothing is impossible."

EXERCISES.

Where should the comma be inserted in the following sentences?

The work is in many respects imperfect. With gratitude I remember his kindness. By threads innumerable our interests are interwoven. Besides our own interest forbids it. He could not in so short a time complete it. In general honesty is the best policy. Indeed you cannot convince him. We must not however confound frugality with parsimony.

RULE VIII.

Conjunctions, when they are separated by intervening words from the clauses to which they

What is the rule with respect to adverbs and adjuncts? | What is the rule with respect to conjunctions?

belong, are generally set off by the comma; as, "But, though I used every exertion, I could not effect it."

Interjections are sometimes set off by the comma; as, "Behold, thy king cometh unto thee."

EXERCISES.

Where should the comma be inserted in the following sentences?

For if there is any truth in him he will attend to it. And if I can I will come also. But if you will tell me how I will avoid it.

RULE IX.

An adjective or participle, when it has the import of a dependent clause, is separated from the noun by the comma; as, "The mother, happy in attending to her children, desired no change." "All mankind compose one family, assembled under the eye of one common Father."

EXERCISES.

Where should the comma be placed in the following sentences?

The people indignant at these outrages demanded his removal. His talents formed for great enterprises could not fail to render him conspicuous. Intoxicated with pleasures they become giddy and insolent.

RULE X.

The comma is generally placed where a finite verb is understood; as, "From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge."

What is the rule with respect to an adjective or participle having the import of a dependent clause?

What takes place when a finite verb is understood?

EXERCISES.

Where should the comma be placed in the following sentences?

In prosperity he was too much elated—in adversity too despondent. The body is mortal—the soul immortal. Ignorance produces vice; and vice misery. The one succeeds by flattery —the other by merit.

SEMICOLON.

The semicolon is used to separate those parts of a sentence which are not so closely connected as those which are separated by the comma, nor so slightly connected as those which are separated by the colon; as,

"The richest genius, like the most fertile soil, when uncultivated, shoots often into the rankest weeds; and, instead of vines and olives for the pleasure and use of man, produces to its slothful owner the most abundant crop of poisons."

"Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom."

"The turf shall be my fragrant shrine;
My temple, Lord! that arch of thine;
My censer's breath, the mountain airs;
And silent thoughts my only prayers."

"Philosophers assert that nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries of which we have not the least idea."

EXERCISES.

Where should the semicolon be employed in the following examples?

The wise man is happy when he gains his own approbation the fool when he gains the applause of those about him.

The path of truth is a plain and safe path that of falsehood is a perplexing maze.

When is the semicolon used?

Modesty is one of the chief ornaments of youth and it has ever been esteemed a presage of rising merit.

Levity is frequently the forced production of folly or vice cheerfulness is the natural offspring of wisdom or virtue only.

COLON.

The colon is used to separate those parts of a discourse which are not so closely connected as those that require the period.

The colon may be used in the following cases:

1. When a proposition is complete in itself, but followed by some additional remark or illustration; as, "Study to acquire a habit of thinking: no study is more important."

Remark.—If the latter proposition were connected to the former by a conjunction, the colon could not be properly used; as, "Study to acquire a habit of thinking; for no study is more important."

2. When several semicolons have been employed, and a still greater pause is necessary before the full stop; as, "We perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not see it moving; and it appears that the grass has grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, as they consist of insensible steps, are perceivable only by the distance."

3. When a quotation is introduced without a close dependence on a preceding word; as, "He often uttered these words: 'I have done with the world, and I am willing to leave it.'"

EXERCISES.

Where may the colon be used in the following examples?

A brute arrives at a point of perfection that he can never pass in a few years he has all the endowments that he is capable of.

Since the first discovery of the arts war commerce and religious zeal have diffused among the savages of the Old and the

For what purpose is the colon used? | In what cases is the colon used?

New World these inestimable gifts they have been successively propagated they can never be lost.

It is one thing for a father to cease to be a father by casting off his son and another for him to cease to be so by the death of his son in the latter case the relation is at an end.

All our conduct towards others should be influenced by this important principle Do unto others as you would that others do unto you.

Note.—The colon is now seldom used. In some of the preceding examples, the semicolon may be used; in others, the period.

PERIOD.

The period is used at the close of a sentence; as, "Fear God." "Honor the King." "Have charity towards all men."

The period is also used after abbreviations; as, A. D. P. S. G. W. Johnson.

Remark.—It must not be supposed that the sentence following the period never has any connection with that which precedes it. It is sometimes used even before a conjunction; 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."

EXERCISES.

When should the period be used in the following exercises?

Rejoice evermore pray without ceasing in every thing give thanks.

Worldly happiness ever tends to destroy itself by corrupting the heart it fosters the loose and the violent passions it engenders noxious habits and taints the mind with a false delicacy which makes it feel a thousand unreal evils.

If we look around us we shall perceive that the whole universe is full of active powers action is indeed the genius of na-

Where is the period used?

ture by motion and exertion the system of being is preserved in vigor by its different parts always acting in subordination to each other the perfection of the whole is carried on the heavenly bodies perpetually revolve day and night incessantly repeat their appointed course continual operations are going on in the earth and in the waters nothing stands still

The boat will start at 4 o'clock P M

This occurred A D 450

An oration was delivered by J L Scott Esq and the company seemed highly pleased.

Note.—After the period used with abbreviations we should employ other points, if the construction demands it; thus, after Esq. in the last example, there should be, besides a period, a comma.

DASH.

The dash is used when the sentence breaks off abruptly, where there is a sudden transition, or a significant pause; as, "I had something of consequence to say—but this man—."

The smiles of joy, the tears of woe,
Deceitful shine, deceitful flow—
There's nothing true but heaven!"

Remark.—The dash is now often used instead of the parenthesis.

EXERCISES.

Where should the dash be used in the following exercises?

Here lies the great False marble where?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here.

He is fallen how low!

We wait till to-morrow to be happy alas! why not to-day?

Go, let me weep there's bliss in tears
When he who sheds them inly feels
Some lingering stain of early years
Effaced by every drop that steals.

When is the dash used?

NOTE OF INTERROGATION.

The note of interrogation is used at the close of a question; as, "Why do you weep?"

Remark.—This mark must not be used after *indirect* questions; as, "The Cyprians asked me why I wept." Here *why I wept* is not a direct question, and should not take the note of interrogation.

EXERCISES.

Where should the note of interrogation be used in the following exercises?

When did you come Tell me when you came Have you read Milton He asked me if I had read Milton Knowest thou the land where the citrons bloom Who adorned the heavens with such exquisite beauty John asked me where I had been

NOTE OF EXCLAMATION.

The note of exclamation is used after sudden expressions of surprise, joy, grief, etc.; as, "Now glory to the Lord of Hosts, from whom all glories are!" "Oh! how our hearts were beating!"

In earnest addresses, it is used, in preference to the comma, after the name of the object addressed; as, "Hear me, O Lord! for thy loving-kindness is great!"

Note.—The note of interrogation is sometimes improperly used after exclamations which have the form of questions; as, "How great is the mercy of God?" Here the note of exclamation should be used.

EXERCISES.

Where should the note of exclamation be used in the following exercises?

Days of my youth ye have glided away Oh let my weakness have an end Light for the hills of Greece How happy are the righteous O feeble boast of transitory power

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Where is the note of interrogation used? | The note of exclamation?

PARENTHESIS.

The parenthesis includes a clause not essential to the sentence; as,

"Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)
Virtue alone is happiness below."

Remarks.—1. The parenthetical clause should have the same point that is used before it; thus, there is a comma after *know*, because there is one after *truth*.

But cases of interrogation and exclamation are excepted: as, "While they wish to please, (and why should they not wish it?) they disdain dishonorable means."

2. The parenthesis is now seldom used; instead of it, sometimes the comma, and sometimes the dash is employed; as,

"Know then this truth—enough for man to know—
Virtue alone is happiness below."

EXERCISES.

Where may the parenthesis be used in the following exercises?

To others do the law is not severe
What to thyself thou wishest to be done.

He was deceived we say it with respect in this matter. He fell what was there to prevent it from his high state.

OTHER MARKS.

There are several other marks used for various purposes.

The *Apostrophe* ['] is used as a sign of the possessive case; as, *John's*. It is also used when a letter is omitted; as, *e'en* for *even*, *'tis* for *it is*.

The *Caret* [∧] shows where to insert words or letters that have been omitted; as, "This is $\overset{\text{my}}{\wedge}$ book."

The *Hyphen* [-] connects the parts of compound words; as, *cloud-compelling*. When used at the end of a line, it shows that the rest of the word is in the following line.

Note.—It is not proper to place part of a *syllable* in one line, and the remainder in the next.

What is the use of the parenthesis?—What point should the parenthetical clause have?

For what is the apostrophe used?—The caret?—The hyphen?

The *Diæresis* [¨], placed over the latter of two vowels, shows that they do not form a diphthong; as, *aërial*. The diæresis here shows that this word is not to be pronounced *erial*.

The *Acute Accent* [′] denotes a short sound; as, *fáncy*.

The *Grave Accent* [`] denotes a long sound; as, *fàvor*.

Note.—The *acute* accent is often used to denote an accented syllable whether long or short.

Short and long syllables are generally denoted by the *Breve* [⏑] and the *Dash* [—]; as, *fŏlly*, *rōsy*.

The *Section* [§] marks the small divisions of a book or chapter.

The *Ellipsis* [——] or [* * *] is generally used where some letters are omitted from a name; as, *B——n* for *Byron*.

The *Paragraph* [¶], which is not much used except in the Bible, denotes the beginning of a new subject.

Crotchets or *Brackets* [ ] generally enclose some explanation, or something which is intended to prevent mistake; as, "John told James that he [James] was to get a new book."

The *Marks of Quotation* [" "] enclose the words of another.

The *Index* [☞] is used to point out anything which demands particular attention.

The *Brace* [}] is generally used to connect the three lines of poetry which form a triplet.

It is also used to connect several words with one common term; as, John Williams, James Anderson, Robert Thomson, } Managers.

The *Asterisk* [*], the *Obelisk* [†], the *Double Dagger* [‡], and the *Parallels* [‖] refer to marginal notes. The letters of the alphabet, and the numerical figures are often used for the same purpose.

What does the diæresis show? What is the use of the acute accent?—The grave accent?—The breve and the dash?—The section?—The ellipsis?—The paragraph?—Crotchets or brackets?—Marks of quotation?—Index?—The brace?—The asterisk, etc.?

CAPITAL LETTERS.

The following words should begin with capital letters:

1. The first word of every distinct sentence.

2. Proper names, and titles of office or honor; as, *George Washington, General Lee, Lord Brougham, Judge Story, Sir Walter Scott, the Ohio, Main Street.*

Remark.—The name of an object personified may be used as a proper name, and should then begin with a capital; as, "Come, gentle *Spring.*"

3. Adjectives derived from proper names; as, *American, English, Roman.*

4. The appellations of the Deity; as, *God*, the *Almighty*, the *Supreme Being*, the *Most High.*

5. The first word of every line of poetry.

6. The first word of a direct quotation, when the quotation would form a complete sentence by itself; as, "Christ says, 'My yoke is easy.'"

7. Every noun and principal word in the titles of books; as, "Pope's Essay on Man."

8. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals.

Note.—Other words, when they are of particular importance, may begin with capitals.

EXERCISES.

Where should capitals be used in the following exercises?

thou shalt not kill. thou shalt not steal. honesty is the best policy.

the soldiers of general washington loved him as a father. socrates, plato, aristotle, and pythagoras are the names of distinguished grecian philosophers.

the first female said, my name is pleasure.

he has read a great many german and french works.

What words should begin with capital letters?

spenser, shakspeare, and milton are the names of the greatest english poets.

remember thy creator in the days of thy youth.

up to the throne of god is borne
the voice of praise at early morn,
and he accepts the punctual hymn
sung as the light of day grows dim.

remember the ancient maxim, know thyself. solomon says, a wise man feareth and departeth from evil. he has read milton's paradise lost, and paradise regained. he consulted johnson's dictionary of the english language, and bosworth's anglo-saxon dictionary. if i can find the work, i will send it to you. hear, o man! o excellent scipio!

[**Note.**—To exercise the pupil farther in punctuation, and the use of capitals, the teacher may write off extracts from some well printed book, and direct the pupil to punctuate them. Writers vary a good deal from each other in punctuation.]

PARSING EXERCISES.

NOUNS.

Wealth often PRODUCES misery. Evil communications CORRUPT good manners. The stars are fading *from* the sky. God GOVERNS all things. Children, OBEY your parents. Hume WROTE a history *of* England. Punctuality BEGETS confidence. God's wisdom is seen *in* his works. HONOR thy Creator *in* the days *of* thy youth. A good cause MAKES a strong arm. A bad workman quarrels *with* his tools. A passionate man RIDES a horse that runs away *with* him. A precipitate choice MAKES way *for* a long repentance. A guilty conscience NEEDS no accuser. A clear conscience FEARS no accusation. A soft answer TURNS away wrath. Empty vessels MAKE the greatest sound. The mariner's compass was invented *in* the fourteenth century. MAKE hay while the sun shines. John EXAMINED the almanac. George POURED the ink *into* the fire, and dipped his pen *into* the ashes. The fire CONSUMED the stable, and the water EXTINGUISHED the fire.

ADJECTIVES.

A virtuous man LOVES virtuous men. That book IS beautiful, but the other IS instructive. Early risers DERIVE much pleasure *from* the sweet songs *of* the beautiful birds. Though bituminous coal IS black and dirty it MAKES a bright fire. Two men WALKED *with* three boys. An apple HUNG *upon* the bough. Such a course PRODUCES lasting happiness. The young man WAS unworthy of the gentle virgin's gift. *With* ineloquent lips, but *with* eloquent looks, he TOOK mournful leave *of* the beautiful maiden. Her gay humor HAD DEPARTED; she ASSUMED a majestic attitude, which ANNOUNCED haughty earnestness. *After* a few moments, she LEFT the grove, and TOOK no notice *of* the favorite. Life IS short, and art IS long. James IS taller than George IS. John IS the best boy *in* the class. This road IS worse than the other. That is the largest city *in* the world. That WAS the least man *in* the company. This IS the oldest chair *in* the room. That fire IS better than the other. Robert's apple IS redder than Philip's. George HAS the prettiest book *in* the school. This IS whiter paper than the other. Most men ARE desirous *of* new things.

PRONOUNS.

The person that PLANTS trees LOVES other persons *besides* himself. He that LIVES *in* a glass house should not THROW stones. You should UNDERSTAND what you READ. Bad spelling IS so common *among*

young girls, that they scarcely CONSIDER it vulgar. You KNOW a lady when she OPENS her mouth. Charles's father HAD DISSIPATED a large fortune, and LOST his life *in* a duel, *about* some debt *of* honor which he HAD CONTRACTED *at* the gaming table. The conversation *of* the sensible, well-informed persons who VISITED Mrs. Howard, IMPROVED her nephew's taste. Children, LOVE your parents; they HAVE SUFFERED much trouble *for* you. When the ostrich HIDES his head *in* the sand, he THINKS that no one SEES him. Moles MAKE their way *under* ground, but every one SEES their course. Sleep DEPRIVES us *of* our senses. Who ever SAW a man that WAS free *from* faults? I TELL what I KNOW. What I KNOW I TELL. The door OPENS *to* whoever KNOCKS. Whoever REPENTS WILL RECEIVE favor. Whoever violates this rule PAYS a fine. The dog LOVES whoever FEEDS him. Whoever FINDS him shall SLAY him. He RECEIVED what he WISHED. He was blind *to* the imperfections *of* what he CALLED his poetry. You WILL EXCUSE what I HAVE DONE. He helped to BURY whom he helped to STARVE.

VERBS.

Alexander concealed his opinion. William related the events *of* that remarkable night. Assist those who need your assistance. Idleness is the parent *of* many vices. Remember March, the ides *of* March remember. The world is beautiful. Show mercy, and thou shalt find it. He that hearkens *to* counsel is wise. All men should obey the commands of their Heavenly Father. The crow steals the Indian corn that is planted *by* the farmer. The seal has a round head, which *in* the fore-part bears considerable resemblance to that of an otter. The snipe visits us *in* summer. John deceived his mother. Falsehood is a most odious vice. *At* what time will you go? The streets have been muddy. We should read the best books. Bad books injure the character. You should have obeyed the directions. George should have come. William ought to have acted *in* that manner. James can gain the esteem *of* his companions. This subject will be examined. Listen *to* the instructions *of* thy father. War makes rogues, and peace hangs them.

PREPOSITIONS.

The world is still deceived by ornament. Joseph acted with prudence. Time waits for no man. The hunter went in pursuit of the lion. You ought to be a blessing to mankind. Strive to live in peace with all men. An honest man is believed without an oath, for his reputation swears for him. Great oaks from little acorns grow. Large streams from little fountains flow. Be ashamed of your pride, and not proud of your shame. A bad workman will quarrel with his tools. The young are slaves to novelty, the old to custom. Time and labor change a mulberry leaf into a satin dress. Intemperance drives wit out of the head, money out of the pocket, elbows out of the coat, and health out of the body. To you this sum is nothing; to me it is every thing. Through the forest he rushed with the rapidity of lightning. By such a course of vice, you will be ruined.

ADVERBS.

Sleep seldom visits sorrow. A truly good man worships God. Here will I rest. I am extremely weary. The enemy was totally defeated. The rain has been constantly pouring down. He was very properly reprimanded. Come soon to the friend who is eagerly expecting you. John is diligently employed. A diligent man can always find leisure, a lazy man never. When shall I see you again? Never. Thus passes the glory of the world. Stay till I come. He went as he came. As he came, so he went. It invariably rains when you come. The old castle frowns gloomily. I do not know when John started upon his journey. Where does George reside? There. Where is God? Everywhere. When you have nothing to say, say nothing. When the well is dry, people know the worth of water. Wherefore didst thou desert me? I could not go so soon, therefore I remained. John also was included in the number. I play and study also. I have spoken to you twice. You have spoken to me often. This conduct is very inexcusable. This is a most amusing book. Many hours passed away before she returned.

CONJUNCTIONS.

I wished to go, but he would not permit me. If you come, Thomas will come with you. He will not abandon the attempt, though he has been defeated. Though cast down, I will rise again. I cannot trust you, for you have deceived me. Neither the culprit nor the prisoner was confined. Either James or William has gone. The time has gone by, and you did not improve it. You can find no one greater than he is. The bells ceased to toll, and the streets became silent. He was loved more than man was ever loved before. The earth is dark, but the heavens are bright. I hope that he will improve. He is happy because he is good. I am not sure that that assertion is true. Though she is gentle, she is firm. I know this, that the world must pass away. Tell me whether you saw him. Either I am deceived, or you are. Either the water or the fire must conquer. Though I have seen him often, I do not know him. Unless it should rain soon, the flowers will wither. I have not seen him since I returned. Since he saw you, he should have spoken to you. I deem thee not unlovely, though thou comest with a stern visage.

INTERJECTIONS.

Alas! how rapidly time passes away! Oh, how eagerly should we seize every opportunity of warning the sinner! O that those lips had language! Fie! Trusty, what have you done! Hail, Columbia, happy land! Bravo! renew your efforts. Huzza! my friends, rush on! Pshaw, how can you be so foolish! O blissful days! Ah me! how soon ye pass!

SENTENCES.

True happiness is an enemy to pomp and noise.

The warrior's fame is often purchased by the blood of thousands.

I was yesterday about sunset walking in the open fields, until the night insensibly fell upon me. I at first amused myself with all the richness and variety of colors which appeared in the western parts of heaven. In proportion as they faded away and went out, several stars and planets appeared one after another, until the whole firmament was in a glow. The blueness of the ether was exceedingly heightened and enlivened by the season of the year, and by the rays of all those luminaries that passed through it. The galaxy appeared in its most beautiful white.

Julius Cæsar defeated Pompey, and Augustus defeated Anthony.[a]

Ambition often drives men to do the meanest actions.

The melancholy days have come, the saddest of the year,
Of wailing winds, and naked woods, and meadows brown and sear.
Heaped in the hollows of the grove, the withered leaves lie dead;
They rustle to the eddying gust, and to the rabbit's tread.
The robin and the wren are flown, and from the shrubs the jay,
And from the wood-top calls the crow, through all the gloomy day.

Thou art, O God, the life and light
Of all this wondrous world we see;
Its glow by day, its smile by night,
Are but reflections caught from thee.

The sea around was black with storms,
And white the shore with foam.

When twilight dews are falling fast
Upon the rosy sea,
I watch the star whose beam so oft
Has lighted me to thee.

One morn a Peri at the gate
Of Eden stood disconsolate;
And as she listened to the springs
Of life within, like music flowing,
And caught the light upon her wings
Through the half-opened portals glowing,
She wept to think her recreant race
Should e'er have lost that glorious place.

TABLE FOR ANALYZING SENTENCES.

Tell whether the sentence is simple or compound.

If it is a simple sentence, name the logical subject, and logical predicate.

Name the grammatical subject.

Tell by what the grammatical subject is modified.

If the words which modify the grammatical subject are themselves modified, tell by what they are modified.

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[a] These are two simple sentences.

Name the grammatical predicate.

Tell by what the grammatical predicate is modified.

If the words which modify the grammatical predicate are themselves modified, tell by what they are modified.

If it is a compound sentence, name the several clau

Name the independent, and the dependent clauses.

Tell by what each dependent clause is connected to the independent.

Analyze each clause in the same manner in which the simple sentence is analyzed.

MODEL.

"True happiness is an enemy to pomp and noise."

This is a simple sentence.

The logical subject is *true happiness.*

The logical predicate is, *is an enemy to pomp and noise.*

The grammatical subject is *happiness;* this is modified by the adjective *true.*

The grammatical predicate is *is;* this is modified by *enemy;* enemy is modified by the adjective *an,* and by the adjunct *to pomp and noise.*

"The warrior's fame is often purchased by the blood of thousands."

Simple sentence.

Logical subject, *the warrior's fame.*

Logical predicate, *is often purchased by the blood of thousands.*

Grammatical subject, *fame;* this is modified by the noun *warrior's* in the possessive case; *warrior's* is modified by the adjective *the.*

Grammatical predicate, *is purchased;* this is modified by the adverb *often,* and by the adjunct *by the blood; blood* is modified by the adjective *the,* and by the adjunct *of thousands.*

"I was yesterday about sunset walking in the open fields, until the night insensibly fell upon me."

Compound sentence.

The clauses are, *I was yesterday about sunset walking in the open fields,* and, *until the night insensibly fell upon me.*

Independent clause, *I was yesterday,* etc. Dependent clause, *the night,* etc.

The dependent clause is connected to the independent by the adverb *until.*

The subject of the independent clause is *I.*

The logical predicate is, *was yesterday about sunset walking in the open fields.*

Grammatical predicate, *was;* this is modified by the participle *walking,* which is modified by the adverb *yesterday,* and the adjuncts *about sunset,* and *in the open fields; fields* is modified by the adjectives *the* and *open.*

"I at first amused myself with all the richness and variety of colors which appeared in the western parts of heaven."

Compound sentence.

The clauses are, *I at first amused myself with all the richness and variety of colors,* and, *which appeared in the western parts of heaven.*

Independent clause, *I at first,* etc. Dependent clause, *which appeared,* etc.

The dependent clause is connected to the independent by the relative *which*.

The subject of the independent clause is *I*.

Logical predicate, *at first amused myself with all the richness and variety of colors*.

Grammatical predicate, *amused;* this is modified by the objective case *myself*, and by the adjuncts *at first*, and *with all the richness and variety;* the adjunct *of colors* modifies *richness and variety*.

The subject of the dependent clause is *which*.

Logical predicate, *appeared in the western parts of heaven*.

Grammatical subject, *appeared;* this is modified by the adjunct *in the western part; part* is modified by the adjectives *the* and *western*, and by the adjunct *of heaven*.

"In proportion as they faded away and went out, several stars and planets appeared one after another, until the whole firmament was in a glow."

Compound sentence.

The clauses are, *as they faded away and went out, several stars and planets appeared one after another in proportion*, and *until the whole firmament was in a glow*.

Independent clause, *several stars and planets appeared one after another in proportion*.

Dependent clauses, *as they faded away and went out*, which is connected to the independent clause by the conjunctive adverb *as*, and, *until the whole firmament was in a glow*, which is connected to the independent clause by the conjunctive adverb *until*.

The logical subject of the independent clause is *several stars and planets*. Grammatical subject is *stars and planets*. Compound subject. Grammatical subject modified by the adjective *several*.

Logical predicate, *appeared one after another in proportion*. Grammatical predicate, *appeared;* this is modified by *one after another*, and *in proportion*.

The subject of the clause, *as they faded away and went out*, is *they*.

Logical predicate, *faded away and went out*. Grammatical predicates, *faded and went*. Compound predicate. *Faded* is modified by *away*, and *went* by *out*.

PARSING EXERCISES.—RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE I.

Cary translated the works of Dante, the great Italian poet.

Collins the poet admired Fairfax, the translator of Tasso.

See the beautiful flowers, the attendants of spring.

We all admire George Washington, the only military chieftain whose soul was uncorrupted by ambition.

Charles V., emperor of Germany, left his throne and went into retirement.

> And in thy right hand lead with thee
> The mountain nymph, sweet Liberty.—*Milton*.

The sick and weak the healing plant shall aid,
From storms a shelter, and from heat a shade.—*Pope.*

Oh Music, sphere-descended maid,
Friend of Pleasure, Wisdom's aid,
Why, goddess, why, to us denied,
Lay'st thou thy ancient lyre aside?—*Collins.*

This you should engrave upon your heart, rather to suffer wrong than to do wrong.

[*Rem.* 2.] Religion, heavenly religion, soothes our sorrows.

They are the lovely, they in whom unite
Youth's fleeting charms with virtue's lovely light.

The wind, the wandering wind
Of the golden summer eves—
Whence is the thrilling magic
Of its tones among the leaves?—*Hemans.*

How shall I praise thee, Lord of light?
How all thy generous love declare?
Though earth is veiled in shades of night,
Thy heaven is open to my prayer;
That heaven so bright with stars and suns—
That glorious heaven which knows no bound;
Where the full tide of being runs,
And life and beauty glow around.—*Bowring.*

[*Rem.* 3.] He succeeded in dispelling their doubts—an object which he had long kept in view.

He was ever repeating this maxim, "Know thyself."
All men must suffer the common lot, "Dust to dust, ashes to ashes."

She knows, and knows no more, her Bible true—
A truth the brilliant Frenchman never knew.—*Cowper.*

He resolved never to waste a moment of time—a resolution which he never forgot.

Some men employ their health—an ugly trick—
In making [a] known [b] how oft they have been sick.—*Cowper.*

This[c] is a faithful saying, and worthy of all acceptation, that Jesus Christ came into the world to save sinners.

This know also, that in the last days perilous times shall come.

[*Rem.* 5.] At first, a mass of shapeless matter, the earth existed in a state of chaos.

Child of the Sun, refulgent Summer comes!
Queen of flowers, the fair lily blooms.

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[a] Rule x. Rem. 1.

[b] The participle *known* belongs to the clause *how oft they have been sick*, Rule ii., Rem. 1.

[c] The adjective *this* belongs to the understood noun *saying*, and the clause, *that Jesus Christ came into the world to save sinners*, is in apposition with the noun.

RULE II.

The triumphs of truth are the most glorious, because they are bloodless.

Liberal, not lavish, is kind Nature's hand.—*Beattie.*

Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar.—*Shakspeare.*

The loveliest, most variegated flower-garden lay round her; tulips, roses, and lilies, were glittering in the fairest colors; blue and gold-red butterflies were wavering in the blossoms; cages of shining wire hung on the espaliers, with many-colored birds in them, singing beautiful songs; and children in short white frocks, with flowing yellow hair and brilliant eyes, were frolicking about; some playing with lambkins, some feeding the birds, or gathering flowers, and giving them to one another; some again, were eating cherries, grapes, and ruddy apricots. No hut was to be seen; but, instead of it, a large fair house, with a brazen door and lofty statues, stood glancing in the middle of the space.—*Carlyle.*

Bear not along
The clogging burden of a guilty soul.—*Shakspeare.*

[*Rem.* 1.] To learn a little well, is better than to attempt to learn much imperfectly.[a]

Not to relent is beastly, savage, devilish.—*Shakspeare.*

To err is human, to forgive divine.

[*Rem.* 2.] To become learned requires study.

To be great is not to be good.

These are the consequences of being[b] too fond of glory.

Happiness is lost by being[b] too fond of pleasure.

Let fools the studious despise;
There 's nothing lost by being[b] wise.

[*Rem* 3.] Few follow the things themselves, more the names of things, and most the names of their masters.—*Bacon.*

All complain of want of memory, but none of want of judgment.

Each has his pang, but feeble sufferers groan
With brain-born dreams of evil all their own.—*Byron.*

Come, let us leave the vain, the proud,
The ambitious, and the worldly-wise;
Pomp's revels, turbulent and loud,
And pleasure's tempting vanities.—*Bowring.*

Some place the bliss in action, some in ease;
Those call it pleasure, and contentment, these.—*Pope.*

[*Rem.* 4.] Burke wrote a treatise on the sublime and beautiful. Such scenes belong to the terrible, and not to the sublime. He pays great attention to the graceful and the becoming.

His life hath flowed,
From its mysterious urn, a sacred stream[c]
In whose calm depth the beautiful and pure
Alone are mirrored; which, though shapes of ill
May hover round its surface, glides in light,
And takes no shadow from them.—*Tulfourd.*

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[a] Rule xvi., Rem. 3. [b] Rule xiii., Rem. 1, 2. [c] Rule vi.

Land of the West!—green forest-land!
Clime of the fair and the immense!
Favorite of Nature's liberal hand,
And child of her munificence!—*W. D. Gallagher.*

[*Rem.* 5.] Supposing this charge to be false, is his character restored?

Laying aside this objection, there is another still stronger. Admitting this assertion, the point is not proved.

[*Rem.* 14.] Every person sees the faults of his neighbor. Each has part to perform in the drama of life. Every person is bound by the duties of religion. If either of them is sick, the other suffers. Each of you has his faults. Each of us has his faults. Each of them has his faults. Neither of us is innocent. Neither of them is innocent. Every one of you has violated the law. Every man has committed sin, and neglected the performance of his duty. Has either of you seen my book? Neither of us has seen it.

[*Rem.* 16.] The ship came safe to land. Velvet feels smooth. That flower looks beautiful. George seems happy. The arrow sank deep into his breast. She sits silent. The pipe sounds shrill. Redder yet those fires shall glow. Avenging and bright fell the swift sword of Erin. He fell pale in a land unknown. Comala sits forlorn. Among them all he stands conspicuous. Returnest thou safe from the war? Happy has he lived in the bosom of the vale. He walks forth stern and gloomy.

Sweet vale of Avoca! how calm could I rest,
In thy bosom of shade, with the friends I love best!—*T. Moore.*

I climbed the dark brow of the mighty Helvellyn,
Lakes and mountains beneath me gleamed misty and wide.—*Sir W. Scott.*

Thus kindly I scatter
Thy leaves o'er the bed
Where thy mates of the garden
Lie scentless and dead.—*T. Moore.*

RULE III.

Martha had not many leisure hours during any season, and this was with her the busiest time of all the year. Yet as she and the old folks were now to part, she must leave them a few keepsakes, that the sight of the trifles might sometimes recall to their minds her who had shared their poverty.

Those who sow the wind shall reap the whirlwind.

Who is the happy warrior? Who [a] is he
That [b] every man in arms should wish to be?
—It [c] is the generous spirt who, when [d] brought
Among the tasks of real life, hath wrought
Upon the plan that pleased his childish thought;

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[a] Rule vi.

[b] Rule xiii., Rem. 1, and Rule vi., Rem. 5.

[c] Rule iii., Rem. 9.

[d] When [he is] brought. See Rule xvi., Rem. 8.

Whose high endeavors are an inward light
That makes the path before him always bright;
Who, with a natural instinct to discern
What knowledge can perform, is diligent to learn;
Abides by this resolve, and stops not there,
But makes his moral being [a] his prime care.—*Wordsworth.*

The warrior bowed his crested head, and tamed his heart of fire,
And sued the haughty king to free his long imprisoned sire;
"I bring thee here my fortress keys, I bring my captive train,
I pledge thee [b] faith, my liege, my lord!—oh, break my father's chain."—*Hemans.*

[*Rem.* 1.] The best men sometimes commit sin, and they acknowledge it. John has succeeded in becoming familiar with the science—which is a very difficult matter.

I have seen many things, and derive no advantage from it.

These men have labored diligently, and no one thanks them for it.

They are striving to purify the state—which is a useless attempt.

[*Rem.* 2.] Thomas and George have gone [c] to their father's farm; but they will return soon.

That man and his son are [c] waiting for their companions.

The master and the servant, though their conditions in life are very different, are [c] bound by one law.

The book and the pen are [c] ready, if you wish to use them.

Modesty and firmness are [c] not opposed to each other—they may co-exist in the same person.

Mary, Eliza, and Jane, met [c] their mother as they were walking.

[*Rem.* 3.] Every plant and flower proclaims [d] its Maker's praise.

Every mother and daughter should [d] exert herself in this cause.

George, and not Robert, has done [d] this thing.

Each cloak and each hat must [d] be kept in its own place.

That great painter and sculptor had [d] his enemies.

[*Rem.* 4.] A lampoon or a satire does [e] not carry in it robbery or murder. Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which moves merely as it is moved. Neither Thomas nor William performed [e] his part. Either Sarah or Ellen has deceived [e] herself. Neither his virtue nor his learning had [e] its proper influence. Neither his head nor his heart is [e] as it ought to be. Either the author or the printer has subjected [e] himself to prosecution. James or John will favor us [e] with his company.

[*Rem.* 5.] James and I have performed [f] our duty. Thou, and the gardener, and the huntsman, must [f] share the blame of this business amongst you. You and I are [f] attentive to our studies. You and John have lost [f] your books. Mary and I have been [f] busy in our garden. You and Arthur have spent [f] your time in idleness.

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[a] Rule ix., Rem. 7.
[b] Rule ix., Rem. 8.
[c] Rule v., Rem. 1.
[d] Rule v., Rem. 2.
[e] Rule v., Rem. 3.
[f] Rule v., Rem. 1.

[*Rem.* 6.] Send the multitude away that they may go and buy themselves [a] bread. The council were not unanimous, and they separated without coming [b] to a decision. The congregation discussed the resolutions which had been presented to them. The clergy began to withdraw themselves from the temporal courts.

[*Rem.* 7.] By the siren song of pleasure has many a youth been enticed from the path of duty; too few of them, alas! have ever returned.

In Hawick twinkled many a light;
Behind him soon they set in night.—*Sir W. Scott.*

Many a man has sold his birthright for a mess of pottage.

Many a female has done the greatest service to mankind by her silent influence.

[*Rem.* 8.] He caught a deer and confined it in an enclosure.

The tiger was so furious that nothing could withstand its rage.

A bird has made its nest on the elm.

The mouse has been driven from its hole.

To meet [c] the husbandman early abroad,
Hasted the deer, and waved its woody head.—*Pollok.*

[*Rem.* 9.]

O, it is excellent
To have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous
To use it like a giant.—*Shakspeare.*

O unblest falsehood! Mother of all evil!
Thou misery-making demon, it is thou
That sink'st us in perdition. Simple truth,
Sustainer of the world, had saved [d] us all.—*Coleridge.*

Though it is cloudy to-day, it will be clear to-morrow. It was very cold yesterday, though it had been very warm before.

'Twas night when to those towers they came.
'Tis o'er—what men could do, we've done.
'Tis moonlight over Oman's sea.

There was a time when meadow, grove, and stream,
The earth and every common sight,
To me did seem
Apparelled in celestial light,
The glory [e] and the freshness of a dream.
It is not now as it hath been [f] of yore;
Turn wheresoe'er I may,[g]
By night or day,
The things which I have seen I now can see no more.—*Wordsworth.*

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[a] Rule ix., Rem. 8.

[b] Rule x., Rem. 1.
Rule xii., Rem. 8.

[d] See "Remarks on the Tenses in the different Moods," 6.

[c] Rule i.

[f] The poet here uses the present perfect tense where the past would have been proper.

[g] [Let me] turn wheresoever I may [turn.]

It is Thomas who is coming.

It was Socrates who endeavored to reform Alcibiades.

[*Rem.* 10.] What art thou, Freedom? Who is this that comes from Bozrah? Who is the happy man?

He was a man whom no threats ever drove from the path that duty pointed out.

Whom did you see at the house of your friend? I saw a friend whom I had not seen for years.

What is this that I see before me? What can I say, and whom shall I entreat? Who is his friend?[a]

[*Rem.* 11.] An idle reason lessens the weight of the good ones you gave before.

Few and short were the prayers we said,
And we spoke not a word of sorrow;
But we steadfastly gazed on the face of the dead
As we bitterly thought on the morrow.—*Wolfe.*

On the sands of life
Sorrow treads heavily, and leaves a print
Time cannot wash away; while Joy trips by
With steps so light and soft, that the next wave
Wears his faint footfalls out.

How beautiful on all the hills
The crimson light is shed!
'Tis like the peace the Christian gives
To mourners round his bed.

[*Rem.* 18.]

A grasshopper gay
Sang the summer away,
And found herself poor
By the winter's first roar.—*Wright.*

An ass, with relics for his load,
Supposed the worship on the road
Meant for himself alone,
And took on lofty airs,
Receiving as his[b] own
The incense and the prayers.—*Wright.*

Sweet is the breath of morn, her rising sweet,
With charm of earliest bird; pleasant the sun
When first on this delightful land he spreads
His orient beams, on herb, tree, fruit, and flower
Glistening with dew.—*Milton.*

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[a] By this we may intend to ask whether he has a friend, or who the person is whom we consider his friend. "Who is his friend?—Can any one be a friend of such a man?" "Who is his friend? Tell me if you know his name?" In the first case, *who* is the subject; in the second, *friend* is.

[b] Rule viii., Rem. 1.

'Tis the last rose of summer
Left blooming alone;
All her lovely companions
Are faded and gone;
No flower of her kindred,
No rose-bud is nigh,
To reflect [a] back her blushes
Or give sigh for sigh.—*T. Moore.*

[*Rem.* 16.] He lived at the court of Queen Elizabeth—which is another name for prudence.

These writers flourished in the reign of Charles II.—which is another name for licentiousness.

[*Rem.* 17.] We admit that he was a good general, which is all that his friends ought to claim for him.

She is a good Christian, which is all that she wishes to be.

[*Rem.* 24.] Though he was always engaged in doing good to his fellow-men, this great man had his enemies.

Here rests his head upon the lap of earth
A youth to fortune and to fame unknown.—*Gray.*

[*Rem.* 26.] They that are whole need not a physician, but they that are sick.

They that never pass their brick-wall bounds
To range the fields, and treat their lungs with air,
Yet feel the burning instinct.—*Cowper.*

They that on glorious ancestors enlarge
Produce their debt instead of their discharge.—*Young.*

Those who are placed among the lower ranks of men have little opportunity of exerting any other virtues besides those of patience, resignation, industry, and integrity.—*Hume.*

Good hopes may be entertained of those whose minds have this liberal and elegant turn.—*Blair.*

RULE IV.

Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay;
Princes and lords may flourish or may fade,
A breath can make them, as a breath has made;
But a bold peasantry, their country's pride,
When once destroyed, can never be supplied.—*Goldsmith.*

He that hath the steerage of my course, direct [b] my sail.—*Shakspeare.*

All true glory rests,
All praise of safety, and all happiness,
Upon the moral law. Egyptian Thebes,
Tyre by the margin of the sounding waves,
Palmyra central in the desert, fell!
And the arts died by which they had been raised.—*Wordsworth.*

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[a] Rule xii., Rem. 8.

[b] See "Number and Person," Remark 4, in the Etymology of Verbs.

[*Rem.* 1.] To obey the commands of their Creator is required of all men.
To be entirely devoted to pleasure is unworthy of rational beings.
How much he has done for you, is not considered.
In what character he was admitted, is unknown.
That he should be so obstinate is astonishing.
When he will come is hidden from us.

Life is real, life is earnest,
And the grave is not its goal;
"Dust thou art, to dust returnest,"
Was not spoken of the soul.—*Longfellow.*

"I can't" never did anything; "I will try" has done wonders.

But strew his ashes to the wind
Whose sword or voice has served mankind;
And is he dead whose glorious mind
Lifts thine on high?
To live in hearts we leave behind
Is not to die.—*Campbell.*

[*Rem.* 3.]

Happy the man whose wish and care
A few paternal acres bound.—*Pope.*

What is geography? The description of the surface of the earth.
Where is Harry Blount? Fitz-Eustace where?
Who comes riding so furiously? John Graham.
Who is willing to go with me?
Wisdom is better than jewels.
He can walk as rapidly as you.
Life passes as rapidly as a dream.
A good name is better than riches.

When pain and anguish wring the brow,
A ministering angel thou.—*Sir W. Scott.*

What constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlement or labored mound,
Thick wall or moated gate;
Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.—*Sir W. Jones.*

What stronger breastplate than a heart untainted?
Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just;
And he but naked, though locked up in steel,
Whose conscience with injustice is corrupted.—*Shakspeare.*

[*Rem.* 4.] Hearest thou the roaring of the mighty cataract?
Kind and gentle is my Mary.

Come you in peace here, or come you in war?
How calm, how beautiful come on
The stilly hours when storms are gone.—*T. Moore.*

Gives not the hawthorn-bush a sweeter shade
To shepherds looking on their silly sheep,
Than doth a rich embroidered canopy
To kings that fear their subjects' treachery.—*Shakespeare.*

[*Rem.* 5.] The moon, which rose that night at an early hour, gave them light.

William's books, which he prizes above money, are his constant companions.

The man who looks upon his fellow men with suspicion, who sees around him nothing but enemies, must be miserable.

That chastity of honor, which felt a stain like a wound, which inspired courage while it mitigated ferocity, which ennobled whatever it touched, and under which vice itself lost half its evil by losing all its grossness, is gone.

Let conquerors boast
Their fields of fame, he who in virtue arms
A young, warm spirit against beauty's charms,
Who feels her brightness, yet defies her thrall,
Is the best, bravest conqueror of them all.—*T. Moore.*

RULE V.

The earth was made so various that the mind
Of desultory man, studious of change
And pleased with novelty, might be indulged.—*Cowper.*

Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger,
Comes dancing from the east, and leads with her
The flowery May, who from her green lap throws
The yellow cowslip and the pale primrose.—*Milton.*

Now stir the fire, and close the shutters fast,
Let fall the curtains, wheel the sofa round.—*Cowper.*

Thou unrelenting Past!
Strong are the barriers round thy dark domain,
And fetters sure and fast
Hold all that enter thy unbreathing reign.—*Bryant.*

[*Rem.* 1.] To be contents his natural desire.

That he should resign all his power without a murmur is incredible.

To be exposed to the shafts of envy is the lot of the best men.

That the whole crew should be so foolish is surprising.

[*Rem.* 2, (1).] Time and tide wait for no man. Industry and temperance are necessary to happiness. The horse and horseman are a happy pair. Young Celadon and his Amelia were a matchless pair. Time and labor overcome the greatest obstacles. John, James, and William have read the book.

But the age of chivalry is gone. That[a] of sophisters, economists, and calculators has succeeded; and the glory of Europe is extinguished for ever.

[a] See Note, p. 40.

Never, never more shall we behold that generous loyalty to rank and sex, that proud submission, that dignified obedience, that subordination of the heart, which kept alive, even in servitude itself, the spirit of an exalted freedom. The unbought grace of life, the cheap defence of nations, the nurse of manly sentiment and heroic enterprise, is gone.—*Burke.*

[*Rem.* 2, (2).] The book, and not the author, is admired. Perseverance, and not genius, has raised him to this station. The father, and the daughter also, was the object of his bitter hatred.

Each boy and girl takes the place assigned. Every lamp and candle was lighted. No book and no pamphlet was printed without license.

[*Rem.* 2, (3).] The rain or the wind has destroyed the flowers. Either John or James is deceived. Neither the book nor the author has any reputation. Neither money nor influence was wanting. Neither learning, nor genius, nor industry, nor the assistance of friends, is sufficient without the divine blessing.

[*Rem.* 2, (4).] A part of the sailors load the tables with food. This happy pair devote themselves to the instruction of their children. The majority were averse to the measure. The crowd was so great that the queen could scarcely pass through it. The assembly consists of the most respectable citizens. The shoal of herrings was immense.

[*Rem.* 2, (5).] Many a book has been very popular without possessing much merit. Many a monument was erected to his memory. Many a sinner has, by this means, been turned from the error of his ways.

[*Rem.* 4, Note.]

Who never fasts, no banquet e'er enjoys.
Who never toils or watches, never sleeps.

Who wickedly is wise, or madly brave,
Is but the [a] more a fool, the [a] more a knave.—*Pope.*

Who noble ends by noble means obtains,
Or failing, smiles in exile or in chains,
Like good Aurelius let him reign, or bleed
Like Socrates, that man [b] is great indeed.—*Pope.*

I dare do all that may become a man;
Who dares do more, is none.—*Shakspeare.*

There are, who to my person pay their court.—*Pope.*

Who lives to nature, rarely can be poor;
Who lives to fancy, never can be rich.

[*Rem.* 5.] A large number of distinguished foreigners was present. A judicious arrangement of studies facilitates improvement. The house, with

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[a] See "Words belonging to Different Classes," p. 124.

[b] The poet begins this sentence "Who noble ends," etc., as he has done the preceding "Who wickedly is wise," etc., but, when he comes to the verb (*is*) of which the omitted antecedent is the subject, he expresses the noun, *man*. This may be considered a *repetition* of the antecedent. When a great many words come between the subject and the verb, the subject is often repeated; and sometimes expressed in other words.

all the books, was entirely consumed. The captain, in connection with the other officers, has published a statement of the matter.

RULE VI.

Patience is a bitter seed, but it yields rich fruit.

No place is sacred, not the church is free,
Even Sunday shines no Sabbath-day to me.—*Pope.*

A mother is a mother still,
The holiest thing alive.—*Coleridge.*

Oh, remember, life can be
No charm for him who lives not free.—*T. Moore.*

The child is father of the man.—*Wordsworth.*

The amphibious thing now trips a lady, and now struts a lord.

Procrastination is the thief of time.

Where are the flowers, the fair young flowers, that lately sprung and stood,
In brighter light and softer airs, a beauteous sisterhood?—*Bryant.*

All nature is but art unknown to thee;
All chance, direction which thou canst not see;
All discord, harmony not understood;
All partial evil, universal good.—*Pope.*

Rome! Rome! thou art no more
As thou hast been!
On thy seven hills of yore
Thou sat'st a queen.—*Hemans.*

Moderate lamentation is the right of the dead, excessive grief the enemy to the living.—*Shakspeare.*

[*Rem.* 1.] What is botany? The science of plants. Who is that man? His name is William Ray. What is his character? It is that of an excellent man. Who was George Washington? The commander of the American armies. A happy man is he who is his own friend.

Nature is only a name for an effect whose cause is God.

What is beauty? Not the show
Of shapely limbs and features! No!
'Tis the stainless soul within
That outshines the fairest skin.

[*Rem.* 2.] Tell me who he is. Dust thou art, and unto dust shalt thou return. The boy it was that gained the day. A beautiful day it was when they commenced their journey. I know the benevolent lady well, and an angel she is.

Night it must be ere Friedland's star will beam.
Of thousands, thou both sepulchre and pall,
Old ocean, art!—*R. H. Dana.*

[*Rem.* 3.] Is he the man whose name was the terror of the nations? I heard a voice, or was it the breeze of my hills? Is it the huntress of Ard-

ven, the white-handed daughter of Ardven? Are these the rocks of Nathos?—this the roar of his mountain streams? Has he become a stranger in his own land?

[*Rem.* 5.] Are you willing to become a mere machine? To become a scholar requires application. To be called a philosopher was the object of all his wishes. He had the misfortune to be born a genius. He resigned all these prospects of usefulness to become an attendant upon the court. He was very anxious to be chosen leader. To affect to be a lord in one's closet, would be a most romantic madness.

For three long years I bowed my pride,
A horse-boy in his train to ride;
And well my folly's meed he gave,
Who forfeited, to be his slave,
All here, and all beyond the grave.—*Sir W. Scott.*

RULE VII.

Hearts agreeing, heads may differ.

The foe! they come, they come!

Holy and fervent love! had earth but rest
For thee and thine, this world were all too fair.—*Hemans.*

The jarring states, obsequious now,
View the patriot's hand on high,
Thunder gathering on his brow,
Lightning flashing from his eye.

Roll on, thou dark and deep blue ocean, roll!

The sky is changed!—and such a change! O night,
And storm, and darkness, ye are wondrous strong!—*Byron.*

Conscience, it makes a man a coward.—*Shakspeare.*

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?—*Cowper.*

Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne,
In rayless majesty now stretches forth
Her leaden scepter o'er a slumbering world.
Silence how deep, and darkness how profound!—*Young.*

[*Rem.* 2.] The war finished, and order restored, the country had time to recover from its prostration.

The passions under control, a man's greatest enemies are subdued.

Me howling blasts drive devious, tempest-tossed,
Sails ripped, seams opening wide, and compass lost.—*Cowper.*

Fire in each eye, and papers in each hand,
They rave, recite, and madden round the land.—*Pope.*

It was a lovely sight to see
The lady Christabel, when she
Was praying at the old oak tree;

Amid the jagged shadows
Of massy leafless boughs,
Kneeling in the moonlight,
To make her gentle vows;
Her slender palms together pressed,
Heaving sometimes on her breast;
Her face resigned to bliss or bale—
Her face, O call it fair, not pale!
And both blue eyes more bright than clear,
Each about to have a tear.—*Coleridge.*

Thus done the tales, to bed they creep,
By whispering winds soon lulled asleep.—*Milton.*

Far in a wild, unknown to public view,
From youth to age a reverend hermit grew;
The moss his bed, the cave his humble cell,
His food the fruits, his drink the crystal well;
Remote from men, with God he passed his days,
Prayer all his business, all his pleasure praise.—*Parnell.*

RULE VIII.

The mothers of our forest-land!
On old Kentucky's soil,
How shared they with each dauntless hand
War's tempest and life's toil.—*W. D. Gallagher.*

The soul's dark cottage, battered and decayed,
Lets in new light through chinks that Time has made.—*Waller.*

At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk was dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power.
In dreams, through camp and court, he bore
The trophies of a conqueror;
In dreams his song of triumph heard;
Then wore his monarch's signet ring;
Then pressed that monarch's throne—a king;
As wild his thoughts, and gay of wing,
As Eden's garden bird.—*Halleck.*

[*Rem.* 1.] You have taken my book, and left William's. That flower is Mary's. That plant is yours. John is at his cousin's. These books are ours. I met with a servant of the governor's. This pen is one of James's. While he was crossing a field of his, he met his son. Here is a boy of yours. That ball is hers.

Who steals my purse, steals trash; 'tis something, nothing;
'Twas mine, 'tis his, and has been slave to thousands.—*Shakspeare.*

The Light himself shall shine
Revealed, and God's eternal day be thine.—*Pope.*

Thou art Freedom's now, and Fame's,
One of the few, the immortal names,
That were not born to die.—*Halleck.*

[*Rem.* 5.] I read General Jackson's letter. They remember Judge Owen's charge. You saw me in Colonel Thomson's field. This was done according to President Quincy's advice. The Earl of Orford's son was dangerously ill. The Duke of Ormond's daughter was married.

[*Rem.* 10.] Upon the landlord's leaving the room, I could not avoid expressing my concern for the stranger.—*Goldsmith.*

My sensations were too violent to permit my attempting her rescue.—*Goldsmith.*

Upon his advancing towards me with a whisper, I expected to hear some secret piece of news.—*Addison.*

You will have heard of Marshal Belleisle's being made a prisoner at Hanover.—*Horace Walpole.*

A courier arrived from Madrid with an account of his Catholic Majesty's having agreed to the neutrality.—*Hume.*

He thought proper to obviate a reproach which he foresaw the opposition would throw upon him, from the circumstance of his having, upon a former occasion, heartily concurred in a motion for an address.—*Smollett.*

The emperor Charles had very early in the beginning of his reign found the difficulty of governing such distant dominions; and he had made his brother Ferdinand be elected king of the Romans; with a view to his inheriting the imperial dignity as well as his German dominions.—*Hume.*

One thing is certain, that without possessing the virtuous affections in a strong degree, no man can attain eminence in the sublime parts of eloquence. He must feel what a good man feels, if he expects greatly to move or interest mankind. They are the ardent sentiments of honor, virtue, magnanimity, and public spirit, that only can kindle the fire of genius, and call up into the mind those high ideas, which attract the admiration of ages; and if this spirit be necessary to produce the most distinguished efforts of eloquence, it must be necessary also to our [a] relishing them with proper taste and feeling. —*Blair.*

RULE IX.

A friend exaggerates a man's virtues; an enemy his crimes.

The wise man is happy when he gains his own approbation; the fool when he gains that of others.

He who tells a lie is not sensible how great a task he undertakes; for he must be forced to invent twenty more to maintain one.

Among the base, merit begets envy; among the noble, emulation.

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[a] Mr. Goold Brown asserts that this construction is "questionable English." A few more examples from standard writers are here presented. The number might be increased to any extent. "*His* clearly *predicting* the future revelation of this doctrine."—*Dr. Isaac Barrow.* "That point of *your seeming* to be fallen out with God."—*Sir William Temple.* "Upon the *fellow's telling* him he would warrant it."—*Addison.* "*Our viewing* objects as through the mists of distance and antiquity."—*Blair.* "*Whose mauling* them about their heads hath dulled those who in quickness exceeded their master."—*Fuller.* "I do not so much complain of *your acquainting* me with them."—*Doddridge.*

Close on the hounds the hunter came,
To cheer [a] them on the vanished game;
But, stumbling in the rugged dell,
The gallant horse exhausted fell.
The impatient rider strove in vain
To rouse him with the spur and rein,
For the good steed, his labors o'er,
Stretched his stiff limbs to rise no more.—*Sir W. Scott.*

O Thou who dry'st the mourner's tear,
How dark this world would be,
If, when deceived and wounded here,
We could not fly to Thee.
The friends who in our sunshine live,
When winter comes, are flown; [b]
And he who has but tears to give,
Must weep those tears alone.
But thou wilt heal the broken heart,
Which, like the plants [c] that throw
Their fragrance from the wounded part,
Breathes sweetness out of woe.

When joy no longer soothes [d] or cheers,
And even the hope that threw
A moment's sparkle o'er our tears,
Is dimmed and vanished [e] too,
O who would bear life's stormy doom,
Did not thy wing of love
Come, brightly wafting through the gloom—
Our peace-branch from above?
Then sorrow, touched by Thee, grows bright
With more than rapture's ray;
As darkness shows us worlds of light
We never saw by day.—*T. Moore.*

[*Rem.* 1.] George desires to learn. James said that he would go. Eliza loves to study. I know how you have struggled with misfortune. John has discovered whose house that is. I cannot tell who you are. You wish that she would stay. "You will soon be well," said the physician. I have never learned how you were employed.

Together up the pass they sped;
"What of the foeman?" Norman said.

I cannot see what flowers are at my feet.

"Live while you live," the epicure would say,
"And seize the pleasures of the present day."
"Live while you live," the sacred preacher cries,
"And give to God each moment as it flies."
Lord, in my views let both united be;
I live in pleasure when I live to thee.—*Doddridge.*

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[a] Rule xii., Rem. 8.
[b] See "Remark," p. 92.
[c] Rule x., Rem. 8.
[d] Rule ix., Rem. 8.
[e] See "Remark," p. 92.

[*Rem.* 2.] That man I have never seen before. Him I know, but who art thou? Him who has offended you should punish, not me who am innocent. Whom have you seen? The lady whom we loved so much has gone. What book did you buy? The book that I bought is interesting. What will our mother say? The bird that we saw sitting among the flowers is a humming bird.

Thou sparkling bowl! thou sparkling bowl!
Though lips of bards thy brim[a] may press,
And eyes of beauty o'er thee roll,
And song and dance thy power[a] confess,
I will not touch thee; for there clings
A scorpion to thy side, that stings.—*Pierpont.*

Chief, sachem, sage, bards, heroes, seers,[a]
That live in story and in song,
Time, for the last two hundred years,
Has raised, and shown, and swept along.—*Pierpont.*

Fierce, hardy, proud, in conscious freedom bold,
Those stormy seats[a] the warrior Druses hold;
From Norman blood their lofty line they trace,
Their lion-courage proves their generous race.—*Heber.*

[*Rem.* 3.] Jonathan will read, and Anne will write. The lady sings all day. He assists whoever has need of his assistance. The books we saw on the shelf belong to William. While the farmer ploughs, the horse eats. He strove to slander whom he led to sin. He destroyeth whomsoever he feareth. Whom you love he hateth. Whomsoever you love he hateth. I got what I demanded. I got whatever I demanded. What you love he hates. Spirits hear what spirits tell. Time destroys what time has made. Saw ye not whom the reeking sabre smote?

O eloquent, just, and mighty Death! whom none could advise, thou hast persuaded what none hath dared, thou hast done; and whom all the world hath flattered, thou only hast cast out of the world and despised.[b]—*Sir Walter Raleigh.*

Turn to-night, and freely share
Whate'er my cell bestows.

With equal minds what happens let us bear,
Nor joy nor grieve too much for things beyond our care.

'Twas one of those ambrosial eves
A day of storms so often leaves.—*T. Moore.*

Know'st thou the land where the cypress and myrtle
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime;
Where the rage of the vulture, the love of the turtle
Now melt into sorrow, now madden to crime?—*Byron.*

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[a] Here the object, though a noun, is placed before the verb. The arrangement of the sentence is such that no mistake can be made.

[b] See "Antecedent Omitted," p. 50. It will be seen that in this quotation from Sir Walter Raleigh, *whom* and *what* are used in exactly the same manner. If *what* is equivalent to *the thing which*, *whom* is equivalent to *the person whom*.

Bozzaris! with the storied brave
Greece nurtured in her glory's time,
Rest thee—there is no prouder grave
Even in her own proud clime.—*Halleck.*

[*Rem.* 9.] He lived a life of virtue. Who is willing to die the drunkard's death? Let us run the race that is set before us. He sleeps the sleep of death. She laughs the idiot's laugh. She smiles on him a heavenly smile that brightens all his heart.

In Islington there was a man
Of whom the world might say,
That still a godly race he ran,
Whene'er he went to pray.—*Goldsmith.*

Amid them [a] stood the tree of life
High eminent, blooming ambrosial fruit
Of vegetable gold.—*Milton.*

[*Rem.* 7.] The priest anointed him king of Israel. The soldiers proclaimed Otho emperor. They appointed Osman superintendent of the gardens. Some one calls a blush the color of virtue. He made the welfare of mankind the end of all his actions. I consider you my friend. John has appointed you his agent. Make God's law the rule of your life. The Americans elected George Washington president. Charles appointed Philip his successor. Ye have made our home a desolation. God created you men, and you have made yourselves beasts.

Spake full well in language quaint and olden,
One who dwelleth by the castled Rhine,
When he called the flowers, so blue and golden,
Stars, that in earth's firmament do shine.—*Longfellow.*

Winter, armed with terrors here unknown,
Sits absolute on his unshaken throne.
Piles up his stores amidst the frozen waste,
And bids the mountains he has built stand [b] fast;
Beckons the legions of his storms away
From happier scenes to make [c] your lands a prey;
Proclaims the soil a conquest he has won,
And scorns to share it with the distant sun.—*Cowper.*

[*Rem.* 8.] Forgive us our trespasses. Give us this day our daily bread. I give you dominion over the beasts of the field. John showed me the beautiful picture. Tell me a tale of the olden time. Heaven send you the choicest blessings. Who will show us any good? I cannot deny you any thing. The governor refused us his protection. John taught his brother arithmetic. I will buy you a book. This pen cost me five dollars.

"Paint me as I am," said Oliver Cromwell to young Lely; "if you leave out the scars and wrinkles, I will not pay you a shilling."

Brightest and best of the sons of the morning!
Dawn on our darkness, and lend us thine aid.—*Heber.*

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[a] That is, the trees. [b] Rule xii., Rem. 7. [c] Rule xii., Rem. 8.

'Tis liberty alone that gives the flower
Of fleeting life its lustre and perfume;
And we are weeds without it.—*Cowper.*

RULE X.

They are flown,
Beautiful fictions of our fathers, woven
In Superstition's web when Time was young,
And fondly loved and cherished; they are flown
Before the wand of Science! Hills and vales,
Mountains and moors of Devon, ye have lost
The enchantments, the delights, the visions all,
The elfin visions that so blessed the sight
In the old days romantic. Nought is heard
Now in the leafy world but earthly strains—
Voices, yet sweet, of breeze, and bird, and brook,
And waterfall; the day is silent else,
And night is strangely mute! the hymnings high—
The immortal music men of ancient times
Heard ravished oft, are flown![a] O ye have lost,
Mountains, and moors, and meads, the radiant throngs
That dwelt in your green solitudes, and filled
The air, the fields, with beauty and with joy
Intense; with a rich mystery that awed
The mind, and flung around a thousand hearths
Divinest tales, that through the enchanted year
Found passionate listeners!
The very streams
Brightened with visitings of these so sweet
Ethereal creatures! They were seen to rise
From the charmed waters, which still brighter grew
As the pomp passed the land, until the eye
Scarce bore the unearthly glory. Where they trod,
Young flowers, but not of this world's growth, arose,
And fragrance, as of amaranthine bowers,
Floated upon the breeze.—*N. T. Carrington.*

The swallow, privileg'd above the rest
Of all the birds as man's familiar guest,
Pursues the sun in summer, brisk and bold,
But wisely shuns the persecuting cold;
Is well to chancels and to chimneys known,
Though 'tis not thought she feeds on smoke alone.
From hence she has been held of heavenly line,
Endued with particles of soul divine;
This merry chorister had long possessed
Her summer seat, and feathered well her nest,
Till frowning skies began to change their cheer,
And time turned up the wrong side of the year;
And shedding trees began the ground to strow,
With yellow leaves, and bitter blasts to blow;

[a] See "Remark," p. 92.

Such auguries of winter thence she drew,
Which by instinct or prophecy she knew;
When prudence warn'd her to remove betimes,
And seek a better heaven and warmer climes.
Her sons were summon'd on a steeple's height,
And call'd in common council, vote a flight.
The day was nam'd, the next that should be fair;
All to the general rendezvous repair;
They try their fluttering wings, and trust themselves in air.
Who but the swallow now triumphs alone?
The canopy of heaven is all her own:
Her youthful offspring to their haunts repair,
And glide along in glades, and swim in air,
And dip for insects in the purling springs,
And stoop on rivers to refresh their wings.—*Dryden.*

[*Rem.* 9.] George performed the act without having been requested. By so doing he gained the good will of his former enemy. The bars did not prevent the prisoner from escaping. Thomas is employed in cutting wood.

One of the greatest arts of escaping superfluous uneasiness, is to free our minds from the habit of comparing our condition with that of others on whom the blessings of life are more bountifully bestowed, or with imaginary states of delight and security, perhaps unattainable by mortals.—*Johnson.*

Let us read with method, and propose to ourselves an end to which all our studies may point. Through neglect of this rule, gross ignorance often disgraces great readers; who, by skipping hastily and irregularly from one subject to another, render themselves incapable of combining their ideas. So many detached parcels of knowledge cannot form a whole. This inconstancy weakens the energies of the mind, creates in it a dislike to application, and even robs it of the advantages of natural good sense. Yet let us avoid the contrary extreme, and respect method without rendering ourselves its slaves. —*Gibbon.*

I pity bashful men, who feel the pain
Of fancied scorn and undeserved disdain,
And bear the marks upon a blushing face
Of needless shame and self-imposed disgrace.
Our sensibilities are so acute,
The fear of being silent makes us mute.—*Cowper.*

[*Rem.* 2.] John is about to speak. The country is about to be ruined. Lucinda is about to sleep. The house was about to be burned. The time was about to expire when William entered.

[*Rem.* 3.] He entered at once upon the performance of his duties. This state of uncertainty cannot last for ever. This blessing came from above.

Life went a-maying[a]
With Nature, Hope, and Poesy
When I was young.
When I was young? Ah, woful when:
Ah for the change 'twixt now and then!—*Coleridge.*

[a] This is the present participle of *to may*; *a* is a corruption of the preposition *on*, but *a-may-ing* is now to be parsed simply as *maying*. Alive, asleep, etc., have the same origin.

Our birth is but a sleep and a forgetting,
The soul that rises with us, our life's star,
Hath had elsewhere its setting,
And cometh from afar;
Not in entire forgetfulness,
And not in utter nakedness,
But trailing clouds of glory do we come
From God, who is our home.—*Wordsworth.*

This gentleman came from beyond the sea. The weasel ran from under the bridge. A voice came from within the tower.

[*Rem.* 4.] His decision will depend very much on who makes the application. A controversy has arisen about how it was done.

Horror and doubt distract
His troubled thoughts, and from the bottom stir
The hell within him; for within him hell
He brings, and round about him, and from hell
One step[a] no more than from himself can fly
By change of place. Now conscience wakes despair
That slumbered, wakes the bitter memory
Of what he was, what is, and what must be.—*Milton.*

[*Rem.* 5.] I will give this book to whoever wants it. He devotes himself entirely to whatever interests him. You furnished him with what he desired. John is fond of whatever you like. This paper belongs to whoever owns the book. I am much pleased with what he has done. William inferred this from what you said.

[*Rem.* 6.]

From peak to peak, the rattling clouds among,
Leaps the live thunder.—*Byron.*

No prophet-bards, the glittering courts among,
Wake the full lyre, and swell the tide of song.—*Heber.*

Come, walk with me the jungle through—
If yonder hunter told us true,[b]
Far off, in desert dank and rude,
The tiger holds its solitude.—*Heber.*

They sat in silent watchfulness,
The sacred cypress tree about,
And from the wrinkled brows of age
Their failing eyes looked out.—*Whittier.*

The cock with lively din
Scatters the rear of darkness thin,
And to the stack or the barn-door
Stoutly struts his dames before.—*Milton.*

[*Rem.* 7.] George went home three days ago, having remained here three months.

Two days, as many nights he slept,
Alone, unnoticed, and unwept.

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[a] Rule x., Rem. 7. [b] Rule ii., Rem. 8.

Mean while [a] the Son of God, who yet some days
Lodged in Bethabara where John baptized,
Musing and much revolving [b] in his breast,
How best the mighty work he might begin
Of Saviour to mankind, and which way first
Publish his god-like office now mature,
One day forth walked alone, the Spirit leading,
And his deep thoughts the better to converse [c]
With solitude, till far from track of men,
Thought following thought, and step by step [d] led on,
He entered now the bordering desert wild.—*Milton.*

Launch thy bark, Mariner!
Christian, God speed [e] thee!
Let loose the rudder bands,
Good angels lead [e] thee!
Set thy sail warily,
Tempests will come;
Steer thy course steadily,
Christian, steer home.—*Mrs. Southey.*

Nine times [f] the space [g] that measures day and night
To mortal men, he with his horrid crew
Lay vanquished, rolling in the fiery gulf,
Confounded though immortal.—*Milton.*

[*Rem.* 8.] Soldiers in peace are like chimneys in summer.

This book is worth its weight in gold. The work is well worth the price that is demanded for it.

The good man is now near the time of his departure.

Near yonder copse, where once the garden smiled,
The village preacher's modest mansion rose.—*Goldsmith.*

Life, like a dome of many-colored glass,
Stains the white radiance of eternity.—*Shelley.*

Art is long, and time is fleeting,
And our hearts, though stout and brave,
Still, like muffled drums, are beating
Funeral marches to the grave.—*Longfellow.*

A better prize
There is for man, a glory of this world
Well worth the labor of the blessed, won
By arduous deeds of righteousness, that bring
Solace or wisdom, or the deathless boon
Of holy freedom to his fellow men,
And praise to the Almighty.—*Herbert.*

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[a] ***While*** **is here a noun.** [b] **Rule ix., Rem. 1, and Rule xiii.**

[c] **Rule xii., Rem. 8.**

[d] **When two nouns, connected by a preposition, serve to denote the manner of the action or state distributively, the first is usually put in the objective without a preposition; as, "The hounds tore him *limb from limb*;" "The money was distributed among them *man by man*."**

[e] **See Remark 4, p. 77.** [f] **Degree of difference.** [g] **Time.**

RULE XI.

The crafty person is the last man that finds himself to be found out.—*Tillotson.*

He did what he believed to be wrong. He took a course which the event showed to have been taken too hastily.

A wise man will make haste to forgive, because he knows the true value of time, and will not suffer it to pass away in unnecessary pain.—*Johnson.*

Clarendon allows his demeanor through the whole proceeding to have been such, that even those who watched for an occasion against the defender of the people, were compelled to acknowledge themselves[a] unable to find any fault in him.—*T. B. Macaulay.*

That German intellect has been fairly appreciated among us, we believe to be mainly owing to Carlyle's persevering efforts.[b]

That he was the author of the work, we believe to have been the opinion of all his friends.

Zeal for what he regarded as truth, undaunted intrepidity to maintain his own system, abilities, both natural and acquired, to defend his principles, and unwearied industry in propagating them, are virtues which shine so conspicuously in every part of his behavior, that even his enemies must allow him to have possessed them in an eminent degree.—*Robertson.*

One word is too often profaned
For[c] me to profane it;
One feeling too falsely disdain'd
For me to disdain it.
One hope is too like despair
For prudence to smother,
And pity from thee is more dear
Than that[d] from another.—*Shelley.*

Retire[e] we to our chamber;
A little water clears us of this deed—
How easy is it then? Your constancy
Hath left you unattended. Hark, more knocking![f]
Get on your night gown, lest occasion call us,
And show us to be watchers.—*Shakspeare.*

RULE XII.

We are as prone to make a torment of our fears, as[g] to luxuriate in our hopes of good.—*Hazlitt.*

At every trifle scorn to take offence;
That always shows great pride or little sense.—*Pope.*

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[a] Rule xii., Rem. 8.

[b] The *clause*, "That German intellect has been fairly appreciated among us," is the subject of the infinitive mood *to be.*

[c] The preposition *for* shows the relation between *too often* and *me to profane it.*

[d] See note on *that*, p. 40.

[e] See Rem. 4, p. 77. [f] Rule vii. [g] Rule xvi., Rem. 8.

Pope was not content to satisfy; he desired to excel, and therefore always endeavored to do his best.—*Johnson.*

Those who are thus adorned with the gifts of nature, are apt to show their parts with too much ostentation. I would therefore advise all the professors of this art, never to tell stories but as they seem to grow out of the subject-matter of the conversation, or as they serve to illustrate or enliven it.—*Addison.*

But when a poet, or when one like me,
Happy to rove among poetic flowers,
Though poor in skill to rear them, lights at last
On some fair theme, some theme divinely fair,
Such is the impulse and the spur he feels,
To give it praise proportioned to its worth,
That not to attempt[a] it, arduous as he deems
The labor, were[b] a task more arduous still.—*Cowper.*

[*Rem.* 1.]

Of man's miraculous mistakes this bears
The palm, "That all men are about to live,"
For ever on the brink of being born.—*Young.*

There is a fount about to stream,
There is a light about to beam,
There is a warmth about to glow,
There is a flower about to blow;
There is a midnight blackness changing
Into gray:
Men of thought, and men of action,
Clear the way!
Lo! a cloud is about to vanish
From the day;
Lo! the right is about to conquer:
Clear the way!
And a brazen wrong to crumble
Into clay.—*Dickens's News.*

[*Rem.* 2.] Young, an excellent judge of serious conversation, said, that when Addison was at his ease, he went on in a noble strain of thought and language, so as to chain the attention of every hearer.—*T. B. Macaulay.*

He cannot be so base as to desert his friend at this time.

Nothing pleases him more than to see his friends happy.

Whenever we can examine the work of the Deity at a proper point of distance, so as to take in the whole of his design, we see nothing but uniformity, beauty, and precision.—*Goldsmith.*

His works were written too carelessly to be long remembered.

Several noble houses have laid claim to him since his name has become so renowned, as to confer, rather than to receive distinction.—*Irving.*

Malebranche expressed great partiality for the English, and extolled the genius of Newton, but shook his head when Hobbes was mentioned, and

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[a] Rule xii., Rem. 6.

[b] See Remarks on the Tenses in the different Moods, 6, p. 74.

was indeed so unjust as to call the author of the "Leviathan" a poor, silly creature.—*T. B. Macaulay.*

The hare ran too rapidly to be overtaken by such hunters.

The visions of my youth are past,
Too bright, too beautiful to last.—*Bryant.*

[*Rem.* 3.]

Life is not formed of flattering dreams
But duties which rouse up the soul,
While, here and there, there shoot star-gleams
To light the laborer to his goal.—*T. H. Shreve.*

And in thy right hand lead with thee
The mountain-nymph sweet Liberty;
And if I give thee honor due,
Mirth admit me of thy crew,
To live with her and live with thee,
In unreproved pleasures free;
To hear the lark begin his flight,
And singing startle the dull night,
From his watch-tower in the skies,
Till the dappled dawn doth rise.—*Milton.*

I own I like not Johnson's turgid style,
That gives an inch the importance of a mile;
Casts of manure a wagon load around,
To raise a simple daisy from the ground;
Uplifts the club of Hercules—for what?
To crush a butterfly or brain a gnat;
Creates a whirlwind from the earth to draw
A goose's feather, or exalt a straw;
Sets wheels on wheels in motion—such a clatter,[a]
To force up one poor nipperkin of water;
Bids ocean labor[b] with tremendous roar,
To heave a cockle shell upon the shore;
Alike in every theme his pompous art,
Heaven's awful thunder[c] or a rumbling cart.—*Wolcot.*

[*Rem.* 4.] All unnecessary harshness is to be avoided.

The man is little to be envied whose patriotism would not gain force on the plains of Marathon, or whose piety would not grow warmer among the ruins of Iona.—*Johnson.*

That is a state of things much to be desired.

Graceful ease, and sweetness void of pride,
Might hide her faults, if belles had faults to hide.—*Pope.*

[*Rem.* 5.] Not to mention the variety of shells with which the sand is strewed, the lofty rocks that hang over the spectator's head, and that seem but just kept from falling, produce in him no unpleasing gloom.—*Goldsmith.*

To conclude, they are like the fruits of the earth in this unnatural season. —*Dryden.*

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[a] Rule vii. [b] Rule xii., Rem. 7. [c] In apposition with *theme.*

It is the opinion of this excellent writer, to express it in one sentence,—that the emotions which we experience from the contemplation of sublimity or beauty, are not produced by any physical or intrinsic quality in the objects which we contemplate.—*Jeffrey.*

[*Rem.* 6.] He seems to have had it in view to direct[a] the attention of orators much more towards convincing and affecting their hearers, than towards the musical cadence of periods.—*Blair.*

It is a higher proof of merit to be[b] the object[c] of contention among various noble families, than to be able to substantiate the most illustrious lineage.—*Irving.*

To dress, to act, to sing, to dance, were the sole business of life.—*S. G. Goodrich.*

To suffer the opinion of others to rule our choice or overpower our resolves, is to submit tamely to the lowest and most ignominious slavery.—*Johnson.*

Unknown to them when sensual pleasures cloy,
To fill[d] the languid pause with finer joy.—*Goldsmith.*

We must do him that justice to observe,[e] that magnanimity, which is the character of Prince Arthur, shines throughout the whole poem.—*Dryden.*

To laugh were want of goodness and of grace,
And to be grave exceeds all power of face.—*Pope.*

Thy form benign, O goddess, wear,
Thy milder influence impart;
Thy philosophic train be[f] there,
To soften, not to wound the heart.
The generous spark extinct revive,
Teach me to love,[g] and to forgive,[g]
Exact[h] my own defects to scan,[g]
What others are to feel[i] and know myself[k] a man.—*Gray.*

But I have griefs of other kind,
Troubles and sorrows more severe;
Give me to ease my tortured mind,
Lend to my woes a patient ear;
And let me, if I may not find
A friend to help—find one to hear.—*Crabbe.*

Addison, without high birth, and with little property, rose to a post which

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[a] *To direct* is in apposition with *it*, which is the object of the verb *to have had.*

[b] See page 133, fifth paragraph. *To be* is the subject of the verb *is.* In parsing, the infinitive may be considered as in apposition with *it.* This is making the sentence equivalent to "This *thing*, *to be* the object of contention among various noble families, is a higher proof," etc. [c] Rule vi., Rem. 5.

[d] Subject of *is* understood. [e] In apposition with *justice.*

[f] Third person of the Imperative Mood. See p. 77.

[g] Rule ix., Rem. 8.

[h] By poetic license the adjective is often used for the adverb.

[i] Rule ix., Rem. 1. The object of this verb is the clause, *what others are.*

[k] Rule xii., Rem. 8, and Rule xi.

dukes, the heads of the great houses of Talbot, Russell, and Bentinck, have thought it [a] an honor [a] to fill [b].—*T. B. Macaulay.*

[*Rem.* 7.] Wanton jests make fools laugh, and wise men frown. A man that breaks his word bids others be false to him.

John had [c] rather work than play. A man had [c] better be poisoned in his blood than in his principles.

With what a stately and majestic step
That glorious constellation of the north
Treads its eternal circle! [d] going forth
Its princely way [d] among the stars in slow
And silent brightness. Mighty one, all hail!
I joy to see thee on thy glowing path
Walk like some stout and girded giant; stern,
Unwearied, resolute, whose toiling foot
Disdains to loiter on its destined way.—*H. Ware, Jr.*

Let the rich, with heart elate,
Pile their board with costly plate;
Richer ornaments are ours,
We will dress our homes with flowers;
Yet no terror need we feel
Lest the thief break through to steal.—*J. F. Clarke.*

Can storied urn or animated bust
Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath?
Can Honor's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or Flattery soothe the dull, cold ear of Death?—*Gray.*

Where is the true man's fatherland?
Is it where he by chance is born?
Doth not the yearning spirit scorn
In such scant borders to be spanned?
O, yes! his fatherland must be
As the blue heaven wide and free!—*J. R. Lowell.*

Behold surrounding kings their powers combine,
And one capitulate, and one resign.—*Johnson.*

[*Rem.* 8.] Attempts have been made to prove him [e] of illustrious descent. —*Irving.*

The neighbors stared and sighed, yet blessed the lad:
Some deemed him [e] wondrous wise, and some believed him [e] mad.—*Beattie.*

I thought the sparrow's note [e] from heaven,
Singing at dawn on the alder bough;
I brought him home in his nest at even,—
He sings the song, but it pleases not now,
For I did not bring home the river and sky,
He sang to my ear, *they* sang to my eye.—*R. W. Emerson.*

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[a] Rule ix., Rem. 7. [b] In apposition with *it.*

[c] This is an idiomatic use of the verb *had.* It is the past *form* of the verb, but it has a present sense. Some suppose that this form is a corruption of *would; I would* having been first shortened into *I'd*, and then changed to *I had.*

[d] Rule ix., Rem. 4. [e] Rule xi.

RULE XIII.

All should govern their feelings, following principle instead of impulse.

Being a king [a] he did not meet with the sympathy which he desired.

Having become an active friend [a] of the insane, she devotes all her time to their good.

He must think of turning tutor [a] again.—*T. B. Macaulay.*

He obtained a patent appointing him [b] keeper [b] of the Irish records for life.—*Id.*

Moderation is the silken string running through the pearl-chain of all virtues.—*Fuller.*

Why dost thou then suggest to me distrust,
Knowing [c] who I am, as I know [c] who thou art?—*Milton.*

Me oft has fancy, ludicrous and wild,
Soothed with a waking dream of houses, towers,
Trees, churches, and strange visages, expressed
In the red cinders, while with poring eye
I gazed, myself creating [d] what I saw.—*Cowper.*

The hearth's decaying brands were red,
And deep and dusky lustre shed,
Half showing, half concealing all
The uncouth trophies of the hall.—*Sir W. Scott.*

I throw mine eyes to heaven,
Scorning [d] whate'er you can afflict me with.—*Shakespeare.*

[*Rem.* 1, 2.] Revenge a wrong by forgiving it.

He has the opportunity of becoming an assistant. [e]

She prided herself upon being an excellent contriver [e] in housekeeping.—*Goldsmith.*

Contentment consisteth not in adding more fuel, but in taking away some fire.—*Fuller.*

The thought of being nothing [c] after death is a burden insupportable to a virtuous man, even though a heathen.—*Dryden.*

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[a] Rule vi., Rem. 5. [b] Rule ix., Rem. 7.

[c] Rule ix., Rem. 1. [d] Rule ix., Rem. 8.

[e] See Rule vi., Rem. 5. Mr. Goldsbury places such constructions as these under the "nominative case absolute," and says, "It often happens, that a noun or pronoun following a neuter or passive participial noun, is in the nominative case absolute, even though the participial noun be in a different case, and governed by some other word; as, 'There is no doubt of his being a great statesman.'" He then goes on to say, "As the above note may not be satisfactory, I suggest *two* other methods of parsing such *idiomatic phrases*. 1. To consider the participial noun and the noun following it, and whatever comes between them, as *one noun*, and to parse them accordingly. 2. To parse the *noun* which follows the *participial noun* in the *possessive case*, and put it in *apposition* with the noun or pronoun which always precedes it, either ex-

Is there no way to bring home a wandering sheep but by worrying him to death?—*Fuller.*

In taking revenge, a man is but even with his enemy; but in passing it over, he is superior.—*Bacon.*

Does life appear miserable, that gives the opportunities of earning such a reward?—*Addison.*

History helps us to judge of what will happen, by showing us[a] the like revolutions[a] of former times.—*Dryden.*

I am of opinion that I should derive less dignity from any nobility of ancestry, than from being the son[a] of such a father.—*Irving.*

Our sensibilities are so acute,
The fear of being silent makes us mute.—*Cowper.*

Is it not notorious that Frederick the Great, after reading, speaking, writing French, and nothing but French, during more than half a century—after unlearning his mother tongue in order to learn French, after living familiarly during many years with French associates—could not, to the last, compose in French, without imminent risk of committing some mistake which would have moved a smile in the literary circles of Paris?—*T. B. Macaulay.*

[*Rem.* 5.] I have some recollection of John's being a carpenter.

If he was wrong, what has been said may perhaps account for his being so, without detracting from his ability and judgment in other things.—*Hazlitt.*

Upon the landlord's leaving the room, I could not avoid expressing my concern for the stranger, at seeing a gentleman in such circumstances, and offered him my purse to satisfy the present demand.—*Goldsmith.*

Cassius's insisting on the pretended effeminacy of Cæsar's character, and his description of their swimming together "once upon a raw and gusty day," are among the finest strokes in it.—*Hazlitt.*

This highest and most delightful effect can be produced only by the poet's striking a note to which the heart and the affections naturally vibrate in unison;—by his rousing one of a large family of kindred impressions;—by his dropping the rich seed of his fancy upon the fertile and sheltered places of his imagination.—*Jeffrey.*

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pressed or understood; as, I heard of *his* being a good *scholar;* who can bear the thought of (*his*) being an outcast from his presence? I am not conscious of (*my*) being your enemy. This idiomatic form of expression is very common in our language, though it has been almost entirely overlooked by grammarians. Without determining which of the above expositions is correct, it will be sufficient to say, that the *first* is defended by Mr. Sanborn; the *second*, by Prof. Channing; and the *third*, by the compiler."—*Sequel to the Common School Grammar*, p. 43.

Neither of these explanations is the true one. The construction is easily explained, when we bear in mind that the participle and the participial noun have everything *after* them that the verb has. When the verb has a nominative after it—a predicate nominative—the participial noun has one also.

[a] Rule ix., Rem. 8.

RULE XIV.

From the dust on which we tread, spring the flowers which we admire.

To him who in the love of nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language; for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness, and a smile
And eloquence of beauty; and she glides
Into his darker musings, with a mild
And healing sympathy, that steals away
Their sharpness, ere [a] he is aware.—*Bryant.*

The world is full of poetry—the air
Is living with its spirit; and the waves
Dance to the music of its melodies,
And sparkle in its brightness. Earth is veiled
And mantled with its beauty; and the walls
That close the universe with crystal in,[b]
Are eloquent with voices, that proclaim
The unseen glories of immensity,
In harmonies, too perfect, and too high
For aught but beings of celestial mould,
And speak to man in one eternal hymn,
Unfading beauty, and unyielding power.—*Percival.*

From labor health, from health contentment springs.—*Beattie.*

The common fluency of speech in many men, and most women, is owing to a scarcity of matter and scarcity of words; for whoever is a master of language, and hath a mind full of ideas, will be apt, in speaking, to hesitate in the choice of both; whereas common speakers have only one set of ideas, and one set of words to clothe them in, and these are always ready at the mouth. So people come faster out of a church, when it is almost empty, than when a crowd is at the door.—*Swift.*

[*Rem.* 1.] We should be pleased with whatever is agreeable to the will of our Heavenly Father.

The event we attend to with the greatest satisfaction, is their defeat and death.—*Burke.*

The benevolence of my good old friend, which flows out to every one he converses with, made him very kind to our interpreter.—*Addison.*

Sympathy makes us take a concern in whatever men feel.

The stores of wisdom belong to whoever will make use of them.

Earth may now give her calm to whom she tormented with her troubles.

The anecdotes which are popularly related about his boyish tricks, do not harmonize very well with what we know of his riper years.—*T. B. Macaulay.*

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[a] Conjunctive adverb, equivalent to the two adjuncts, *before the time* and *in which*.

[b] Adverb modifying *close*.

RULE XV.

A truly great man borrows no lustre from splendid ancestry.

There can never be another Jacob's dream. Since that time the heavens have gone further off, and grown astronomical.—*Hazlitt.*

How calmly sinks the setting sun!
Yet twilight lingers still;
And beautiful as dream[a] of Heaven
It slumbers on the hill;
Earth sleeps with all her glorious things,
Beneath the Holy Spirit's wings,
And, rendering back the hues above,
Seems resting in a trance of love.—*G. D. Prentice.*

A butterfly basked on an infant's grave,
Where a lily had chanced to grow;
"Why art thou here with thy gaudy dye,
Where she of the bright and the sparkling eye
Must sleep in the churchyard low?"

Then it lightly soared through the sunny air,
And spoke from its shining track:—
"I was a worm till I won my wings,
And she whom thou mourn'st, like a seraph sings,—
Wouldst thou call the blessed one back?"—*Mrs. Sigourney.*

There lived, some years since, within my neighborhood, a very grave person, an upholsterer, who seemed a man of more than ordinary application to business. He was a very early riser, and was often abroad two or three hours before any of his neighbors. He had a particular carefulness in the knitting of his brows, and a kind of impatience in all his motions, that plainly discovered he was always intent on matters of importance.—*Addison.*

The argument, which has been sometimes set up, that painting must affect the imagination more strongly than poetry, because it represents the image more distinctly, is not well founded.—*Hazlitt.*

Our early days!—how often back
We turn on life's bewildering track,
To[b] where, o'er hill and valley, plays
The sunlight of our early days.—*W. D. Gallagher.*

RULE XVI.

The "heavenly Una, with her milk-white lamb" is one of the loveliest creations of genius. Her uniform meekness in misfortune, and the gentle serenity of her temper, would have made her insipid in the hands of an inferior artist; but what we see in her is the repose of heaven, and not the apathy of earth; and the tranquillity of the stream comes from its depth, and not its sluggishness.—*G. S. Hillard.*

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[a] Rule xvi., Rem. 3.

[b] The object of *to* is *place*, understood.

She smiled, but there was something in her smile which told that its mournful beauty was but the bright reflection of a tear.—*G. D. Prentice.*

In every government, though terrors reign,
Though cruel kings or tyrant laws restrain,
How small, of all that human hearts endure,
That part which laws or kings can cause or cure;
Still to ourselves in every place consigned,
Our own felicity we make or find.—*Goldsmith.*

Thee the soft nations round the warm Levant
Polanta call; the French, of course, *Polanta.*
E'en in thy native regions, how I blush
To hear the Pennsylvanians call thee *Mush!*
On Hudson's banks while men of Belgic spawn
Insult and eat thee by the name *Suppawn.*
All spurious appellations, void of truth;
I've better known thee from my earliest youth—
Thy name is *Hasty Pudding!*—thus our sires
Were wont to greet thee fuming from the fires.—*Barlow.*

And, [a] more to lull him in his slumbers soft,
A trickling stream from high rock tumbling down,
And ever-drizzling rain upon the loft,
Mixed with a murmuring wind, much like the sound
Of swarming bees, did cast him in a swound;
No other noise, nor people's troublous cries,
That still are wont to annoy the walled town,
Might there be heard; but careless quiet lies,
Wrapt in eternal silence, far from enemies.—*Spenser.*

If you have read all [Paradise Lost], and go along with all, you have yourself had experience of the progress, and have felt your capacity of Milton grow and dilate. So has it been with your capacity for Shakspeare, or you are a truant and an idler.—*John Wilson.*

[*Rem.* 2.] At night, I hold a lantern over my head, both to show where I am, and to keep people out of the gutters.—*Hawthorne.*

He was neither sustained in his independent and honest course by any enthusiasm or fervor of character, nor placed in circumstances which made the emoluments of place indifferent.—*Brougham.*

Thou hast need of discipline and art
To give thee what politer France receives
From nature's bounty—that humane address [b]
And sweetness, without which no pleasure is
In converse, either starved by cold reserve,
Or flushed with fierce dispute, a senseless brawl. [b]—*Cowper.*

Yet haply there will come a weary day,
When overtasked at length
Both Love and Hope beneath the load give way.

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[a] *And* connects the following clause to a preceding one.
[b] Rule 1.

Then with a statue's smile, a statue's strength,
Stands the mute sister Patience, nothing[a] loath,
And both[b] supporting, does the work of both.[c]—*Coleridge.*

[*Rem.* 3.] A few good books, well chosen, are of more use than a great library.

Motionless torrents! silent cataracts!
Who made you glorious as the gates of heaven
Beneath the keen full moon?—*Coleridge.*

If all the year were playing holidays,
To sport would be as tedious as to work.—*Shakspeare.*

Say, with richer crimson glows
The kingly mantle than the rose?
Say, have kings more wholesome fare
Than we poor citizens of air?
Barns nor hoarded grain have we,
Yet we carol merrily.
Mortal, fly from doubt and sorrow;
God provideth for the morrow.—*Heber.*

Oh! fair are the vine-clad hills that rise
In the country of my love;
But yet, though cloudless my native skies,
There's a brighter clime above.—*Hemans.*

[*Rem.* 4.] This court was composed of three officers, than whom none are more distinguished in our naval service.—*North American Review.*

There sat a patriot sage, than whom the English language does not possess a better writer.—*E. Everett.*

[*Rem.* 5.] To comprehend with delight Milton and Shakspeare as poets, you need, from the beginning, a soul otherwise touched and gifted for poesy than Pope claims of you, or Dryden.—*John Wilson.*

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[a] Used in the sense of an adverb; properly, a noun governed by a preposition understood—*in nothing, in no respect.* [b] Limiting adjective.

[c] *Both* originally, was merely a limiting adjective, referring to *two* objects; as, "John and James *both* were present." Afterwards it came to be sometimes employed as a conjunction; as, "*Both* John and James were present." It may sometimes be considered a limiting adjective, even in the latter form of construction; as, "Both [persons] John and James were present;" "He lost both [things] his character and his money." A similar remark may be applied to *either* and *neither;* thus, "You may take *either* book;" "You shall have *neither* book;" "You may take *either* this book or that;" "You shall have *neither* this book nor that."

But the original meaning of these words has been lost, in a great many instances. *Either* and *neither* are often used in connecting *several* words; as, "There is nothing he has made that is *either* so distant, so little, or so inconsiderable," etc.—*Addison.* "For I am persuaded that *neither* death, nor life, nor angels, nor principalities, nor powers," etc.—*English Bible. Both* is not so generally used in connecting more than two words; but in the nature of things, there is no reason why it should not be so employed, as well as *either* and *neither.* It is sometimes used in this way; as, "He sold his contributions to literary undertakings, and assisted *both* the Tatler, Spectator, and Guardian."—*Johnson.* "They, who *both* made peace with France, composed the internal dissensions of the country, and restored its free constitution."—*Brougham.*

As a keeper of the peace, all water-drinkers will confess me equal to the constable.—*Hawthorne.*

Lysippus is told that his banker asks a debt of forty pounds, and that a distressed acquaintance petitions for the same sum. He gives it, without hesitating, to the latter; for he demands as a favor what the former requires as a debt.—*Goldsmith.*

RULE XVII.

There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gathered then
Her beauty and her chivalry, and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men;
A thousand hearts beat happily, and when
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes looked love [a] to eyes which spake again,
And all went merry as a marriage-bell;
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell!—*Byron.*

O winter! ruler of the inverted year,
I love thee, all [b] unlovely as thou seem'st,
And dreaded as thou art!—*Cowper.*

Oh! what a tangled web we weave,
When first we practise to deceive.—*Sir W. Scott.*

Gentle river, gentle river,
Lo, thy streams are stained with gore!
Many a brave and noble captain
Floats along thy willowed shore!—*Percy's Reliques.*

Peace be with thee, O our brother,
In the spirit-land!
Vainly look we for another
In thy place to stand.—*Whittier.*

But see—alas!—the crystal bar
Of Eden moves not—holier far
Than e'en this drop the boon must be
That opes the gates of heaven for thee!—*T. Moore.*

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[a] Rule ix., Rem. 4. [b] Adverb.

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