PRACTICAL LESSONS

179

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

AND

COMPOSITION;

FOR YOUNG BEGINNERS:

BEING

AN INTRODUCTION TO "THE PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR," WITH COPIOUS EXERCISES, AND D.RECTIONS FOR THEIR USE.

BY REV. PETER BULLIONS, D. D.,
AUTHOR OF THE SERIES OF GRAMMARS, ENGLISH, LATIN, AND
GREEK, ON THE SAME PLAN.

NEW-YORK:
PUBLISHED BY PRATT, WOODFORD & CO.,



Library

of the

University of Wisconsin

PRESENTED BY

J. W. Sterling



PRACTICAL LESSONS

IN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

AND

COMPOSITION;

FOR YOUNG BEGINNERS:

BEING

AN INTRODUCTION TO "THE PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR," WITH COPIOUS EXERCISES, AND DIRECTIONS FOR THEIR USE.

By Rev. PETER BULLIONS, D. D., author of the series of grammars, english, latin, and greek, on the same plan.

ELEVENTH EDITION, REVISED.

NEW-YORK:
PRATT, WOODFORD & COMPANY,
No. 159 PEARL STREET.

1849.

Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1846, by

REV. PETER BULLIONS, D. D.

in the Clerk's Office of the Northern District of New-York.

262258 FEB -6 1928 XGC .B875

PREFACE.

1349

The general character of this little work is correctly described in the title page. It is a series of "Practical Lessons on English Grammar and Composition, for Young Beginners." It owes its origin to a wish strongly expressed, from various quarters, which the author is bound to respect, to have a small work on Grammar, suited by its simplicity to the capacity of children at an earlier age than that at which the study of Grammar is usually commenced, and answering in its practical character, to the improved methods of teaching Grammar, as well as other branches in the more juvenile departments of Academies and Common Schools.

The work is divided into Lessons, each of which is devoted to some one topic. The arrangement in each Lesson is the same throughout except that the Questions on each Rule of Syntax are left to be framed by the teacher. That order is the following: First, the Definitions and Rules belonging to the Lesson, and intended to be committed to memory, are placed first in large type. Next to these, any subordinate matter regarded as proper for so brief a compend, is subjoined in a smaller type, to be carefully read and studied with the Lesson. Then, a series of Questions so framed that correct answers will bring out all the leading facts contained in the preceding text. And lastly, practical Exercises are subjoined, for the purpose of reducing immediately to practice the knowledge acquired, and fixing it in the easiest and most effectual manner in the understanding.

The Exercises in most of the Lessons are capable of being used in a variety of ways; and ample directions are given in small but clear type, as to the manner in which they are intended to be used; so that even inexperienced teachers and others may be at no loss to conduct a class of very young pupils through a profitable initiatory course of English Grammar.

In Etymology, "ILLUSTRATIONS" are occasionally thrown in, to shew in what manner important principles in Grammar may be simplified to the young learner; and in Syntax, a plain and familiar "Explanation" is subjoined to each Rule, for the same purpose.

It is of great importance to keep the acquisitions of pupils already made always at hand, and to impress them indelibly on their minds by repeated reviews of previous Lessons; and it will be seen that directions are given at the beginning of each Lesson, for carrying this useful practice into effect.

Another feature in this work,—and I may say peculiar to it,—is, that with the principles of Grammar, at every step are combined instructions and exercises in the elementary principles of Composition. Analysis and Composition are carried on together. Directions for parsing each part of speech, with accompanying examples for practice, are given as soon as it has been treated of: And in like manner the proper method of combining words for the purpose of expressing our ideas, is pointed out, and Exercises devised, as soon as the pupil has been made acquainted with the classes of words capable of being combined. One Exercise of this kind, sometimes more, is connected with almost every Rule of Syntax, as at once an exercise on the Rule and a praxis on Composition.

As Orthography belongs more strictly to the Spelling Book, and Prosody is a study for more advanced pupils than those for whom this work is intended, they are introduced here only for the sake of form, and of course little is said respecting them.

It only remains to say, that the Rules, definitions, and arrangement here, are the same as in the larger work, and that though this does not pretend to be a complete treatise on English Grammar, no pains have been spared to render it useful as far as it goes; that it does contain as much as any work of its size, presented in a neat and perspicuous manner; and moreover, possesses some new and peculiar features, which claim the candid attention and examination of all who feel an interest in simplifying the process of education to the youthful mind, and doing the most good in the shortest time, in the simplest and most pleasing manner, at the earliest period, and at the least expense.

Those who commence the study of Grammar after the age of twelve or fourteen, stand in no need of this work. They should commence at once with the other, which contains a complete course of English Grammar, without any other book, and is sufficiently simple for pupils of that age. But young pupils, by going through this will enter, even at an earlier period, on the study of the larger Grammar with great advantage.

CONTENTS.

	BBON.	768
1	Definition and Division,	7
2		
3	Concerning Letters and Syllables, PART SECOND.—ETYMOLOGY.	7
3	Division of Words,	9
4	Of the Article,	_
5	Of Nouns,	11
6	Of Person,	13
7	Of Gender,	14
8	Of Number,	16
9	Of The Cases of Nouns,	19
10	Of the Adjective,	21
11	Comparison of Adjectives,	23
12	Of the Pronoun,	26
13	Of Relative Pronouns,	29
14	Of Adjective Pronouns,	32
15	Exercises on Articles, Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns	35
16	Of Verbs,	35
17	Division of Verbs	38
18	Inflection of Verbs	41
19	Of the Moods	43
2 0	Of Tenses, or Distinctions of Time,	44
21	Of Number and Person,	47
22	Of the Participles,	49
23	Of the Conjugation of Verbs,	51
24	Negative form of the Verb,	57
25	Interrogative form of the Verb,	59
26	The Verb "TO BE,"	60
27	Progressive Form of the Active Voice,	64
28	Passive Voice,	65
29	Of Irregular Verbs,	69
3 0	Defective and Impersonal Verbs,	75
31	Of Adverbs,	76
32	Of Prepositions,	79
3 3	Of Conjunctions,	81
34	Of Interjections,	82
35	How to distinguish the Parts of Speech,	83
36	Parsing,	85
37	Model of Etymological Parsing,	87
3 8	Exercises in Parsing,	88

		PART THIRD.—SYNTAX.		
3 9	General Principles of Syntax, 91			
4 0	Parts of Syntax	K,	92	
41	Rule I.	A Verb and its Nominative,	92	
42	II.	A Transitive Verb and its Object,	94	
43	III.	A Preposition and its Object,	95	
44	IV.	Two or more Nouns taken in connexion,	96	
45	v.	Two or more Nouns taken separately,	97	
46	VI.	Two Nominatives of different Persons,	97	
47	VII.	A collective Noun,	98	
48	VIII.	Adjective and Substantive,	91	
49	IX.	When two Persons or things are contrasted,	100	
50	X.	Pronouns,	101	
51	XI.	Relative and Antecedent,	102	
52	XII.	Substantives in Apposition,	103	
53	XIII.	The same Case after a Verb as before it,	103	
54	XIV.	The Possessive Case	104	
5 5	XV.	The Present Participle used as a Noun,	106	
56	XVI.	The Present Participle with the Article before it,	106	
57	XVII.	The Perfect Participle after HAVE and BE,	107	
58	XVIII.	The Infinitive Mood,	108	
5 9	XIX.	The Subjunctive Mood,	109	
60	XX.	Conjunctions,	110	
61	XXI.	Corresponding Conjunctions,	111	
62	XXII.	The Comparative Degree,	112	
63	XXIII.	Double Comparatives and Superlatives,	113	
64	XXIV.	Adverbs,	114	
65	xxv.	Position of Adverbs,	115	
66	XXVI.	Negatives,	116	
67	XXVII.	Prepositions before names of places,	117	
68	XXVIII.	" after certain words and phrases,	118	
69	XXIX.	Syntax of the Tenses,	119	
70	XXX.	A member of a sentence referring to two clauses	120	
71	XXXI.	The Nominative absolute and independent	121	
72	XXXII.	The Article,	122	
73	XXXIII	. An Ellipsis admissible,	123	
74	XXXIV.	An Ellipsis not admissible,	124	
75		actical Parsing,		
76		Exercises on the Rules of Syntax		
77		n,		
78		Capital Letters,		
		PART FOURTH _PROSODY		
79		ocution, Versification,		
20	Of Compositio		120	

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

LESSON I.

Definition and Division.

[Commit Definitions and Rules accurately to memory.]

English Grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English Language with propriety.

It is divided into four parts; namely, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

PART FIRST.—ORTHOGRAPHY.

LESSON II.

Concerning Letters and Syllables.

[Review the preceding Lesson.]

ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the nature and powers of Letters, and the correct method of spelling words.

A LETTER is a character representing a particular sound of the human voice.

There are Twenty-six letters in the English Alphabet.

Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

A Vowel is a letter which represents a simple *inarticulate* sound; and in a word or syllable may be sounded alone. They are, a, e, i, o, u, and w and y, not beginning a syllable.

A Consonant is a letter which represents an articulate sound; and in a word or syllable is never sounded alone, but always in connexion with a vowel. They are, b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z, and w and y beginning a syllable.

A Diphthong is the union of two vowels in one sound; as, ou in out.

A proper Diphthong is one in which both the vowels are sounded; as oy in boy, ou in round, oi in oil.

An improper Diphthong is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, oa in boat.

A Triphthong is the union of three vowels in one sound; as, eau in beauty.

A Syllable is a distinct sound forming the whole of a word; as, far; or so much of it as can be sounded at once; as, far in farmer.

- A Monosyllable is a word of one syllable; as, fox, dog.
- A Dissyllable is a word of two syllables; as, far-mer.
- A Trissyllable is a word of three syllables; as, but-ter-fly.
- A Polysyllable is a word of many syllables.

Spelling is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters, and rightly dividing it into syllables.

QUESTIONS.

What is English Grammar? Into how many parts is it divided? Mention them. What is orthography? What is a letter? How many letters are there in English? How are they divided? What is a vowel?—a consonant? Name the vowels. When are wand y vowels? When consonants? What is a diphthong?—a pfoper diphthong?—an improper diphthong?—a triphthong?—What is a syllable? What is a word of one syllable termed?—of two?—of three?—of four or more? What is spelling?

PART SECOND.—ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON III.

Division of Words.

[Review the preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivations.

Words are certain articulate sounds used by common consent as signs of our ideas. They are divided into different classes, called

PARTS OF SPEECH.

The parts of Speech in the English language are nine; viz. The Article, Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Interjection, and Conjunction.

Of these the Noun, Pronoun, and Verb are declined, the rest are indeclinable.

Obs. A Declinable word is one which undergoes certain changes of form or termination, to express the different relations of gender, number, case, person, &c. usually termed in Grammar Accidents; as, man, men; love, loves, loved.

An Indeclinable word is one which undergoes no change of form; as, good, some, perhaps.

The resolving of a sentence into its elements or parts of speech and stating the Accidents which belong to these, is called Parsing.

QUESTIONS.

What does Etymology treat of? What are words? What are they divided into? What are these classes called? How many parts of speech are there? Name them. Which are declinable? What is a declinable word?—an indeclinable? What is Parsing?

LESSON IV.

Of the Article.

[Review the preceding Lessons, and answer correctly and promptly all the questions.]

AN ARTICLE is a word put before a noun, to show the extent of its meaning; as, a man, the man.

There are two Articles, A or AN, and THE.

A or AN is called the *Indefinite* Article, because it does not point out a particular person or thing; as, A king; that is, any king.

THE is called the Definite Article, because it refers to a particular person or thing; as, The king; i. e. some particular king.

A noun without an Article to limit it is taken in its widest sense; as, *Man is mortal*, i. e. *All mankind:*—Or in an indefinite sense; as, There are men destitute of all shame, i. e. *some* men.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. A is used before a Consonant; as, a book, a house, a tree.

 Also before words beginning with u long, and eu, because they sound as if beginning with the consonant y; thus, a unit, a use, a eulogy—pronounced as if written, a yunit, a yuse, a yeulogy.
 - 2. An is used before a vowel or silent h; as, an age, an hour.
- 3. A or an is used before the singular number only; the before either singular or plural.

PARSING.—The article is parsed by stating whether it is definite or indefinite, and mentioning the noun to which it belongs; thus,

A book. A is an article, indefinite and belongs to "book."

QUESTIONS.

What is an Article? How many articles are there? What is A or An called? Why? What is The called? Why? In what sense is a noun without an article taken? What is A used before? What is An used before? How is the article parsed?

EXERCISES.

Is it proper to say a man, or an man? and why?

a apple, or an apple? and why?

a house, or an house? and why?

a hour, or an hour? and why?

Prefix the indefinite article a or an to the following words:

Chair, table, horse, cart, book, house, garden, bird, owl, egg, ear, eye, tree, cow, unit, use, old man, young man, word, book, pot, bench, open wagon, round stone, old hat, penny trumpet, ice house, &c.

Correct the following errors, and give a reason for the change; parse the articles:

An cup, an door, a apple, an pear, an hat, an wig, an eulogy, a honor, an crow, a ostrich, an pen, a ugly beast, an pretty beast, an pretty thing, an huge monster, a upper room, &c.

LESSON V.

Of Nouns.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

A noun is the name of a thing; as, John, London, book. Nouns are of two kinds, Proper and Common.

A Proper Noun is the name applied to an individual only; as Washington, Albany, the Hudson.

A Common Noun is a name applied to all things of the same sort; as, man, chair, table, book.

OBSERVATIONS.

Under common nouns are usually ranked,

- 1. Collective nouns, or nouns of multitude; as, army, people.
- 2. Abstract nouns, or names of qualities; as piety, wicked-
- 3. Verbal nouns, or names of actions; as, reading, writing, sleeping.

ILLUSTRATION.—Every thing of which a person can speak, hear, or think, has a name; that name in grammar is called a nown. Names common to all things of the same sort or class are called Common noune: as, man, woman, day, river, city, country.

Names applied only to individuals of a sort or class and not common to all, are called *Proper nouns*; as *John, Lucy, Friday, Thames, London, England. Common nouns* then distinguish sorts or classes; *Proper* nouns distinguish individuals. Thus, the noun "*Man*" is the name of a class or species, and is applied equally to all, or is *common* to all the individuals in that class. But "*John*" is a name that belongs only to certain individuals of the class, and not to others; it is therefore not *Common* but *Proper*.*

A word that makes sense after an article or the phrase speak of, is a noun; as, A man; I speak of money.

To Nouns belong Person, Gender, Number and Case.

QUESTIONS.

What is a noun? How many kinds of nouns are there? What is a common noun? What is a proper noun? What part of speech are names of things? What is a collective noun?—an abstract noun?—a verbal moun? Are these nouns proper or common? What Accidents belong to nouns?

EXERCISES.

Point out the nouns in the following sentences; say why they are nouns. Tell whether they are proper or common, and why. Point out the articles and parse them: Exercises of this kind may be taken from any book.

The table and chairs in this room belong to Robert. The houses and streets in New-York are larger than those in Albany. The principal cities in the State of

^{*} The word "proper" means "not belonging to more, not common; noting as individual.

New-York are New-York, Albany, Utica, Rochester, and Buffalo. Wheat, corn, rye, and oats are extensively cultivated. Apples, pears, cherries, plums, and other fruits abound. George is older than John; they both study arithmetic, and grammar.

LESSON VI.

Of Person.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

PERSON in grammar, is the relation of a noun or pronoun to what is said in discourse.

There are three persons, the First, Second, and Third.

The First person denotes the speaker or writer; as, "I Paul have written it."

The Second denotes the person spoken to; as, "Thou God seest me."

The Third denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, "Truth is mighty."

Obs.—The first and second person can belong only to nouns denoting persons, or things regarded as such; because persons only can speak or be spoken to. The third person may belong to all nouns; because every object, whether person or thing, may be spoken of.

ILLUSTRATION.—Person makes no change either in the meaning or form of a noun, but simply denotes the manner in which it is used; so that the same noun, without change, may be in the first person, or the second, or the third, according as it denotes the speaker, the person speken to, or the person or thing spoken of. Moreover, as the name of the speaker or the person spoken to is seldom expressed, (the pronouns I and thou being used in its stead,) a noun is very seldom in the first person, not often in the second, and almost never in either, unless it be a proper noun, or a common noun personified. It seems therefore a useless waste of time to mention the person of a noun in parsing unless it be in the first or second person, which will not happen more these once is a thousand

times. For this reason the mention of person as a property of the noun may be omitted in parsing, except when it is of the first or second person, always taking it for granted that it is of the third, unless otherwise mentioned. The distinction of nouns into proper and common may also be omitted, because no use is made of the distinction in the construction of a sentence.

QUESTIONS.

What is person? How many persons are there? What does the first denote?—the second?—the third? To what sort of nouns do the first and second person belong? Why? To what does the third belong? Why? Does person make any difference in the meaning or form of the noun? What then does it denote? Is the name of the speaker, or the person spoken to often mentioned? What words are used instead of them?

LESSON VII.

Of Gender.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

Gender is the distinction of nouns with regard to Sex. There are three genders, the Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

The Masculine Gender denotes the male sex; as, A man, a boy.

The Feminine Gender denotes the female sex; as, A woman, a girl.

The Neuter Gender denotes whatever is without sex; as, Milk.

There are three ways of distinguishing the sex.

1. By different words; as

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Batchelor	maid	Hart	roe
Beau	bell e	Horse	mare
l oy	girl	Husband	wife

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Brother	sister	King	queen
Buck	doe	Master	mistress
Bull	cow	Nephew	niece
Drake	duck	Ram, buck	ewe
Father	mother	Son	daughter
Friar	nun	Stag	hind
Gander	goose	Uncle	aunt

2. By a difference of Termination; as,

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Abbot	abbess	Jew	Jewess
Actor	actress	Lion	lioness
Arbiter	arbitress	Patron	patroness
Baron	baroness	Peer	peeress
Bridegroom	bride	Poet	poetess
Duke	dutchess	Prince	princess
Emperor	empress	Shepherd	shepherdess
Enchanter	enchantress	Sorcerer	sorceress
Executor	executrix	Tutor	tutoress
Heir	heiress	Viscount	viscountess
Hero	heroine	Widower	widow
Host	hostess		

3. By prefixing another word; as,

Masc.	Fem.
A cock sparrow	A hen sparrow
A he goat	A she goat
A man servant	A maid servant
A male child	A female child
Male descendants	Female descendants

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. Some nouns are either masculine or feminine; as, parent, servant, neighbor. Such are sometimes said to be of the common gender.
- 2. Some nouns naturally neuter, are converted by a figure of speech into the masculine or feminine; as, when we say of the sun, "He is setting;" of the moon, "She is eclipsed;" and of a ship, "She sails"

3. Animals of inferior size, or whose sex is not known, are often spoken of as neuter. Thus, of a child we may say, "It is a lovely creature."

QUESTIONS.

What is gender? How many genders are there? What does the masculine gender denote?—the feminine?—the neuter? What nouns are said to be masculine? What feminine? What neuter? How many ways are there of distinguishing the sex? What are they? When a noun denotes either a male or female, of what gender is it? When the sex of animals is not known, of what gender are their names?

EXERCISES.

- 1. In the preceding lists tell the feminine of each masculine noun, and the masculine of each feminine.
- 2. Tell the part of speech and gender of the following words; thus, house, a noun, neuter; boy, a noun masculine, &c.

House, boy, stone, boot, cow, father, mother, sister, brother, daughter, aunt, nephew, niece, uncle, shepherd, paper, pen, ink, parent, neighbor, friend, lion, widow, baron, negro, hero, house, tree, bird, mouse, fly, &c.

LESSON VIII.

Of Number.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

Number is that property of a noun by which it expresses one, or more than one. Nouns have two numbers, the Singular and the Plural. The Singular denotes one; the Plural more than one.

GENERAL RULE.

The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular; as, book, books.

SPECIAL RULES.

1. Nouns in s, sh, ch soft, x, or o, form the plural by adding es; as, Miss, Misses; brush, brushes; match, matches; fox, foxes; hero, heroes.

Exc. Nouns in eo and io, with junto, canto, tyro, grotto, portico, solo, halo, quarto, have s only; as, cameo, cameos; folio, folios; junto, juntos, &c. Also nouns in ch sounding k; as monarch, monarchs.

2. Nouns in y after a consonant, change y into ies in the plural; as, lady, ladies.

Nouns in y after a vowel, follow the general rule: as, day, days.

3. Nouns in f or fe, change f or fe into ves in the plural; as, loaf, loaves; life, lives.

Exc. Dwarf, scarf; brief, chief, grief; kerchief, handkerchief, mischief; gulf, turf, surf; fife, strife; proof, hoof, roof, reproof, follow the general rule. Also nouns in ff have their plural in e; as, muff, muffs; except staff, which has sometimes staves.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Some nouns form the plural irregularly. They are the following:

Singular.

Man men		1 ootu	teetn	
Woman	women	Goose	geese	
Child	children	Mouse	mice	
Foot	feet	Louse	lice	
0x	oxen	Penny	pence	
Singular.			Plural.	
Brother (one of the same family)		brothers		
Brothe	er (one of the sai	ne society)	brethren	
	r swine		sows or swine	
Die (for gaming) Die (for coining)			dice	
			dies	
Aid-de-camp			aids-de-camp	

Plural.

Singular.

Aid-de-camp

Plural.

Singular.	Plural
Court-martial	courts-martial
Cousin-german	cousins-germ an
Father-in-law, &c.	fathers-in-law, &c.

2. Words from foreign languages sometimes retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in um or on have a in the plural; but is, in the singular, is changed into es; ex and ix into ices; us into i; as,

Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Arcanum	arcana	Crisis	crise s
Automaton	auto <u>m</u> ata	Apex	apices
Axis	axes	Magus	magi

- 3. Proper names have the plural only when they refer to a race or family; as, the *Stewarts*; or to several persons of the same name; as, the twelve *Cæsars*.
- 4. Names of metals, virtues, vices, and things weighed or measured, are mostly singular; as, gold, meekness, temperance, milk, sugar, &c.
- 5. Some nouns are plural only; as, annals, data, bellows, scissors, &c.
- 6. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, deer, sheep, trout, salmon, &c.
- 7. Some nouns are plural in form, but in construction either singular or plural; as, amends, means, news, riches, pains; and the names of sciences; as, mathematics, ethics, &c.
- 8. The article a or an before a singular noun is dropped before the plural; as, singular, a man; plural, men.

QUESTIONS.

What is meant by number? How many numbers are there? What does the singular denote?—the plural? How is the plural commonly formed? When is the plural formed by adding es? How do nouns in y after a consonant, form the plural?—after a vowel?—nouns in f or fe? When have proper names a plural? What nouns are mostly singular? What nouns are plural only? What nouns are alike in both numbers? What nouns are plural un form, but either singular or plural in construction?

EXERCISES.

1. Put the following words in the plural and give the rule for forming it; thes, "Chair, plural chairs." Rule, "The plural is commonly formed, &c.; Fas, plural, fases." R. "Nouns in s, sh, &c.

Chair, fox, table, cat, dog, horse, house, hand, finger, arm, boy, girl; dish, church, box, miss, sky, body, key, day, toy, leaf, knife, wife, loaf. An apple, (Obs. 8, above,) a pear, a cherry, a bush, a church, a bell.

2. Write or spell the singular of the following plurals, and prefix the indefinite article:

Flies, boxes, leaves, brushes, knives, marshes, bays, tables, bushes, trees, dogs, ducks, geese, wives, duties, churches, matches, mice, days, keys, staves, &c.

3. Tell the plural of the following irregular nouns:

Man, woman, child, ox, tooth, foot, goose, penny, mouse; father-in-law, mother-in-law, court-martial, fisherman, washerwoman, cousin-german, &c.

4. Tell the gender and number of the following nouns; give the plural and the rule for forming it; thus, "House," a noun, neuter, singular; plural, "housea" "The plural is commonly formed, &c."

House, boy, stone, boat, father, king, knife, aunt, emperor, governess, pen, lioness, baron, sister, brother, lord, box, bush, rush, goose, batchelor, doe, bride, fly, loaf, study, coach, toy, mouth, watch, hero, church, tree, way, wife, half, fish, table, mother, apple, cherry, &c.

LESSON IX.

Of the Cases of Nouns.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

Case is the state or condition of a noun with respect to the other words in a sentence.

Nouns have three cases, viz. the Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

The Nominative case expresses that of which something is said or declared; as, the sun shines.

The Possessive denotes that to which something belongs; as, the lady's fan.

The Objective denotes the object of some action or relation; as, James assists Thomas; they live in Albany.

The nominative and objective are alike.

The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe and s to the nominative; as, John's.

When the plural ends in s, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only; as, ladies'.

	NOUNS	ARE THUS	DECLINED;	
	Singular.	Plural.	. Singular.	Phural.
Nom.	Lady	Ladies	${f J}{ m ohn}$	
Poss.	Lady's	Ladies'	John's	
Obi.	Ladv	Ladies	John	

Proper names generally want the plural.

Parsing.—A noun is parsed by telling its gender number, and case; thus, Lady's, a noun feminine singular, the possessive.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. When the nominative singular ends in ss, or letters of a similar sound, the s after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted; as, "for goodness' sake;" "for conscience' sake." This however is seldom if ever done, unless the word following begins with s; thus, we do not say "the prince' feather," but "the prince's feather."
- 2. The objective case, with of before it, is generally equivalent to the possessive; thus, "the rage of the tyrant," and "the tyrant's rage, mean the same thing. Sometimes, however, the meaning will be different. [See Gr. § 12.]

QUESTIONS.

What is case? How many cases have nouns? What does the nominative case express?—the possessive?—the objective? What two cases are alike? How is the possessive singular formed?—the possessive plural?

EXERCISES.

Gender, Number, and Case.

Tell the gender, number, and case of the following nouns; thus, "Father," a noun, masculine, singular, the nominative." Parse the nouns.

Father, mother, sister's husband, brother's wife, uncle's house, Tom's books, city, virtue's reward, brother's widow, Washington the hero, the statesman, the father of his country, carpenter, farmer, lawyer's fees, teacher's manual, scholar's assistant, ladies' gloves, beans, peas, plums, cherries, houses, lands, rivers, mountains, sun, moon, stars, &c.

[Review the whole thoroughly from the beginning, answering accurately all the questiona.]

LESSON X.

Of the Adjective.

An Adjective is a word added to a noun to express its quality, or to limit its signification; as, a good boy; a square box; ten dollars.

In using the above exercises it will save much time, which is all important, if the people be taught to say every thing belonging to the noun in the fewest words possible, and to say them always in the same order as above. For the same reason the distinction of nouns into proper and common may be omitted. And as person has nothing to do with the form of a noun, but only with its use, and as nouns are almost always of the third person, the mention of person may be omitted; but when the noun is of the first or second person, it should be mentioned. It will also be a profitable exercise for him to assign a reason for every part of his description; thus, Father, a noun, because the name of an object; masculine, because it denotes the male sex; singular, because it denotes but one; plural, fathers. Rule, "The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular."

Adjectives denoting number are called Numeral adjectives. Of these there are two classes; the Cardinal and the Ordinal.

The Cardinal are, one, two, three, &c. and express how many—written in figures, thus, 1, 2, 3, &c.

The Ordinal are, first, second, third, &c., and express which one of a number—written in figures, thus, 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, &c.

ILLUSTRATION.—A noun or the name of a thing being mentioned brings before the mind the idea of the thing itself. Thus, the word "horse," for example, suggests the idea of the animal so called. But if we wish to describe or point out a particular horse more definitely and to distinguish it from others of the same species, we connect with the name or noun a word denoting some property or quality by which it may be known or distinguished; as, "a little horse;" "an old horse;" "a black horse," &c. Words used for this purpose are called Adjectives, because they add to or connect with the noun the idea of some quality or property belonging to it. Sometimes several of these may be joined with the same noun; as, when we say, "a little old black horse;" "a smooth white round stone;" "the good old way."

In any phrase or sentence the adjectives qualifying a noun may generally be found by prefixing the phrase "What kind of," to the noun in the form of a question; as, What kind of a horse? What kind of a stone? What kind of a way? The word containing the answer to the question is an adjective.

It may assist the "young beginner" also to remember that a word which makes sense with the word thing after it, is an adjective; thus, good, bad, little, round, may be adjectives, because we can say, a good thing, a bad thing, a little thing, &c.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. Nouns become adjectives when they are used before other nouns to express a quality or property belonging to them; as, a gold ring; a silver cup; sea water; a hay field; a flower garden.
- 2. Adjectives are often used as nouns; as, "God rewards the good and punishes the bad." "The virtuous are the most happy." Adjectives thus used are regarded as plural, because they denote more than one.

QUESTIONS.

What is an adjective? What are adjectives denoting number called? What is a numeral adjective? How many classes of

numeral adjectives are there? What are the cardinal numbers? What do they express? What are the ordinal numbers? What do they express? When do nouns become adjectives? Are adjectives ever used as nouns? Of what number are they considered?

EXERCISES.

1. In the following exercise let the pupil first point out the nouns, and then the adjectives; and tell how he knows them to be so.

A round table, a pretty dog, a little mouse, a low chair, a small book, a sharp knife, white paper, dirty books, ugly faces, a beautiful flower, a rich man, fresh fish, a wild horse, a short man, an old hat, a fierce dog, a good pen, a wise king, an honest man, tame rabbits, a fine day, a sweet apple, a long stick, a little handsome old woman, a thick square book, a large white cat, a new book, a clean white frock, a full cup, an empty mug, a warm room, a wet towel, a cold rainy night, a cloudy sky, windy weather, hard frost, deep snow.

- 2. In the above Exercises let the pupil take each noun and prefix to it as many adjectives as he can think of, so as to make sense. As, for example, "table," high table, low table, long table, &c. &c., and in reciting put the emphasis on the adjective.
- 3. Let him take each adjective and add to it as many nouns as he can think of, so as to make sense; as, "round," a round ball, a round hole, a round house, a round case, etc., and put the emphasis on the noun.

LESSON XI.

Comparison of Adjectives.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

Comparison is that property of the adjective by which it expresses quality in different degrees in objects compared.

Adjectives have three degrees of comparison; the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

The Positive expresses the quality simply;

The Comparative expresses the quality in a higher or lower degree in one object than in another;

The Superlative expresses the quality in the highest or lowest degree in one object compared with two or more.

In monosyllables the comparative is formed by adding er or r to the positive, and the superlative by adding est or st; as, tall, taller, tallest; wise, wiser, wisest.

Adjectives of more than one syllable are usually compared by prefixing more and most; as, beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. Dissyllables in le after a mute, are generally compared by er and est; as, able, abler, ablest. After a consonant y is changed into i before er and est; as, dry, drier, driest; happy, happier, happiest; But y with a vowel before it, is not changed; as, gay, gayer, gayest.
- 2. Some adjectives form the superlative by adding most to the end of the word; as, upper, uppermost. So, undermost. foremost, hindmost, utmost.
- 2. When the positive ends in a simple consonant, preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled before er and est; as hot, hotter, hottest.
 - 4. Some adjectives do not admit of comparison, viz:

 1st. Such as denote number; as, one, two; third, fourth.

 2d. ______ figure or shape; as, circular, square.
 - 3d. _____ posture, or position; as, perpendicular,
 - 4th. Those of an absolute or superlative signification; as, true, perfect, universal, chief, extreme, &c.
 - 5. Some adjectives are compared irregularly, as follows:

ADJECTIVES COMPARED IRREGULARLY.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Good	bette r	best
Bad, evil or ill	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much or many	more	most
Late	later	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest or next
Far	farther	farthest
Fore	former	foremost or first
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest

6. Much is applied to things weighed or measured; many, to those that are numbered. Elder and eldest, to persons only; older and oldest, either to persons or things.

QUESTIONS.

What is comparison? How many degrees of comparison are there? What does the positive denote?—the comparative?—the superlative? How are monosyllables compared?—words of more than one syllable?—dissyllables in le after a mute?—in y after a consonant? What sort of adjectives double the final consonant before er and est? What adjectives are not compared? What adjectives are compared irregularly?

PARSING.—Adjectives are parsed by stating their class, (if numerals,) the degree of comparison and the nouns which they qualify. If not compared it should be so stated.

EXERCISES.

A good father, a wiser-man, a more beautiful girl,

^{1.} Point out the adjectives in the following exercise; parse them; compare them; thus, a good father; "Good," an adjective, positive degree, qualifies "fa. ther," compared irregularly, good, better, best.

Point out the nouns, and parse them by telling their gendes, number, and case, as directed; thus, "father." a noun, masculine, singular, the nominative.

wild horses, young colts, a sweeter apple, the wisest prince, green trees, the honest farmers, the most virtuous people, the richer tradesman, the better scholar, the tallest girl, the finer sheep, large oranges, the merriest fellows, the old soldier, pretty dogs, an ugly calf, the tamest rabbits, the little mouse, the longest stick, a wider table, a most excellent thing, the highest house, the most fruitful garden.

Numerals.—Four men, the fourth day, six days, the seventh day, 365 days, ten horses, the first time, of four houses the first is of wood, the second of stone, the third and fourth of brick.

- 3. Turn back and go over the adjectives in the exercise, Lesson X. in the same way.
- 4. In both exercises change singular nouns into plural, and plural into singular, give the rule for the plural, and then read the phrase so changed; thus, Futher, "The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular," good fathers.

LESSON XII.

Of the Pronoun.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as, John is a good boy; he is diligent in his studies.

Pronouns may be divided into three classes; Personal, Relative, and Adjective.

ILLUSTRATION.—Pronouns are used simply to avoid the too frequent and consequently disagreeable repetition of the nouns for which they stand. Thus, instead of saying, John is a good boy; John is diligent in John's studies; we use the pronoun, and say as above, "John is a good boy; he is diligent in his studies." In the use of pronouns, care should be taken to arrange the sentence in such a way as to leave no doubt to what noun they refer.

The three classes of pronouns are used in different ways, as will be seen under each.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Personal Pronouns stand instead of nouns, and are used in the same way. They are I, thou, he, she, it; with their plurals, we, ye or you, they.

They are called personal because by a particular form they mark the person of the noun for which they stand; thus,

I denotes the first person, or the speaker.

Thou denotes the second person, or the one spoken to.

He, she, it, denote the third person; i. e. the person or thing spoken of.

The personal pronouns are thus declined:

	SI	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.		
	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Poss.	OH.
1. m. or f.	Ι	mine	me	We	ours	us
2. m. or f.	Thou	thine	thee	You	yours	you
3. masc.	He	his	him	They	theirs	them
3. fem.	She	hers	her	They	theirs	them
3. neut.	It	its	it	They	theirs	them

OBSERVATIONS.

- I. Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, with their plurals, ourselves, yourselves, themselves, are called Compound personal prenouns, used in the nominative and objective cases. In the nominative they are emphatic, and are added to their respective personal pronouns, or are used instead of them; as, "I myself did it;" "himself shall come." In the objective they are reflexive, showing that the agent is also the object of his own act; as, "Judas went and hanged himself."
- 2. In proclamations, charters, editorial articles, and the like, we is frequently applied to one person.
- 3. In addressing persons, you is commonly put both for the singular and the plural, and has always a plural verb. Thou is used only in addresses to the Deity, or any important object in nature; or to mark special emphasis, or, in the language of contempt. The plural form, ye, is now but seldom used.
- 4. The pronoun it, besides its use as the neuter pronoun of the third person, is also used indefinitely with the verb to be in the

third person singular, for all genders, numbers, and persons; as, It is I. it is we, it is you, it is they; It was she, &c

- 5 The possessive case of the pronoun cannot, like the possessive of the noun, be followed by the name of the thing possessed. Thus, we can say, Mary's book, but not "hers book;" and yet we can say equally well, "It is Mary's," or, "it is hers." In both of these last expressions the name of the thing possessed is not expressed but implied. [See Gr. Ap. III. 4.]
- 6. Hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, should never be written her's, it's, our's, your's, their's.

Parsing.—The personal pronouns may be parsed briefly thus; *I*, the first personal pronoun, masculine (or feminine), singular, the nominative.

· QUESTIONS.

What is a pronoun? How are pronouns divided? What is a personal pronoun? Why is it called personal? What are they? Decline the first—the second—the third. Of what person is I?— thou?—he, she, it? What does the first person denote?—the second?—the third? To what class do myself, thyself, &c. belong? In what cases are they used? How are they applied in the nominative?—in the objective? How is you applied?—thou?—it?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Go over the following list of pronouns and tell their person. Go over them again and tell their gender: again and tell their number: again and tell their case: and lastly, tell their gender, number, and case, together.
- I, thou, we, me, us, thine, he, him, she, hers, they, thee, them, its, theirs, you, her, ours, yours, mine, his, I, me, them, us, we, thou, thine, ye, ours, yours.
- 2. Point out the pronouns in the following exercise. Parse them by telling their person, gender, number, and case; thus, "me," a pron. lst. pers. masc. sing. the objective.
- 3. Point out the nouns and parse them; the adjectives and parse them. Compare them.
- 4. Read over each sentence and tell what each of the pronouns stands for; thus, me stands for the speaker; you for the person spoken to, &c.

Give me the pears you bought of him; I like them better than the apple he bought; it was sour. She told us what we said to her and they heard her. Put it on, will you? He likes them because they are sweet. Take them to John. I gave them to her. We will do it if you wish. The men said they would do it. The girl said she did not know them. The boy thought he knew them. You and I went with them to meet her after she had seen him. He and I can do it, though you cannot. James bought that book; it is therefore his, and not hers.

5. Take any easy reading lesson, and go over it in the same way.

LESSON XIII.

Of Relative Pronouns.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

1. A RELATIVE Pronoun is a word that relates to a noun or pronoun before it, called the antecedent; as, the master who taught us.

The antecedent is commonly a noun or pronoun; sometimes a clause of a sentence; as.

The boy who reads:

He who does well will be rewarded;

James is sick, which accounts for his absence.

ILLUSTRATION.—The proper use of the relative is to connect a defining or limiting clause with an antecedent noun or pronoun for the purpose of farther describing it. The relative clause serves the same purpose as an adjective or other defining word, and consequently must always stand in the same sentence with the antecedent or word described. Indeed an adjective will sometimes be equivalent to the relative and its clause; thus, "The man toho is good is happy;" and "the good man is happy," mean the same thing. Here the relative clause, "who is good," limits and describes the word man preceding it. It is not any man, nor every man, nor the rich man, but the good man, that is happy.

2. The relative pronouns are who, which and that.

Who and which are alike in both numbers; and are thus declined.

	Sing. and Plur.	Sing. and Plur.
Nom.	\mathbf{W} ho	Which
Poss.	$\mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{hose}}$	Whose
Obj.	\mathbf{W} hom	Which.

3. Who is applied to persons; as, the boy who reads:

And also to inferior animals, and things without life, when they are represented as speaking and acting like rational beings.

4. Which is applied to inferior animals and things without life; as, the dog which barks; the book which was lost:

And also to collective nouns composed of persons; as, "the court of Spain which;" "the company which." And likewise after the name of a person used merely as a word; as, "The court of Queen Elizabeth, which was but another name for prudence and economy."

Which was formerly applied to persons as well as things, and is so used in the common version of the Scriptures.

- 5. That is often used as a relative, to prevent the too frequent repetition of who or which. It is indeclinable, and applied both to persons and things.
- 6. What is a compound relative, including both the relative and the antecedent; as, this is what I wanted, that is, the thing which I wanted.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE RELATIVE.

1. Whoever, whosever, whatever, and whatsoever, are also used as compound relatives, and are equivalent to the relative and a general or indefinite antecedent; as, "Whosoever committeth sin is the servant of sin;" that is, "any one," or "every one who committeth sin, &c." "Whatsoever things are of good re-

- port," i. e. "All things (without exception) which are of good report." [See Gr. § 59, Rule III.]
- 2 Which and what are sometimes used as adjectives, and have a noun following them; as, "Tell me what books you are reading;" "Which things are an allegory." In 'bis sense, which applies either to persons or things, and in meaning is equivalent to this or these.
- 8. Who, and also which and what without a noun following, are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns; as, I do not know who will be our next President.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

In asking questions, who, which, and what are called Interrogative pronouns.

As interrogatives, who is applied to persons only; which and what, either to persons or things. What admits of no variation.

Parsing.—The relative is parsed by stating its gender, number, case, and antecedent, (the gender and number being always the same as those of the antecedent) thus, "The boy who." "Who" is a relative pronoun, masculine, singular, the nominative, and refers to "boy" as its antecedent.

QUESTIONS.

What is a relative pronoun? What is the word to which it relates called? What is the proper use of the relative pronoun? What are the relative pronouns? What is who applied to? What is which applied to? Why is that used as a relative? To what is it applied? What sort of a relative is what? What does it include? What sort of words are whoever, &c.? When which and what are followed by nouns, what part of speech are they? What are the interrogative pronouns? Why are they called interrogative? As an interrogative, what is who applied

te?—which?—what? In parsing the relative, what is mentioned? How is the gender and number of the relative known?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Is it proper to say—the man who, or the man which? why?
 the dog who, or the dog which? why?
 the tree who, or the tree which? why?
 the family who, or the family which? why?
- 2. In the following sentences point out the relative and the word to which it relates; also the interrogatives.
- 3. What is the use of the relative in the first sentence? in the second? in the third? &c. (See Illustration, p. 29.)

The boy who studies will improve. I love the man who tells the truth, but all hate him who deals in falsehood. Do you remember the man whom we met? There is the book which you lost. It is the same book that you bought. That is the lady who has been kind to us, and whose hand is ever open to the poor. It is the hand of the diligent that maketh rich. He that giveth to the poor lendeth to the Lord. The temple which Solomon built. Who gave you that book which you prize so much? Which house is yours? He who preserves me, to whom I owe my being, whose I am, and whom I serve, is eternal.

LESSON XIV.

Of Adjective Pronouns.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

There are four sorts of Adjective pronouns, viz: the Possessive, Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite.

1. The possessive pronouns are such as relate to

possession or property. They are, my, thy, his, her, our, your, their, its, own.

- 2. The distributive pronouns represent the persons or things that make up a number as taken separately. They are, each, every, either, neither.
- 3. The demonstrative pronouns point out with precision the object to which they relate. They are, this and that, with their plurals these and those.
- 4. The indefinite pronouns denote persons or things indefinitely. They are, none, any, all, such, whole, some, both, one, other. The two last are declined like nouns.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. These pronouns are called adjective, because like adjectives they either are, or may be followed by a noun.
- 2. Possessive pronouns have the same meaning as the possessive case of the personal pronouns to which they relate, but are used differently. The possessive pronoun must always have a noun after it, the possessive case of the personal, never; but always refers to a noun previously expressed; thus,

Possessive Pronoun.
This is my book
That is her pen
This is your hat
It is their house

Possessive Case.
This book is mine
That pen is hers
That pen is hers
This hat is yours
The house is theirs

- 3. His and her followed by a noun are possessive pronouns; not followed by a noun they are personal pronouns.
- 4. That is sometimes a demonstrative, sometimes a relative and sometimes a conjunction; thus,

Dem. That book is mine.

Rel. It is the same that I bought.

Conj. I read, that I may learn.

Note. Onen is added to another possessive to make it emphatic; as "my own;" "their own," "the boy's own book."

- 5 Among indefinites may also be reckoned such words as no, few, many, several, and the like;—the compounds whoever, whatever, which sever, &c., and who, which, and what, in responsive sentences.
- None is used in both numbers, but it cannot be joined to a noun.

Parsing.—Adjective pronouns are parsed by stating their class and the noun to which they belong. In demonstratives, state also the number; thus,

"My book." My is a possessive adjective pronoun; refers to book."

QUESTIONS.

How many sorts of adjective pronouns are there? Name them. Why called adjective pronouns? What is a possessive pronoun? Name the possessive pronoun? What is a distributive pronoun? Name them—An indefinite pronoun? Name them. In what are possessive pronouns and the possessive case of personal pronouns the same? In what do they differ? Give an example of the use of each How is "own" used? When are his and her possessives?—when personals? In how many different ways is "that" used? How is "none" used? How are adjective pronouns parsed?

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise point out the adjective pronouns and parse them— $\dot{}$ the nouns and parse them :

My book, her shoes, your horse, their father, his brother, every hour, that table, these quills. This is my book; that book is yours. Where is my hat? These apples are good; give some to your brothers. I will give one to each. I have given them all away, every one. Every day try to do good to some person. This book will do as well as that one. Every boy should keep his own books. Do good to all men—injury to none.

LESSON XV.

EXERCISES

On Articles, Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns.

 In the following Exercises point out the articles and parse them;—the nouse and parse them;—the adjectives and parse them;—the pronouns and parse them:

I found my hat upon your table; but where is yours? Who put that glove in my cap? Have you seen the book which my father gave to me? That rod of yours is longer than mine, but not so long as John's. Those trees have lost their leaves. Every book on that shelf is mine; I will give you a list of them. Keep this knife for my sake; it is a good one. All men are mortal; time waits for no one; a wise man will improve every moment to some useful purpose. An idle man will come to poverty; but he that is diligent increases his store. They that walk with the wise shall be wise; but a companion of fools shall be destroyed.

- [1. Review thoroughly from Lesson X., answering promptly and accurately all the questions.
- 2. Review from the beginning, reciting accurately all the definitions and rules, and answering the questions. This may require two or three recitations.]

LESSON XVI.

Of Verbs.

- 1. A VERB is a word that expresses an action or state; as, I write, you sit, he sleeps, they are.
- 2. Verbs are of two kinds, Transitive and Intransitive.*

The word "Transitive" means passing over; "Intransitive" not passing

- 3. A Transitive Verb expresses an act done by one person or thing to another; as, James strikes the table.
- 4. An Intransitive Verb expresses being, or a state of being, or action confined to the actor; as, I am, he sleeps, you run.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The use of the verb in simple sentences is to affirm or declare. That of which it affirms or declares is called its subject, or nominative.
- 2. Transitive verbs include all those which express an act that passes over from the actor to an object acted upon; as, He loves us. Here "He" is the actor, "loves" expresses the act, and us, the object loved, or acted upon. The same thing can be expressed by another form; thus, "We are loved by him." Of these two forms of the verb, the first is called the active voice, and the second the passive voice.

Intransitive verbs include all verbs not transitive, whether they express action or not; and they have only one form; namely, that of the active voice; as, I am; you walk; they run. A few have the passive form, but the sense is the same in both; as, "I am come;" and "I have come."

- 3. Intransitive verbs are sometimes rendered transitive by adding a noun of the same or similar signification with themselves, as an object; thus, intransitive, I run; transitive, I run a race.
- 4. The same verbs are used sometimes in a transitive, and sometimes in an intransitive sense; thus, transitive, "Charity thinketh no evil;" intransitive, "Think on me."
- 5. Transitive and intransitive verbs may be distinguished by the sense, as follows:
- 1st. A transitive active verb requires an object after it to complete the sense; as, The boy studies grammar. An intransitive verb requires no object after it, but the sense is complete without it; as, He sits, you ride.

- 2d. Every transitive active verb can be changed into the passive form; thus, "James strikes the table," can be changed into "The table is struck by James." But the intransitive verb cannot be so changed; thus, I smile, cannot be changed into I am smiled.
- 3d. In the use of the transitive verb there are always three things implied; the actor, the act, and the object acted upon. In the use of the intransitive there are only two—the subject or thing spoken of, and the state, or action attributed to it.
- ELUSTRATION.—The verb is the most important part of speech. It is a necessary word in every sentence. Without it we can neither affirm nor deny, nor express any fact or thought. It was therefore called the Verb, that is, the word, by way of eminence, or of all others the most important. As we wish to express an act or state in a great variety of ways; as, present, past, future, actual, contingent, conditional, &c., so there are a great variety of forms assumed by the verb in order to express those things. It is therefore very necessary for the pupil to be well acquainted with this part of speech. At this stage, two things must be attended to; both of them very important.
- 1. The first thing is to distinguish the verb from every other part of speech. This can easily be done, if the pupil will only remember that every word that tells us what a person or thing does, or what is done to a person or thing, is a verb. Thus, when we say, "John writes;" "the boys study;" "the dog was killed;" we know that "terites" is a verb, because it tells us what "John" does; that "study" is a verb, because it tells us what "the boys" do; and that "was killed" is a verb, because it tells us what was done to "the dog;" and so of others.
- 2. The second thing is to know when a verb is transitive and when intransitive. Now when the verb tells what one person or thing does to another, or what is done to one person or thing by another, the verb is transitive. Thus, when it is said "James eats apples;" we know, first, that "eats" is a verb, because it tells what James does; and secondly, that it is transitive, because it tells what James does to the apples.

But when that which a person or thing does, is not done to another person or thing, the verb is intransitive. Thus, in the sentence, "James runs," we know that "runs" is a verb, because it tells what James does; and that it is intransitive, because what James does is not done to any other person or thing.

3. Verbs that denote merely to be or exist, are always intransitive.

QUESTIONS.

What is a verb? How many classes of verbs are there? What is a transitive verb?—an intransitive? What is the use of the verb in simple sentences? What is the subject of a verb? What does the word transitive mean?—intransitive? How many voices has the transitive verb?—the intransitive? How do you know

which word in a sentence is a verb? How do you know whether it is transitive or intransitive?

EXERCISES.

- In the following Exercises, point out the verbs and tell how you know them to be verbs; thus, "learn" is a verb, because it tells us what "boys" do; "rides" is a verb, because it tells us what "a man" does, &c.
- 2. Tell which verbs are transitive, and which intransitive, and how you know them to be so; thus, "learn" is transitive, because it tells what boys do to lessons; "rides" is intransitive, because what "a man" does, is not done to any other person or thing.

Boys learn lessons. A man rides. We read a book. My dog barks. The fire burns. The fire burns me. He took their apples. You saw them. We touched it. They strike her. I threw a stone at his window. They killed my rabbit. The horses eat their corn. The cows drink water. I can ride well. A ride improves the health. That man walks fast. A long walk tires me. I love her and you.

In the following sentences it takes two and sometimes three words to make the verb; and these two or three are always parsed together as one word.

I will water the garden. James can write a letter. You may ride on my horse. Robert will give a book to you. Yes, he will give you a book. You must light the candle. Your father has sold his horse. I have bought him. John will brush your coat. He should have brushed it before. James will have written his letter before night. He may have written it already.

LESSON XVII.

Division of Verbs.

[Review thoroughly the preceding Lesson.]

1. In respect of form, verbs are divided into Regular, Irregular, and Defective.

- 2. A REGULAR VERB is one that forms its Imperfect Indicative and its Perfect participle by adding d or ed to the Present; as, Present, love; Imperfect, loved; Perfect participle, loved.
- 3. An IRREGULAR VERB is one that does not form its Imperfect Indicative and Perfect participle by adding d or ed to the Present; thus, Present, write; Imperfect, wrote; Perfect participle, written.
- 4. A DEFECTIVE VERB is one that wants some of its parts. They are chiefly the Auxiliary and Impersonal verbs.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

The AUXILIARY, or helping verbs, by the help of which verbs are principally inflected, are the following, which, as auxiliaries, are used only in the present and past tenses; viz:

Pres. Do, have, shall, will, may, can, am, mest.

Past. Did, had, should, would, might, could, was,

And the participles (of be,) being, been.

Am, do, and have, are also principal verbs.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The auxiliary (or helping) verbs are so called because by their help the verb is enabled to express varieties of time and manner of acting or being, which it could not do without them. The auxiliary always stands before its verb, and the two are regarded in parsing as one word; as, I will write; he has written; we may write, &c.
- 2. Of the auxiliaries, shall implies duty or obligation; will, purpose or resolution; may, liberty; can, ability. The past tense of these verbs is, should, would, might, could; but still they express time very indefinitely.

3. In affirmative sentences, will, in the first person, intimates resolution and promising; as, "I will go." In the second and third, it commonly foretels; as, "You will be happy."

Shall, in the first person, only foretels; as, "I shall go tomorrow;"—in the second and third, it promises, commands, or threatens; as, "Thou shalt not steal."

QUESTIONS.

How are verbs divided in respect of form? What is a regular verb?—an irregular verb?—a defective verb? What are the principal defective verbs? Why are auxiliary verbs so called? What verbs are principal verbs as well as auxiliary? How are the auxiliaries shall and will distinguished?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Put the following regular verbs into the Imperfect tense and Perfect participle:
- Fear, love, look, hope, show, learn, move, wash, clean, walk, desire, return, oblige, form, force, punish, support, turn, touch, disturb, place, try, deny, cry, delay.
 - 2. Change the following verbs from the Imperfect tense into the Present:

Marked, protected, composed, favored, turned, hated, mixed, believed, wounded, rushed, preached, hunted, crushed, preached, warned, pleaded, loved, ended.

In the following list tell which verbs are regular and which are irregular; and why.

Present. Spoil	Imperfect, or Past. spoiled	Perf. Participle. spoiled
Go	went	gone
Take	to ok	taken
Write	wrote	written
Hope	hoped	hoped
Run	ran	run
Freeze	froze	frozen
Spy	spied	spied
Obey	obeyed	obeyed

LESSON XVIII.

Inflection of Verbs.

[Review the two preceding Lessons.]

To the inflection of verbs belong Voices, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons;—also Participles.

OF VOICE.

VOICE is a particular form of the verb which shows the relation of the *subject*, or thing spoken of, to the action expressed by the verb.

In English the transitive verb has always two voices, the Active and Passive.

1. The ACTIVE VOICE represents the subject of the verb as acting upon some object; as, James strikes the table.

Here the verb "strikes," in the active voice, indicates what its subject, "James," does to the object, table.

2. The Passive voice represents the subject of the verb as acted upon by some person or thing; as, The table is struck by James.

Here the verb "is struck," in the passive voice, indicates what is done to the subject, "table," by James.

- 3. The passive voice is formed by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary verb "to be," through all its moods and tenses. [See Lesson XXVII.]
- 4. Intransitive verbs have not a passive voice. A few admit a passive form but not a passive sense; thus, I am come, which means the same thing as I have come.

5. When a verb, usually intransitive, is made transitive, [Less. XVI. Obs. 3,] it is then capable of a passive voice; as, "My race is run."

ILLUSTRATION.—Both the active and the passive voice express precisely the same act, but each in a different way. With the active voice the subject (that is, the person or thing spoken of,) does the act, or is active; with the passive voice the subject is acted upon, or is passive. The words active and passive then strictly belong to the subject, but are properly used to distinguish those voices or forms of the verb which show that the subject acts or is acted upon: that is, the form of the verb which represents its subject as active, is called the Active voice; and that which represents its subject as passive, is called the Passive voice.

Remembering then that the subject or nominative of a verb is the person or thing spoken of, when in any sentence we see that that subject acts, we know that the verb is in the active voice; thus, when we say, "Cæsar conquered Gaul," we see that "Cæsar," the person spoken of, is represented as acting, and therefore "conquered" is in the active voice. Again, when we say, "Gaul was conquered by Cæsar," the subject or thing spoken of is Gaul; it is represented as acted upon, and therefore "was conquered" is in the passive voice.

QUESTIONS.

What belongs to the inflection of verbs? What is meant by Voice? How many voices has the transitive verb in English? What are they? How does the active voice represent its subject? How does the passive voice represent it? How is the passive voice formed? What voice have intransitive verbs? Have they ever a passive form? Have they ever a passive sense? When intransitive verbs are made transitive, can they be used in the passive voice?

EXERCISES.

In each of the following sentences the pupil may be questioned, as on the first, so the following manner: Who is the person spoken of in this sentence? Ans. John. What is said of John? Ans.—He studies. Does the word studies represent John as acting or as acted upon? Ans.—As acting. In what voice then is "studies?"? Ans.—Active voice. Change the sentence so as to make "grammar" the thing spoken of and express the same meaning. Ans.—"Grammar is studied by John." Analyze this sentence in the same way as the other.

John studies grammar. Cain slew Abel. Noah built the ark. The temple was built by Solomon. Columbus discovered America. Pride ruins thousands. Most men are governed by custom. I have written a letter.

LESSON XIX.

Of the Moods.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

Moon is the mode or manner of expressing the signification of the verb.

Verbs have five moods; namely, the Indicative, Potential, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.

- 1. The Indicative mood simply declares a thing; as, He loves; He is loved; or, it asks a question; as, Lovest thou me?
- 2. The POTENTIAL mood never declares the positive existence of a thing, either as present, past, or future; but simply the possibility, liberty, power, will, or obligation to be, to do, or to suffer; as,

The wind may blow; We may walk or ride; I can swim; He would not stay; You should obey your parents.

3. The SUBJUNCTIVE mood represents a thing under a condition, supposition, motive, wish, &c., and is preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, and attended by another verb in the indicative future, potential, or imperative; as,

If thy presence go not with us, carry us not up hence.

4. The IMPERATIVE mood commands, exhorts, entreats, or permits; as,

Do this; Remember thy Creator; Hear, O my people; Go thy way for this time.

5. The Infinitive mood expresses a thing in a general manner, without any distinction of number or person, and commonly has to before it; as, To love.

OBSERVATIONS.

I The subjunctive mood differs from the indicative only in the second and third person singular of the present tense. The verb "to be" differs also in the imperfect.

- 2. The imperative mood, strictly speaking, has only the second person, singular and plural; because, in commanding, exhorting, &c. the language of address is always used; thus, "Let him love," is equivalent to, "Let thou him love;" where Let is the proper imperative, and love the infinitive governed by it. [See Lesson LVIII. 1, 2.]
- 3. The infinitive mood may be considered as a verbal noun, having the nominative and objective cases, but not the possessive; and hence it is used both as the subject of another verb, and as the object after it. [See Lesson XLI., Sub-Rule II., and Less. XLII. Obs.]

QUESTIONS.

What is mood? How many moods are there? How does the Indicative mood express an action or state?—the Potential?—the Subjunctive?—the Imperative?—the Infinitive? In what part does the Subjunctive differ from the Indicative? How many persons has the Imperative mood? How may the Infinitive mood be considered? As a verbal noun, what cases has it?

N. B. Exercises on this and the following Lesson will be better understood after the pupil has gone through Lesson XXIII.

They are therefore omitted here.

LESSON XX.

Of Tenses, or Distinctions of Time.

[Review the two preceding Lessons.]

Tenses are certain modifications of the verb which point out the distinctions of time.

Time is naturally divided into the Present, Past, and Futures.

And an action may be represented, either as incomplete and com-

tinuing, or, as completed at the time spoken of. This gives rise to six tenses, only two of which are expressed in English by a distinct form of the verb. The others are formed by the aid of auxiliary verbs; thus,

PRESENT.

Action continuing; as, I love, I do love, I am loving.

Action completed; as, I have loved.

Action continuing; as, I loved, I did love, I was loving.

Action completed; as, I had loved.

Action continuing; as, I shall or will love.

Action completed; as, I shall have loved.

The tenses in English are six; namely, the Present; the Imperfect, or Past; the Perfect, or Present-Perfect; the Pluperfect, or Past-Perfect; the Future, and Future-Perfect.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

The Indicative mood has all the six tenses; they are used as follows:

- 1. The PRESENT tense expresses what is going on at the present time; as, I love you.
- 2. The IMPERFECT (or Past) tense represents an action or event indefinitely as past; as, Cæsar came, and saw, and conquered; or it represents the action definitely as unfinished and continuing at a certain time, now entirely past; as, My father was coming home when I met him.
- 3. The Perfect (or Present-perfect) tense represents an action as finished at the present time; as, John has cut his finger; I have sold my horse; I have done nothing this week.
- 4. The PLUPERFECT (or Past-perfect) represents an action or event as completed at or before a certain past time; as, "All the judges had taken their places before Sir Roger came."

- 5. The FUTURE tense represents an action or event indefinitely as yet to come; as, "I will see you again, and your hearts shall rejoice."
- 6. The Future-perfect intimates that an action' or event will be completed at or before a certain time yet future; as, I shall have got my lesson before ten o'clock to-morrow.

Note. The tenses inflected without an auxiliary, are called SIMPLE tenses: those with an auxiliary, are called Compound tenses. In the simple form of the verb, the simple tenses are the Present and Imperfect Indicative and Subjunctive, Active; all the other tenses are compound.

TENSES OF THE OTHER MOODS.

7. The POTENTIAL MOOD has four tenses; the Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, and the Pluperfect.

The tenses in this mood indicate the time, not of the act expressed by the verb, but of the liberty, power, will, or obligation, expressed by the auxiliary, or sign of the tense; thus, "I may write," does not express the act of writing as present, but only the liberty to write, expressed by the auxiliary may.

Hence the time expressed by the verb in this mood is less definite, and depends not so much on the tense as on other words with which it stands connected. This is the case especially with the Imperfect. [See Gr. § 20.]

- 8. The IMPERATIVE MOOD may always be regarded as present; i. e. the command, &c. is present, though the doing of the act commanded is future.
- 9. The Infinitive mood has two tenses; the Present and the Perfect.
- 10. Participles have two tenses; the Present and the Perfect. The last has two forms, called the Perfect and the Compound-perfect

OBSERVATIONS ON THE TENSES.

- The Present tense has three distinct forms: the simple; as, I read; the emphatic; as, I do read; and the progressive; as, I am reading.
 - 1st. The simple form expresses the simple existence of the fact; as, he speaks; she writes; they talk. [Lesson XXIII.]
 - 2d. The emphatic form expresses a fact with emphasis; as, I do write. [Lesson XXIII. Note.]
 - 3d. The progressive form represents an action as begun and in progress, but not completed; as, I am writing.— [LESSON XXVII.]
- 2. The Imperfect (or Past) tense has the same variety of forms as the Present; as, I loved, did love, was loving.

The other tenses are made emphatic by laying the emphasis on the auxiliary; as, I have written.

QUESTIONS.

What are tenses? How is time naturally divided? In each of these how may an action or state be represented? How many tenses are there in the English verb? How many has the Indicative mood? What are they? What does the Present tense express?—the Imperfect?—the Perfect?—the Pluperfect?—the Fature?—the Future.

How many tenses has the Potential mood?—the Imperative?—the Infinitive?—the Participles? How many distinct forms has the Present Indicative?—the Imperfect? How are the other tenses made emphatic?

LESSON XXI.

Of Number and Person.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

1. Every tense of the verb, except in the Infinitive mood, has two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural; and each of these has three Persons, except in the Imperative, which has only the Second.

- 2. The First person asserts of the person speaking; its subject is always I in the singular, and we in the plural; as, I write; we write.
- . 3. The Second person asserts of the person spoken to; its subject is always thou in the singular, and ye or you in the plural; as, Thou writest; ye or you write.
- 4. The Third person asserts of the person or thing spoken of; its subject is any noun, or the pronoun he, she, it, or they, used instead of it; as, John reads; he walks; they run.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The first person singular, and the first, second, and third person plural, are always alike.
- 2. The second person singular of the present indicative active, ends in st or est; as, thou lovest; thou readest;—of the imperfect, generally in st; as, thou lovedst. All the other persons in both numbers, in this tense, are alike.
- 3. Verbs that end in s, sh, ch, x, or o, form the third person singular of the present indicative, by adding es, or, in the grave style, eth; as, He teaches, or teacheth. All others add s or th; as, He loves, or loveth.
- 4. Verbs in y with a consonant before it, change y into i before the terminations est, es, eth, ed; but not before ing; as, try, triest, tries, trieth, tried, trying.
- 5. The infinitive mood, or a clause of a sentence, sometimes expresses that of which a person speaks, and is therefore the subject of the verb. When it does so it is always regarded as the third person, and a pronoun standing instead of it is in the neuter gender; as, To play is pleasant; it promotes health. [Sub-Rule II., LESSON XLI.]

QUESTIONS.

How many numbers has each tense? What mood has no distinction of number or person? How many persons are in each mamber? What mood has only the second person? Of whem does the first person assert? What is its subject in the singular?—in the plural? Of whom does the second person assert? What is its subject in the singular?—in the plural? Of whom or wha does the third person assert? What is its subject? What parts in each tense are alike? How is the second person singular formed in the present indicative?—in the imperfect? When is the third person singular of the present indicative formed by adding es, or eth?—When by adding s, or th? How is it formed when the verb ends in y after a consonant?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Tell the second person singular of the following verbs, and how it is formed.
 - 2. Tell the third person, and how it is formed.
- 3. Prefix theu to each verb when put in the second person singular; as, "thou sollest," &c.; and he to each, when put in the third; as, "he tells."

Tell, speak, sleep, walk, read, learn, smell, see, hear, taste, touch, handle, write, pay, eat, drink, warm, teach, go, do, fill, play, stand, sell, buy, study, copy.

- 4. In the following words tell which are in the first person, and why;—in the second, and why;—in the third, and why.
- 5. Prefix to each verb in the following list, the pronoun of the same person and sumber as the verb; as, I love, thou lovest, &c.

Love, lovest, loves, runs, runnest, sleep, teach, preaches, teachest, writes, write, eats, goes, goest, go, tell, teaches, speaks, read, readest, sews, pay, look, walks, jump, hop, skip, laughs, sing, cry, criest, study, studies.

LESSON XXII.

Of the Participles.

[Review the four preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

A PARTICIPLE is a part of the verb which contains no affirmation, but expresses an action or state, in connexion with time, as qualifying or describing an object. It has the construction of the adjective,

and governs like the verb; as, There is a boy amusing himself. Devoted to study, he soon became learned.

The Participles are three; the Present, the Perfect, and the Compound-Perfect.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The Present participle of the active voice has an active signification; as, James is building the house. In many verbs, however, it has also a passive signification; as, The house was building when the wall fell.
- 2. The Perfect participle, in transitive verbs, has either an active or passive signification; as, "He has concealed a dagger under his cloak;" or, "He has a dagger concealed under his cloak."
- 3. The Compound-perfect participle has an active signification only in the active voice, and a passive signification only in the passive voice.
- 4. The participle in -ing is often used as a verbal or participial noun, having the nominative and objective cases, but not the possessive. In this character, the participle of a transitive verb may still retain the government of the verb, or it may be divested of it by inserting the preposition of after it, in which case an article or possessive pronoun should always precede it. [See Gr. Syntax; § 64.]
- 5. Some participles, laying aside the idea of time, and simply qualifying a noun, become participial adjectives, and as such admit of comparison; as, An amusing—a more amusing—a most amusing story. A most devoted friend.

QUESTIONS.

What is a participle? How many participles are there? Has the participle in ing ever a passive signification? Give an example. How is the perfect participle used? Describe the use of the present participle as a verbal noun How do participles become adjectives? What are such adjectives usually called? Do they admit of comparison?

(Before proceeding to the next Lesson review thoroughly from the beginning to two or three recitations.

LESSON XXIII.

Of the Conjugation of Verbs.

[The pupil should be thoroughly drilled in this Lesson, till he is able to tell at once and correctly the tense, mood, number, and person, of every part the mement it is mentioned, and to give at once any part of the verb that may be required.]

- 1. The conjugation of a verb, is the regular combination and arrangement of its several moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.
- 2. In parsing, a verb is conjugated by giving its **Present** and **Imperfect** tenses, and **Perfect Participle**, whether it be in the active or in the passive voice; thus,

	Present,	Imperfect,	Perf. Part.
ACTIVE.	Love,	Loved,	Loved.
PASSIVE.	Am loved,	Was loved,	Been loved.

3. The regular verb, to love, is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

ACTIVE VOICE.

Present. Love.

Imperfect. Loved. Perf. Part. Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.*

Singu	lar.			Plural.	
1. person	I	love.	1.	We	love.
2.	Thou	lovest.	2.	Ye or you	love.†
3.	He	loves or loveth	3.	They	love.

• Present Tense. (Emphatic Form.)

	Singular.			\boldsymbol{P}	lural.	
I.	I do	love.		1.	We do	love.
2.	Thou dost	love.		2.	You do	love.
9	Ha door	love		•	Thur do	10.00

[†] You has always a plural verb, even when applied to a single individual.— Ye, being seldom used, is contited in the other tenses to save room.

Imperfect (or Past) Tense.*

Singular.

Plural.

ı,	T	loved.
•	Thom	lovedet

1. We loved.

2. Thou lovedst.

2. You loved.

3. He loved.

3. They loved.

Perfect (or Present-perfect) Tense.

Signs-Have, hast, has or hath.

loved.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. I have loved.
- 1. We have loved.

2. Thou hast

- 2. You have loved,
- 3. He has or hath loved.
- 3. They have loved.

Pluperfect (or Past-perfect) Tense.

Signs-Hal, hadst.

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.

Signs-Shall or will.

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.

• Imperfect Tense. (Emphatic Form.)

Singular

Plural

1. I did love.

1. We did love.

2. Thou didst love.

2. You did love.

2. He did los

2. They did love.

Future Perfect Tense.

[In reciting the following tenses, prefix the pronouns I, thou, he; We, you, they as in the preceding.]

Signs-Shall have, or will have.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Shall or will have loved.
- 1. Shall or will have loved.
- 2. Shalt or wilt have loved.
- 2. Shall or will have loved.
- 3. Shall or will have loved.
- 3. Shall or will have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Signs-May, can, or must.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. May or can or must love. 1. May or can or must love.
- 2. Mayst or canst or must love. 2. May or can or must love.
- 3. May or can or must love. 3. May or can or must love.

Imperfect (or Past) Tense.

Signs-Might, could, would, or should.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Might, could, would, or should love.
- 1. Might, could, would, or should love.
- or shouldst love.
- 2. Mightst, couldst, wouldst, 2. Might, could, would, or should love.
- 3. Might, eould, would, or should love.
- 3. Might, could, would, or should love.

Perfect (or Present-perfect) Tense.

Signs-May have, can have, or must have.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. May or must have loved. 1. May or must have loved
- . 2. Maystor must have loved. 2. May or must have loved.
 - 3. May or must have loved. 3. May or must have loved 5*

Pluperfect (or Past-perfect) Tense.

Signs-Might have, could have, would have, or should have.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Might, could, would, or should have loved.
- Might, could, would, or should have lovea.
- Mightst, couldst, wouldst, .or shouldst have loved.
 Might, could, would, or
- 2. Might, could, would, or should have loved.
- 3, Might, could, would, or should have loved
- 3. Might, could, would, or should have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.*

Singular.

Plurul.

1. *If* I love.

1. If we love.

2. If thou love.

2. If you love.3. If they love.

3. If he love.

3. If they love.

The remaining tenses of the subjunctive are the same as the

indicative with the conjunction prefixed.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

2. Love, or Love thou, or Do thou love.

2. Love, or Love ye or you, or Do ye love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To love.

Perfect. To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Loving.

Perfect. Loved.

Compound-perf. Having loved.

N. B. For the Progressive form see Lesson XXVII. • Present Tense. (Emphatic Form.)

Singular.

Plural.

l. If I do love.

1. If we do love.

2. If thou do love.

2. If you do love.

3. If he do love.

3. If they do love.

t The conjunctions, if, though, unless, &c. do not form any part of the subjunctive mood, but are usually placed before it, to express a condition, supposition, motive, wish, &c. [Lesson XIX. 3, p. 43.]

PARSING.—A verb is parsed by stating its kind, (i. e. whether transitive or intransitive,) its form, (whether regular or irregular,) conjugating it, and telling in what tense, mood, voice, number, and person, it is found; also its subject; thus,

"He loves." Loves is a verb, transitive, regular; love, loved, loved; found in the present, indicative, active,; third person, singular; and affirms of its subject, he.

N. B. It is important in parsing to state every thing belonging to a word in as few words as possible, and always in the same order.

QUESTIONS.

What is the conjugation of a verb? How is a verb conjugated in parsing? Conjugate the verb love in the active voice. Say the indicative present—imperfect—future—the perfect—the pluperfect—future-perfect. Say the first person singular, in each tense—the second—the third—the first person plural—the second—the third. Say the emphatic form, in the present—in the imperfect. What are the signs (or auxiliaries) of the perfect?—the pluperfect?—the future?—the furure-perfect?—the subjunctive present?—imperfect?—perfect?—pluperfect? &c. What is the sign of the infinitive?

EXERCISE I.

- . 1. Go over the following Exercise, and tell the tense, mood, and voice, of each verb; thus, "He loves," present, indicative, active.
- Go over it again, and tell the person and number; thus, loves, third person, singular.
- 3, Go over it again, and join these together, and so tell the tense, mood, voice, number, and person; and always in this order; as, loves, present, indicative, active, third person, singular.
- In the imperative, omit the tense, and say thus, love thou, imperative, active, second person, singular.
- In the infinitive, omit the person and number, and say thus, To love; present, infinitive, active.
 - In the participle, name only the tense and voice; thus, loving; present participle, active.
 - N. B. The pronoun is no part of the verb, but helps to shew its person and mumber; and the auxiliaries (or signs) are not taken separately, but always with

the verb; so that the two words, and sometimes three, as in the pluperfect potential, are parsed together as one word; thus, have loved; the perfect, indicative, active, &c.

N. B. This Exercise should be repeated till the pupil can do it correctly, rapidly, and easily, and without missing, either in the number or order of the things to be stated.

He loves, they love, I have loved, you will love, thou teachest, they will learn, he has written, I had given, James will go, John may come, he might read, they would have studied, children play, boys studied, they did study. Write thou, come ye. To love, to sing, to have played, reading, sleeping, running, loved, learned, having loved, having gone, birds fly, horses galloped, the fire burns, the sun did shine, the moon has changed.

N. B. Pupils may be required to make exercises of this kind for themselves.

EXERCISE II.

Before beginning this Exercise let the pupil go back and review thoroughly Lasson XVI. and the exercises on it; then

- Tell which words are verbs, and why; and whether transitive or intransitive, and why.
- Tell their tense, mood, voice, person, and number, as in the preceding Exercise.
 Go over it again, and parse each verb by putting all these together; thus, loves, is a verb, transitive, in the present, indicative, active, third person, singular.

He loves us, I will love him. Good boys will study their lessons. Children love play. The dog killed my rabbit. James has written a letter. Cows eat hay. A fire warms the room. Bring some wood. I have studied grammar. Girls may write letters. Your sister can sing. He would like to hear a song. Give that book to me. I will give this book to you. Lend me your pen. Children should obey their parents; they should love God. Remember the Sabbath day, to keep it. All men must die. Time waits for no man. Do good to all men. John will mend my pen; I will thank him. You would oblige me by assisting me to learn this lesson. Tell Henry to shut the door.

EXERCISE III.

1. The Nominative Case.

N. B. A verb in the active voice tells what some person or thing does. That person or thing then is its subject, and is in the nominative case; thus, in the first sentence of the preceding Exercise, the word "loves," tells what "he" does; he, therefore, is its subject, and is in the nominative case.

Point out the verb in each sentence of the preceding Exercise; tell what word is its subject, and why? What case is the subject in?

2. The Objective Case.

A transitive verb in the active voice tells what its subject does to some other person or thing. That person or thing is the object of the verb, and is in the objective case. Thus, in the above sentence, "He loves us," loves is a transitive verb, and tells what its subject, he, does to us. Us, then, is its object, and is in the objective case.

The nominative, or subject, is usually before the verb; the objective is usually after it.

Point out the transitive verbs in the preceding Exercise. Tell what word to the object in each sentence, and what case it is in.

EXERCISE IV.

Parsing.

Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order; the article as directed, LESSON IV. p. 10; the noun as directed, LESSON IX. p. 20; the adjustive as directed, LESSON XI. p. 25; the pronoun as directed. LESSON XII. p. 38; and the verb as directed in this lesson, p. 56.

LESSON XXIV.

Negative Form of the Verb.

The verb is made to deny by placing the word not after the shipple form; as, "Thou lovest not;" and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound form; as, "I do not love." When two auxiliaries are used, not is placed between them; as, I would not have loved. In the infinitive and participles, the negative is put first, as, Not to love; not loving.

The simple form is seldom used with the negative. In the present and past tenses, the compound or emphatic form is more common. The following synopsis will shew the manner of using the negative.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.	1. I do not love.	2. Thou dost not love, &c.
IMPERF.	1. I did not love.	2. Thou didst not love, &c.
PERFECT.	1. I have not loved.	. 2. Thou hast not loved, &c.
PLUPERF.	1. I had not loved.	2. Thou hadst not loved, &c.
FUTURE.	1. I will not love.	2. Thou wilt not love, &c.
FUT. PER.	1. I shall not have	2. Thou shalt not have
1000	loved.	loved, &c.

POTENTIAL MOOD

	POTENTI	AL MOOD.
PRESENT.	1. I can not love.	2. Thou canst not love, &c.
IMPERF.	1. I might not love.	2. Thou mightst not love, &c.
PERFECT.	1. I may not have	2. Thou mayst not have
•	loved.	loved &c.
PLUPERF.	1. I might not have	2. Thou mightst not have
	loved.	loved, &c.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. 1. If I do not love. 2. If thou do not love, &c.

The other tenses the same as in the indicative.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing. 2. Love not, or do not Plur. 2. Love not, or do not thou love. ye love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. Not to love. PERF. Not to have leved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT. Not loving.

Perf. Not loved.

Comp. Perf. Not having loved.

LESSON XXV.

Interrogative Form of the Verb.

The verb is made to ask a question by placing the nominative or subject after the simple form; as, Lovest thou? And between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound forms; as, Do I love? When there are two auxiliaries the nominative is placed between them; as, Shall I have loved?

The imperative, infinitive, and participles, cannot have the faterrogative form.

The simple form of the verb is seldom used interrogatively. The following synopsis will shew how the verb is put into the interrogative form.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. 1. Do I love?	2. Dost thou love? &c.
IMPERF. 1. Did I love?	2. Didst thou love? &c.
PERFECT. 1. Have I loved? .	2. Hast thou loved? &c.
PLUPFRF. 1. Had I loved?	2. Hadst thou loved? &c.
FUTURE. 1. Shall I love?	2. Wilt thou love? &cc. : -
FUT. PER. 1. Shall I have loved?	2. Wilt thou have loved? &c.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT.	1.	May I love?	2.	Canst thou love? &c.
IMPERF.	1.	Might I love.	2.	Couldst thou love? &c.
PERFECT.	1.	May I have loved?	2.	Canst thou have loved?

PLUPERF. 1. Might I have 2. Couldst thou have loved? &c.

Oss. Interrogative sentences are made negative by placing the negative either before or after the nominative; as, Do I not love? or, Do not I love?

QUESTIONS.

How is a verb made negative? Where is the negative placed in the simple form? Where, in the compound form? Where, when there are two auxiliaries? Where, in the infinitive and participles? Say the indicative present in the negative form throughout;—the other tenses.

How is the verb made interrogative? Where is the nominative placed in the simple form? Where, in the compound form? Where, when there are two auxiliaries? What parts of the verb cannot be used interrogatively? Say the indicative present throughout, interrogatively. Say the other tenses.

EXERCISES.

- f. Put the verb in the following sentences into the negative form.
- 2. Put the verb in the following sentences into the interrogative form.
- Distinguish the different parts of speech, and parse them, as in the preceding Exercise, IV.

I love you. You loved me. James studies grammar. Your father has come. He will go soon. The ship foundered at sea. John would eat apples. Apples will grow on this tree. The horse will run a race. The fox had catched the goose. Rabbits eat clover. Study overcomes most difficulties. Labor promotes health. Wealth makes the man. Poverty scatters friends. The ships sail. The sun has set. The moon rose. The stars will shine.

N. B. Let the pupils make similar exercises for themselves, and parse them.

LESSON XXVI.

The Verb TO BE.

[The pupil should be drilled thoroughly in this Lesson, as in Lesson XXIII.]

The intransitive irregular verb To BE, is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

PRESENT. Am. IMPERF. Was. PERF. PARTICIPLE. Been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

 Singular.
 Plural.

 1. I am.
 1. We are.

 2. Thou art.
 2. You are.

He is.They are.

Imperfect (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. I was.

1. We were.

2. Thou wast.

2. He was.

You were.
 They were.

Perfect (or Present-perfect) tense.

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.

Pluperfect (or Past-perfect) Tense.

Bingular.

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.

Singular.

Plural.

- Shall or will have been.
 Shalt or wilt have been.
- 1. Shall or will have been.
- 3. Shall or will have been.
- Shall or will have been.
 Shall or will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. May or can or must be. 1. May or can or must be.
- . 2. Mayet or canst or must be. 2. May or can or must be.
- . 3. May or can or must be. 3. May or can or must be.

Imperfect (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Might, could, would, or should be.
- 1. Might, could, would, or should be.
- 2. Mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.
- 2. Might, could, would, or should be.
- 3. Might, could, would, or should be.
- 3. Might, could, would, or should be.

Perfect (or Present-perfect) Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. May or must have been. 1. May or must have been.
- 2. Maystor must have been. 2. May or must have been.
- 3. May or must have been. 3. May or must have been.

Pluperfect (or Past-perfect) Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Might, could, would, or should have been.
- 1. Might, could, would, or should have been.
- 2. Mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been.
- 2. Might, could, would, or should have been.
- 3. Might, could, would, or should have been.
- 3. Might, could, would, or should have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

1. If I

1. If we be.

2. If thou be. 3. If he be. 2. If you be.

3. If they be.

Imperfect (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Were I, or If I were. 1. Were we, or If we were.
- 2. Wert thou, or If thou wert. 2. Were you, or If you were.
- 3. Were he, or If he were. 3. Were they, or If they were.

The other tenses are the same as the indicative mood with a conjunction (if, &c.) prefixed.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plurat.

2. Be, or Be thou.

2. Be, or Be ye or you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. To be.

PERFECT. To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

PRES. Being. PERF. Been. Compound-perf. Having been.

EXERCISES.

 Let the pupil tell the tense, mood, person, and number, of the following words parts of the verb to be; thus, "Am," present, indicative, first person singular.

2. Let him parse the same words; thus, "Am," is a verb, intransitive, irregular; am, was, been; in the present, &c.

Am, is, art, wast, I was, they were, we are, hast been, has been, we have been, hadst been, he had been, you have been, she has been, we were, they had been.

I shall be, shalt be, we will be, thou wilt be, they shall be, it will be, thou wilt have been, we have been, they will have been, we shall have been, am, it is.

I can be, mayst be, canst be, she may be, you may be, he must be, they should be, mightst be, he would be, it could be, wouldst be, you could be, he may have been, wast.

We may have been, mayst have been, they may have been, I might have been, you should have been, wouldst have been; (if) thou be, we be, he be, thou wert, we were, I be.

Be thou, be, to be, being, to have been, if I be, be ye, been, having been, if we be, if they be, to be.

2. In the following sentences, parse the words in order; thus, "Snoop," is a noun, neuter, singular, the nominative, because the subject of is: "Is," is a ventent interesting in the present, indicative, third person, singular: "white," is an adjective, qualifies snoop; compared, white, whiter, whites.

Snow is white; he was a good man; we have been younger; she has been happy; it had been late; we are old; you will be wise; it will be time; if they be thine; be cautious; be heedful youth; we may be rich; they should be virtuous; thou mightst be wiser; they must have been excellent scholars; they might have been powerful.

LESSON XXVII.

Progressive Form of the Active Voice.

The PROGRESSIVE form of the verb is inflected by prefixing the verb to be, through all its moods and tenses, to the present participle; thus,

PRESENT. 1. I am loving.

2. Thou art loving, &c.

IMPERF. 1. I was loving.

2. Thou wast loving, &c.
2. Thou hast been lov-

PERFECT. 1. I have been loving.

ing, &c.

PLUPERF. 1. I had been loving. 2. Thou hadst been loving, &c.

FUTURE. 1. I shall be loving. 2. Thou shalt he leving, &c. FUT. PER. 1. I shall or will 2. Thou shalt or wilt have

FUT. PER. 1. I shall or will 2. The have been loving.

been loving, &cc.

Note. In this manner go through the other moods and tenses, as in LESSON XXVI.

EXERCISES.

1. Change the following verbs, from the simple into the progressive form:

He loves, they read, thou teachest, we have learned, he had written, they go, you will build, I ran, John has done it, we taught, he stands, he stood, they will stand, they may read, we can sew, you should study, we might have read.

2. Change the following, from the progressive into the simple form:

We are writing, they were singing, they have been riding, we might be walking, I may have been sleeping, they are coming, thou art teaching, they have been eating, he has been moving, we have been defending, they had been running.

3. Parse the above verbs, in the progressive form; thus, "We are writing," "are writing," is a verb, transitive, irregular; write, wrote, written; [See LESSON XXIX.] in the present, indicative, active, first person, plural, progressive form.

LESSON XXVIII.

PASSIVE VOICE.

The Passive voice is inflected by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary verb to be, through all its moods and tenses; thus;

PRES. Am loved. IMPERF. Was loved. PERF. PART. Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am loved.	 We are loved.
2. Thou art loved.	2. You are loved.
3. He is loved.	They are loved.

Imperfect (or Past) Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. Was loved.	1. Were loved.
2. Wast loved.	2. Were loved.
3. Was loved.	3. Were loved.
Perfect (or Pre	sent-perfect) tense.
Singular.	Plural,
1. Have been loved.	1. Have been loved
2. Hast been loved.	2. Have been loved

3. Has been loved.

6*

3. Have been loved

Pluperfect (or Past-perfect) Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Had been loved.
- 1. Had been loved.
- 2. Hadst been loved.
- 2. Had been loved.
- 3. Had been loved.
- 3. Had been loved.

Future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Shall or will be loved.
- 1. Shall or will be loved.
- 2. Shalt or wilt be loved.
- 2. Shall or will be loved.
- 3. Shall or will be loved.
- 3. Shall or will be loved.

Future-perfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Shall or will have been loved. 1. Shall or will have been loved.
- 2. Shalt or wilt have been loved. 2. Shall or will have been loved.
- 3. Shall or will have been loved. 3. Shall or will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. May or can be loved.
- 1. May or can be loved.
- Mayst or canst be loved.
 May or can be loved.
- May or can be loved.
 May or can be loved.
- Imperfect (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Might, &c. be loved.
- 1. Might, &c. be loved.
- 2. Mightst, be loved.
- 2. Might, be loved.
- 3. Might, be loved.
- 3. Might, be leved.

Perfect (or Present-perfect) Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. May or must have been loved. 1. May or must have been loved.
- 2. Mayst or must have been loved. 2. May or must have been loved.
- 3. May or must have been loved. 3. May or must have been loved.

Pluperfect (or Past-perfect) Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. Might, &c. have been loved. 1. Might, &c. have been loved.
- 2. Mightst, have been loved. 2. Might, have been loved.
- 3. Might, have been loved. 3. Might, have been loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

Plural.

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

Imperfect (or Past) Tense.

Singular.

- Were I loved, or If I were 1. Were we loved, or If we loved.
- Wert thou loved, or If thou 2. Were you loved, or If you wert loved.
- 3. Were he loved, or If he 3. Were they loved, or If they were loved.

NOTE. The other tenses of this mood are the same as the indicative.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

1. Be thou loved.

2. Be ye or you loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. To be loved.

PFRF. To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT. Being loved. PERFFCT. Loved. COMPOUND-PERF. Having been loved.

The After the pupil is expert in going over the tenses of the verb, as given in the above tables, he may then be exercised in using one auxiliary at a time:—Thus, present potential, I may love; thou mayst love, &c. And then with the next auxiliary; I can love; thou canst love; he can love. And then with the next; I must love; thou must love; he must love, &c.; proceeding in the same manner with the auxiliaries of the imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect.

EXERCISE L.

On the Passive Voice.

1. Tell the tense, mood, person, and number, of the following words, in the passage voice:—change them into the active form.

2. Go over the exercise again, and parse each word in order; thus, "They," is the third personal pronoun, masculine, (or feminine) the nominative, because the subject of are loved: "are loved," is a verb, transitive, in the present, indicative, passive, third person, plural, because its subject, "they," is third person, plural.

They are loved; we were loved; thou art loved; it is loved; she was loved; he has been loved; you have been loved; I have been loved; thou hadst been loved; we shall be loved; thou wilt be loved; they will be loved; I shall have been loved; you will have been loved.

He can be loved; thou mayst be loved; she must be loved; they might be loved; ye would be loved; they should be loved; I could be loved; thou mayst have been loved; it may have been loved; you might have been loved; if I be loved; if thou wert loved; though we be loved; though they be loved. Be thou loved; be ye loved; you be loved. To be loved; loved; having been loved; to have been loved; being loved.

3. Change the preceding, from the passive to the active, progressive form.

EXERCISE II.

On the Article, Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, promiscuously.

- In the following Exercise, tell which words are articles—which are nouns—and why;—which are adjectives—and why;—which are pronouns—and why,—which are verbs—and why.
- 2. Point out the verbs; tell whether transitive or intransitive—and why;—active or passive—and why.
- Go over again, and point out the nouns, and tell whether proper or commenand why;—singular or plural—and why;—their gender—and why.

He has learned his lesson. I loved him because he was good. A good man will forgive those who may have injured him. Love your enemies; do good to them that hate you. Remember your Creator in the

days of your youth. We are commanded to love our neighbor as ourselves. That book was printed in New-York. The winter has been cold, but the ground was covered with snow. Columbus discovered America. America was discovered by Columbus. I have been studying grammar. It is never too late to learn that which is good and useful. Peter Parley has written some pleasing books. Good boys love reading. Study to understand what you read.

- 4. Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order, as directed in preceding Exercises.
- N. B. It will now be important to review, thoroughly and repeatedly, from Lesson XXIII., particularly Lessons XXIII., XXVI. and XXVIII., with the Exercises under them. This will require several recitations. And while that is going on the pupil may also go forward with Lesson XXIX., conjugating from memory the irregular verbs, in such portions daily as the teacher may direct.

LESSON XXIX

Of Irregular Verbs.

1. An IRREGULAR verb is one that does not form both its imperfect tense and perfect participle by adding d or ed to the present; as, Abide, abode, abode.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Participle.
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke n*	awaked
Bake	baked	baken n
Bear, to bris	ng forth. bare or bore	born

^{*} Those verbs which are conjugated regularly as well as irregularly are markad with an z.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Participle
Bear, to carry	bore or bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten or beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent R	bent R
Bereave	bereft	bereft R
Beseech	besought	be sough t
Bid	bade, bid	bidden
Bind un-	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke, brak e	broken.
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brough t
Build re-	built, R	built, R
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught R	caught R
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, to adhere	clave R	cleaved
Cleave, to split	clove or eleft	cloven or cleft
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed	clad R
Come be-	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Crow	crew R	crowed
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, to venture	durst	dared
Dare, to challenge is a dared		dared
Deal	dealt n	dealt n
Dig	dug n	dug n
Do mie- un-	· did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drive	drove	driven
Drink	drank	drunk

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Participle.	
Dwell	dwelt n	dwelt n	
Eat	ate	eaten	
Fall be-	fell	fallen	
Feed	fed	fed ·	
Féel	felt	felt	
Fight	fought	fought -	
Find	found	found	
Flee	fled	fled	
Fling	flung	flung	
Fly	flew	flown	
Forbear	forbore	forborne	
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot	
Forsake	forsook	forsaken	
Freeze	froze	frozen	
Get be- for-	gat or got	gotten or got	
Gild	gilt n	gilt R	
Gird be- en-	girt R	girt R	
Give for- mis-	gave	given	
Go	went	gone	
Grave en-	graved	graven R	
Grind	ground	ground .	
Grow	grew	grown	
Have	had	had	
Hang	hung	hung*	
Hear	heard	heard	
Heave	hove n	hoven R	
Hew	hewed	hewn R	
Hide	hid	hidden, hid	
Hit '	hit	hit	
Hold be- with-	held	held <i>or</i> holden	
Hurt	hurt	hurt	
Кеер	kept	kept	
Knit	knit B	knit or knitted	
Know	knew	known	
Lade '	laded	laden	

^{*} Hang, to take away life by hanging, is regular; as, The robber was hanged but the gown was hung up.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Participle
Lay	la id	laid
Lead mis-	led	led
Leave .	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, to lie down	lay	lain or lien
Light	lighted or lit	lighted or lit
Load	loaded	laden n
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown R
Pay re	paid	paid
Put	put	put .
Quit	quit R	quit
Read	read	read .
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride ,	rode	rode, ridden•
Ring	rang or rung	rung
Rise a	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven .
Rot	rotted .	rotten R
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn r
Say	said	s aid
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	s old
Send	sent	sent
Set be-	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape mis-	shaped	shapen n
Shave	shaved	shaven R
Shear	shore n	shorn
Şhed	shed	shed

Ridden is nearly obsolete

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Participle
Shine	shone R	shone n
Show .	showed	shown
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Shrink	shrank or shrank	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut -	shut	shut
Sing	sang or sung	sung
Sink	sank or sunk	sunk
Sit	sat	sat or sittent
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	· slid	slidden
Sling	slang, sluag	slung
Slink	slank, sluak	slunk
Slit	slit n	slit or slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	sowed	sown R
Speak be-	spoke or spake	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spend mis-	spent	spent
Spill	spilt R	spilt n
Spin	span, spun	. spun
Spit be-	spat, spit	spit <i>or</i> spitten
Split	split R	split R
Spread be-	spread	spread
Spring	sprang or sprung	sprung
Stand with- &c.	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck -	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stride be-	strode or strid	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven

Shere, shereed, sheren,—pronounced shore, &c. See foot of next page.

Present.	Imperfect.	Perfect Participle.	
Strew* be-	strewed	strewed or	
Strow be-	strowed	strown, strowed	
Swear	swore, sware	sworn	
Sweat	sweat	sweat .	
Sweep	swept	swept	
Swell	swelled	swollen n	
Swim	swam or swum	swum	
Swing	swang or swung	swung	
Take be- &c.	took	taken	
Teach mis- re	taught	taught	
Tear un-	tore or tare	torn	
Tell	told	told ·	
Think be:	thought	thought -	
Thrive	throve	thriven	
Throw	threw	thrown	
Thrust	thrust ·	thrust	
Tread -	trod	trødden -	
Wax	waxed	waxen B	
Wear	wore	worn	
Weave	wove	woven	
Weep	wept	wept	
Win .	won	won	
Wind	wound n	wound	
Work	wrought n	wrought, worked	
Wring	wrung n	wrung	
Write	wrote	written	

Oss. The preceding list contains all the simple irregular verbs in the English language. Hence all verbs not in the preceding list are Regular.

QUESTIONS.

What is an irregular verb? Are any verbs both regular and irregular? Give an example. Since there is no list of regular verbs, how may we know what verbs are regular? Is "am" regular or irregular—and why?

^{*} Stress and show are now giving way to stross and show, as they are pre-

EXERCISE I.

- 1. Name the imperfect tense and perfect participle of the following verbs:

 Thus, Take, took, taken. [This is called conjugating the verb.]
- 2. Make a short sentence on the slate or blackboard, with each verb, in the present tense—in the imperfect tense—in the perfect tense—in any tense; thus, We take breakfast early. John took my hat. I have taken his coat.

Take, drive, creep, begin, abide, buy, bring, arise, catch, bereave, am, burst, draw, drink, fly, flee, fall, get, give, go, feel, forsake, grow, have, hear, hide, keep, know, lose, pay, ride, ring, shake, run, seek, sell, see, sit, slay, slide, smite, speak, stand, tell, win, write.

- 3. In the sentences made as directed No. 2, tell which verbs are transitive, and which are intransitive—and why. Point out the subject in each sentence, (that is, the person or thing spoken of,) and call that the nominative. Tell which nouse or pronouns are in the nominative—and why,—in the objective—and why.
- 4. In each sentence, put the verb in the emphatic form—in the progressive form—in the negative form—in the negative interrogative form—in the negative interrogative form.

EXERCISE II.

- In the following Exercise, point out which verbs are regular and which irregular—and why.
- 2. Make short sentences with each verb, as in the preceding Exercise, and do with each as there directed, in Nos. 2. 3, 4.

Love, hope, trust, weep, throw, keep, brush, hunt, count, reckon, ask, sleep, eat, drink, spin, save, go, teach, wipe, am, draw, bruise, water, know, wash, spoil.

- 3. Take the sentences containing transitive verbs, and express the same idea by the passive form; thus, suppose the sentence to be, "James loves praise;" passive form, "Praise is loved by James."
 - 4. Parse the sentences so changed.

LESSON XXX.

Defective and Impersonal Verbs.

1. DEFECTIVE verbs are those which want some of their moods and tenses. They are also irregular, and chiefly auxiliary: these are,

Present.	Imperf.	Perf. Part.	Present.	Imperf.	· Perf. Parl
Can	could		Shall	should	
May	might		Will	would	
Must			Wis	wist	
Ought			Wit or)	wot	
Quoth	quoth		Wot }		

2. IMPERSONAL verbs are those which assert the existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular subject. They are preceded by the pronoun it, and are always in the third person singular; as, it seems; it becomes, &c.

To this head may be referred such expressions as, It hails, & snows, it rains it thunders, it behoveth, it irketh; and perhaps also, methinks, methought, meseems, meseemed, in which, instead of it, the first personal pronoun in the objective case, me, is prefixed to the third person singular of the verb.

QUESTIONS.

What is a defective verb? Are they regular or irregular? "What are they? What tenses do the most of them have? What tense has must?—ought? Is it proper to say "I had ought to read?" Why? What is an impersonal verb? By what are they preceded? In what person and number are they? What sort of words are methinks, meseems, &c.?

LESSON XXXI.

Of Adverbs.

[Review the preceding Lesson.]

An Advers is a word joined to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, to modify or denote some circumstance respecting it; as, Ann speaks distinctly; she is remarkably diligent, and reads very correctly.

Adverbs have been divided into various classes, according to their signification. The chief of these are such as denote,

- 1. QUALITY or MANNER simply; as, well, ill, bravely, prudently, softly; with innumerable others, formed from adjectives by adding ly, or changing le into ly; thus, tame, tamely; sensible, sensibly, &c.
 - 2. Place; as, here, there, where; hither, thither; hence, &c.
 - 3. Time; as, now, then, when; soon, often, seldom; ever, &c.
 - 4. Direction; as, upward, downward, backward, forward, &c.
 - 5. NEGATION; as, nay, no, not, nowise, never.
 - 6. Affirmation; as, verily, truly, undoubtedly, yea, yes.
 - 7. Uncertainty; as, perhaps, peradventure, perchance.
 - 8. Interrogation; as, how, why, when, wherefore, &c.
- 9. Comparison; as, more, most, less, least; well, better, best, &c.
 - 10. QUANTITY; as, much, little, enough, sufficiently.
 - 11. NUMBER; as, first, secondly, thirdly, &c.

OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The chief use of adverbs is to shorten discourse, by expressing in one word what would otherwise require two or more; as, here, for "in this place;" nobly, for "in a noble manner," &c.
- 2. Some adverbs admit of comparison like adjectives; as, soon, sooner, soonest; noble, more nobly, most nobly. A few are compared irregularly; as, well, better, best; badly, or ill, worse, worst.
- 3. Some words become adverbs by prefixing a, which signifies at, or on; as, abed, ashore, afloat, aground, apart.
- 4. In comparisons, the antecedents as and so are usually reckenced adverbs; the corresponding as and so are conjunctions; thus, It is as high as Heaven.
- 5. Circumstances of time, place, manner, &c. are often expressed by two or more words constituting an adverbial phrase; as, in short, in fine, in general, at most, at least, at length, not at all, by no means, in vain, in order, long ago, by and bye, to and fro, &c. which, taken together, may be parsed as adverbs, or by supplying the ellipsis; thus, in a short space; in a general way, &c.

. Parsing.—An adverb is parsed by stating its class and the word it modifies; thus, "Ann speaks distinctly." Distinctly, is an adverb of manner, and modifies "speaks."

QUESTIONS.

What is an adverb? In the sentence, "Ann speaks distinctly," which is the adverb?—why? Which is the adverb in the other examples?—and why? Into how many classes are adverbs commonly divided? Name the first three—the second three—the next three—the last. How are adjectives changed into adverbs? What is the chief use of adverbs? Are any adverbs compared like adjectives? Give an exemple. Are any compared irregularly? Give an example. What is an adverbial phrase? Give examples. How are such phrases to be parsed? How are adverbs parsed?

EXERCISE I.

- 1. In the following list of adverbs, point out the class to which each belongs
- 2. Compare those that admit of comparison.
- 3. Make a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain one or mose of the adverbs in the list; and parse the sentences so made.

Here, there, softly, boldly, wisely, seldom, upward, ence, twice, hitherto, yesterday, how, more, little, secondly, enough, perhaps, yes, no, truly, not, already, hence, whence, better, sufficiently, wisely, somewhere.

EXERCISE II.

- 1. In the following sentences, tell what words are articles—what words are mounts, and why—adjectives, and why—pronouns, and why—verbs, and why—whether transitive or intransitive, and why—regular or irregular, and why.
 - 2. Which words are adverbs?—and why? What words do they modify? Parse.

Peter wept bitterly. He is here now. She went away yesterday. They came to-day. They will perhaps buy some to-morrow. Ye shall know hereafter She sung sweetly. Cats soon learn to catch mice. Mary rose up hastily. They that have enough may

soundly sleep. Cain wickedly slew his brother. I saw him long ago. He is a very good man. Sooner or later all must die. You read too little. They talk too much.

LESSON XXXII.

Of Prepositions.

A Preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun, to point out the relation between it and some other word in the sentence; thus,

"Before honor is humility." "They speak concerning virtue." In these sentences, the preposition, "before," points out the relation between "honor" and "humility;" and "concerning" points out the relation between "virtue" and "speak."

A LIST OF PREPOSITIONS. [To be got accurately by heart.]

About	Before	From	Through
Above	Behind	In	Throughout
According to	\mathbf{Below}	Into	Till
Across	Beneath	Instead of	To
After	Beside	Near	Touching
Against	Besides	Nigh	Towards
Along	Between	Of	Under
Amid }	Betwixt	Off	Underneath
Amidst \$	Beyond	On	Unto
Among)	By	Over	$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{p}$.
Amongst	Concerning	Out of	Upon
Around	Down	Past	With
Aslant	During	Regarding	Within
At	Except	Respecting	Without
Athwart ,	Excepting	Round	
Bating	For	Since	

OBSERVATIONS ON PREPOSITIONS.

- 1. Every preposition requires the noun or pronoun after it to be in the objective case. When any word in the preceding list does not govern an objective case, it becomes an adverb; as, He wides about.
- 2. But in such phrases as, cast up, hold out, fall on, the words up, out, on, must be considered as a part of the verb, rather than as prepositions or adverbs.

PARSING.—The preposition is parsed by stating the words between which it shews the relation; thus,

"Before honor is humility." "Before" is a preposition, and shews the relation between "honor,' and "humility."

QUESTIONS.

What is a preposition? In what case is the noun or prenoun after a preposition? When an objective does not follow a preposition, what part of speech is it to be considered?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Point out the prepositions in the following exercises.
- 2. Point out the noun or prenous after the preposition, and the word to which it is related; thus, "I went from Albany to New York." The preposition from, stands before Albany, and shews its relation to the verb, "seems." So also, to stands before New-York, and shews its relation to "weems."

I went from London to Bath. The king walked about the garden with his son. They dined without me. I fell off a ship into the river near the bridge. This box of wafers is for you. Charles put it upon the table against the inkstand. Turn down the lane through the gate. I shall go up the road after him. Run to that tree near the house. It stands between the trees. Put it on the table at the side of the Rouse. I found the knife among the ashes under the grate. Sit by me. John is at Utica. They all went except me.

3. Parse the words in preceding Exercise.

LESSON XXXIII.

Conjunctions.

A Conjunction is a word which joins words and sentences together; as, You and I must study, but he may go and play. Two and two make four,

Conjunctions are of two kinds, Copulative and Disjunctive.

A LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS.

- 1. Copulative—Also, and, because, both, for, if, since, that, then, therefore, wherefore,
- 2. DISJUNCTIVE—Although, as, as well as, but, either, except, lest, neither, nor, notwithstanding, or, provided, so, than, though, unless, whether, yet, still.
- One. The copulative conjunctions represent the things expressed by the words connected, as added the one to the other; as, You and I [i. e. both,] must go. The disjunctive conjunctions represent them, though in the same construction, yet as separated from, or opposed to each other; as, You or I, [i. e. one or other, but not both,] must go.

Parsing.—Conjunctions are parsed by stating to what class they belong, and the words or sentences which they join together; thus, "You and I must study." And is a conjunction, copulative, and connects You and I.

QUESTIONS.

What is a conjunction? How many kinds of conjunctions are there? What are the copulative?—the disjunctive? How do these two classes differ? How are conjunctions parsed?

EXERCISES.

- Point out the conjunctions in the following Exercise, the class to which they belong, and words which they connect.
 - 2. Purse all the words in order.

Henry and Charles read their lessons. I or he will be there. I will be with you unless you call. I slept well though the dog barked. Read that you may learn. John says that he will do it. As he writes, so do I read; for I am fond of reading. Neither the boys nor the girls are asleep. I would call if I could, but I cannot. Take care lest you fall. Two and two make four. He is better than I thought he was, though he behaved ill. Since that has happened I must go. Do to others as you would that they should do to you.

LESSON XXXIV.

Of Interjections.

An Interjection is a word which expresses some emotion of the speaker; as, Oh! what a sight is here! Well done!

A LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

Adieu! ah! alas! alack! away! aha! begone! hark! ho! ha! he! hail! halloo! hum! hush! huzza! hist! hey-dey! lo! O! Oh! O strange! O brave! pshaw! see! well-a-day! &c.

OBSERVATIONS ON INTERJECTIONS.

- 1. The Interjection is thrown in among the other words in a sentence, but does not affect their construction.
- 2. O is used to express wishing or exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or a pronoun, in a direct address; as, "O virtue! How amiable thou art." Oh! is used detached from

the word, with a point of exclamation after it. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise; as, "Oh! what a sight is here."

Parsing.—Interjections are parsed by simply naming them as such.

QUESTIONS.

What is an Interjection? Name some of them. Does the interjection affect the construction of the other words in a sentence? How do O and Oh differ in meaning? How, in the manner of writing them? How are interjections parsed?

EXERCISES.

- 1. Point out the Interjections in this Exercise.
- 2. Name all the other parts of speech, and parse them.

Hah! I am glad to see you. Well-a-day! I did not expect this! Alas! I am ruined. Indeed! is that true? What! is it possible? Lo! there he is. Hem! I do not think so. O what a benefit education is! Ah! you are a happy fellow. Hush! what was that? Ha! ha! ha! how laughable that is. Ho! come this way. Ah! poor fellow, he is to be pitied. Hurrah! we have finished our lesson. Come! now for the next.

LESSON XXXV.

How to distinguish the Parts of Speech.

- 1. The articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, are so few in number that they may be easily committed to memory.
- 2. The other four, namely, the noun, adjective, verb, and adverb, wil be best distinguished by comparing their meaning and use with the definitions of these parts of speech in their place; thus.
- 1st. Every word that is the name of a person or thing, is a Noun, because "A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing."

- 24. Every word that describes a noun by expressing a quality, or property belonging to it, is an Adjective; because, "An adjective is a word that expresses the quality of a noun."
- 3d. A word that expresses what a person or thing does, or is, or what is done to a person or thing, is a Verb; because, "A verb is a word that expresses an action or state."
- 4th. A word that modifies another by expressing a circumstance of time, place, manner, &c. is an Adverb; because "An adverb &c." [See definition, Lesson XXXI.]
- 3. The following technical method, though neither very accurate nor certain, may assist the young pupil in distinguishing these four parts of speech; but the preceding should always be preferred.
- 1st. A word that makes sense after an article, or the phrase "I speak of," is a Noun; as, A man; I speak of money.
- 2d. A word that makes sense before the word thing, is commonly an Adjective; as, A good thing; an old thing.
- 3d. A Verb makes sense with I, thou, he, or to, before it; as, I write; he writes; to teach.
- 4th. The answer to the question, How? When? Where? is generally an Adverb; as, How do you do? Very well. When did you arrive? Yesterday. Where is your book? It is here.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Many words are sometimes to be regarded as one part of speech, and sometimes as another, according to their meaning and use, in the place where they are used; thus,

THAT,

Relative Pronoun; as, "It is the same that I bought."

Conjunction; as, "It is the same that I bought."

Adverb; as, "It is much better to give than to receive."

Adjective; as, "In much wisdom is much grief."

Noun; as, "Where much is given, much is required."

Conjunction; as, "Since we must part."

Preposition; "Since that time."

Adverb; as, "Your friend has gone long since."

Conjunction; as, "Poor but honest."

Preposition; as, "All but one."

Adverb; as, "He has but just enough."

2. When the same word is sometimes a preposition and sometimes a conjunction, let it be remembered that the preposition is followed by an objective case; the conjunction is not.

QUESTIONS.

How may we most readily distinguish articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections? How do you distinguish the noun from other parts of speech?—the adjective?—the verb?—the adverb?

LESSON XXXVI.

Parsing.

Parsing is the resolving of a sentence into its elements, or parts of speech. Words are parsed two ways; Etymologically, and Syntactically.

- 1. In etymological parsing, the pupil is required to state the part of speech to which a word belongs, and to describe it by its accidents.
- 2. In syntactical parsing, the pupil is required, besides parsing the word etymologically, to state its relation to other words in the sentence, and the rules by which these relations are governed.
- N. B. Before proceeding to Syntax, the pupil should be expert in etymological parsing. This he can hardly fail to be, if he has attended, in the manner directed, to the exercises already given. The reading lessons in the spelling book, or sentences from any plain writer, may now be analyzed and parsed in the same man ner. To assist farther in this, observe the following

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

In order to parse a sentence, it is necessary to understand it. The sentence being understood, in parsing it, let the following general principles be remembered, viz.

1. Every Article, Adjective, Adjective pronoun, or Participle, belongs to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood.

- 2. The subject of a verb, i. e. the thing spoken of, is always in the nominative, and is said to be the "nominative to the verb."
 - 3. Every noun or pronoun, in the nominative case, when spoken of, is the subject of a verb, expressed or understood, i. e., it is that of which the verb affirms. To this there are a few exceptions.
- 4. Every verb in the indicative, potential, or subjunctive mood, has a nominative or subject expressed or understood, i. e., it has something of which it affirms.
- 5. Every transitive verb, and every preposition, governs a noun or pronoun in the objective case; and every objective case is governed by a transitive verb in the active voice, or by a preposition.
- 6. Every verb in the infinitive mood is governed by a verb or adjective. Sometimes by a noun; and sometimes it stands after the conjunction, than or as.

QUESTIONS.

What is parsing? How many kinds of parsing are there? What is done in etymological parsing?—in syntactical parsing? What is necessary before parsing a sentence? To what does every article, adjective, &c.. belong? In what case is the subject of a verb? When a noun or pronoun in the nominative case is spoken of, what must it have? What must every verb in the indicative, potential, or subjunctive mood, have? What case does every transitive verb in the active voice, and every preposition, have after it? By what is the objective case always governed? When a verb is in the infinitive mood, by what is it governed?

For the following questions go back to the pages indicated:

How is an article parsed? p. 10.—a noun? p. 20.—an adjective? p. 25.—a pronoun? pp. 28, 31, 34.—a verb? p. 55.—an adverb? p. 78.—a preposition? p. 80.—a conjunction? p. 81.—an interjection? p. 83. Parse all these as directed in the places referred to, and as described in the next Lesson.

LESSON XXXVII.

Model of Etymological Parsing.

- "Give instruction to a wise man, and he will be yet wiser."
- "Give" is a verb, transitive, irregular; give, gave, given; in the imperative, active, second person, singular. Its subject is thou, understood, and its object, instruction.
- "Instruction" is a noun, neuter, singular, the objective; the object of give.
- "To" is a preposition, its object is man.
- "A" is an article, indefinite; belongs to man.
- "Wise" is an adjective; compared, wise, wiser, wisest; and expresses a quality of man.
- "Man" is a noun, masculine, singular, the objective; pl. men.
- "And" is a conjunction, and connects the clauses.
- "He" is a third personal pronoun, masculine, singular, the nominative; the subject of will be, and stands for a man.
- "Will be" is a verb, intransitive, irregular; am, was, been; in the future, indicative, active, third person, singular, and affirms of its subject, he.
- "Yet" is an adverb, modifying wiser.
- "Wiser" is an adjective, comparative degree; wise, wiser, wisest; and belongs to man, or is predicated of he.

^{*} The person and class of the noun are emitted for reasons stated up. 13, 14,

As a farther exercise, the pupil may be required to give a reason for every thing affirmed in the preceding model; thus,

Why do you say that give is a verb? Why transitive? Why rregular? Why the imperative? Why the second person? Why singular?

Why do you say that instruction is a noun? Why neuter? Why singular? Why the objective? &c.

LESSON XXXVIII.

Exercises in Parsing.

After the same manner as in the preceding Lesson parse and practice on the following exercises.

MAXIMS FOR YOUNG AND OLD.

I. EARLY PIETY.—Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth, while the evil days come not, nor the years draw nigh, when thou shalt say, I have no pleasure in them.

Children, obey your parents; honor thy father and mother, is the first commandment with promise.

A wise son heareth a father's instruction, but a scorner heareth not rebuke. The eye that mocketh at his father, and despiseth to obey his mother, the ravens of the valley shall pluck out, and the young eagles shall sat it. A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother. Whoso loveth instruction loveth knowledge, but he that hateth reproof is brutish.

II. Education.—Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it.

Quintilian recommends to all parents the timely education of their children; advising to train them up in learning, good manners, and virtuous exercises; since we commonly retain those things in age which we entertained in youth.

'Tis education forms the common mind; Just as the twig is bent, the tree's inclined.

An industrious and virtuous education of children is a better inheritance for them than a great estate.

- III. PROSPERITY AND ADVERSITY.—If I must make choice either of continual prosperity or adversity, I would choose the latter; for in adversity no good man can want comfort, whereas in prosperity most men want discretion. Adversity overcome, is the greatest glory; and willingly undergone, the greatest virtue: sufferings are but the trials of gallant spirits.
- IV. Anger.—The continuance of anger is hatred; the continuance of hatred becomes malice; that anger is not warrantable which has suffered the sun to go down upon it. Let all men avoid rash speaking. One unquiet, perverse disposition, distempers the peace and unity of a whole family, or society, as one jarring instrument will spoil a whole concert.
- V. RICHES.—Riches beget pride; pride, impatience; impatience, revenge; revenge, war; war, poverty; poverty, humility; humility, patience; patience, peace, and peace, riches.

The shortest way to be rich is not by enlarging our estates, but by contracting our desires. A great fortune in the hands of a fool is a great misfortune. The more riches a fool has, the greater fool he is.

PERSEVERANCE.

It is astonishing to see how much can be done by perseverance. Jessie is not so smart as either of her sisters, yet it strikes me she will grow up the most sensible woman of the three; and what do you think is the reason? Why, because she never says she cannot do a thing, but tries, over and over again, till she does it. She is not quick, nor is her memory very good, therefore it is a great trouble to her to learn a lesson by heart, but yet she is generally better prepared than the others. Though Louisa can learn to repeat a page of history in ten minutes, and Clara went twice through the grammar before Jessie got to the twentieth page, yet these quick folks often forget as fast as they learn, and like the hare in the fable, that ran a race with the tortoise, they are left behind at last.—Useful Stories.

WASHINGTON AND HIS MOTHER.

Young George was about to go to sea as a midshipman; every thing was arranged, the vessel lay opposite his father's house, the little boat had come on shore to take him off, and his whole heart was bent on going. After his trunk had been carried down to the boat, he went to bid his mother farewell, and saw the tears bursting from her eyes. However, he said nothing to her; but he saw that his mother would be distressed if he went, and perhaps never be happy again. He just turned round to the servant and said, "Go and tell them to fetch my trunk back. I will not go away to break my mother's heart." His mother was struck with his decision, and she said to him, "George, God has promised to bless the children that honor their parents, and I believe he will bless you."

PART THIRD .-- SYNTAX.

LESSON XXXIX.

General Principles of Syntax.

SYNTAX is that part of Grammar which treats of the proper arrangement and connexion of words in a sentence.

A sentence is such an assemblage of words as makes complete sense; as Man is mortal.

Every simple sentence consists of two parts, the subject and the predicate.

The subject is the person or thing spoken of, and is always the nominative to the verb; as, John reads.

The predicate is the thing affirmed or denied of the subject; as, John reads. Time is short.

The following general principles should be carefully observed:

- 1. In every sentence there must be a verb and a nominative (or subject) expressed or understood.
 - 2. Every article, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, must have a substantive expressed or understood.
 - 3. Every nominative has its own verb expressed or understood.
 - 4. Every verb (except in the infinitive and participles) has its own nominative expressed or understood.
 - 5. Every possessive case is governed by some noun denoting the thing possessed.
 - 6. Every objective case is governed by a transitive verb in the active voice, or by a preposition.

7. The infinitive mood is governed by a verb, an adjective, or substantive.

Obs. The exceptions to these general principles will appear in the Rules of Syntax.

LESSON XL.

Parts of Syntax.

The Rules of Syntax may all be included under three heads; Concord, Government, and Position.

Concord is the agreement which one word has with another, in gender, number, case, or person.

GOVERNMENT is that power which one word has in directing the mood, tense, or case, of another word.

Position means the place which a word occupies in a sentence.

In the English language, which has but few inflections, the meaning of a sentence depends much on the position of the words which it contains.

LESSON XLI.*

RULE I. A Verb must agree with its nominative in number and person; as, Thou readest, He reads, We read.

EXPLANATION.—This rule means that a verb must always be in the same number and person with its subject or nominative.

The same system of reviewing recommended in the preceding part, should be kept up through the rules of Syntax. Before reciting the new lesson, the class should be directed to recite the rules in order from the beginning, always giving the number of the rule; and this exercise should be continued till they can immediately recite any rule called for, by its number, and tell the number of any rule they hear read or recited.

QUESTIONS.

With what must a verb agree? In what must they agree? What does that mean? In the above examples, which are the verbs? Which the nominatives? Do they agree?—in what? Shew that they agree. Is it proper to say "Thou read?" Why?—"He read?" Why? Should we say "I love?" or "I loves?" Why?—"Why?—"We hast loved," or "has loved," or "have loved?" Why?

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercises, tell which words are verbs—which the neminatives—whether the verb and its nominative agree or not—and if not, make them agree by putting the verb in the person and number of its nominative.

You was there. They was absent. Your brothers has been abroad. Has your sisters come home? Was you present? The letters has come. Fair words costs nothing. There is no roses without thorns.

Take the verb to write, and make It agree with I—with thou—with they—in all the tenses of the indicative. Take any other verb, and do the same.

SPECIAL RULES UNDER RULE L

- RULE I. The subject of a verb should be in the nominative; as, He and she are of the same age; not, Him and her.
- RULE II. The infinitive mood or part of a sentence is often used as the nominative to a verb; as, To play is pleasant; Hisbeing at enmity with Cæsar, was the cause of perpetual discord.
- RULE III. A noun singular used for a plural is joined to a plural verb; as, Ten sail of the line were seen at a distance.

Note. Nouns plural in form but singular in signification, may be joined either with a singular or plural verb [Lesson VIII. Obs. 7.]

[•] h 3- After the pupil has committed the Rule accurately to memory, and studied the explanation and observations, before proceeding to the Exercises, the teacher may, by a series of questions, in some such way as this, orally elicit thought, and call the attention of pupils to the meaning and use of the Rule. This will enable them to proceed with the correction in a more intelligent manner. The framing of such questions is now left entirely with the teacher.

The following exercises are of the simplest kind, and chiefly on the Rule. Any thing difficult would not be suitable for that class of pupils for whom this work is transled.

RULE IV. A noun and its pronoun should never be used as a nominative to the same verb; as, The king is just; not, the king he is just. Except that himself, herself, &c. are joined with a noun or pronoun, rendering it emphatic. [Lesson XII. Obs. I.]

RULE V. When the verb TO BE stands between a singular and plural nominative, it agrees with the one next it, or the one which is more naturally the subject of it; as The wages of sin is death.

LESSON XLIL

RULE II. A transitive verb in the active voice governs the objective case; as, We love him. He loves us. Whom did they send?

EXPLANATION.—The transitive verb in the active voice always tells what its subject or nominative does to some other person or thing, called its object. The rule means that this object must always be put in the objective case. This rule is liable to be violated only when the object is a pronoun, because in all other words the nominative and objective cases are alike.

Nouns and personal pronouns in the objective case, are usually placed after the verb—relative and interrogative pronouns, usually before it.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercises, point out the transitive verb—its subject—its object—put that object in the proper case—tell what that case is, and why.

He loves I. Did they hurt ye? We know he and they. He and they we know. The friend who I love. Take care who you admit. I will not give ye up. He who you ignorantly worship, declare I unto you.

2. Write a number of sentences, each of which shall contain an active transitive verb; such as, do, have, touch, hurt, love, &c., followed by a personal pronoun in the proper case. Parse them, and give the Rule.

SPECIAL RULES UNDER RULE II.

- I. Intransitive verbs never have an objective case after them; thus, "Repenting him of his design," should be "repenting of &c."
- II. Intransitive verbs do not admit of a passive voice, [LESSON XVIII. 4,] except the nominative be of the same, or kindred signification with the verb itself; as My race is run.

- III. Transitive verbs do not admit a preposition after them; thus, "I must premise with three circumstances." should be, "I must premise three circumstances."
- IV. A noun and its pronoun should not be used as the objective after the same verb or preposition; thus, "The man that honoreth me, him I will honor." Strike out "him."
- V. The infinitive mood or part of a sentence, as well as a noun or pronoun, may be the object of a transitive active verb; as, "Boys love to play;" "I wish that they were wise;" "You see how few men have returned."

LESSON XLIII.

RULE III. Prepositions govern the objective case; as, To whom much is given, of him much shall be required.

EXPLANATION.—This rule means that the noun or pronoun, after a prepesition, must be put in the objective case. This rule can be violated only in the use of pronouns.

- Obs. 1. Whom and which are sometimes governed by a preposition at some distance after them. But this should generally be avoided; thus, "This is he whom I gave it to,"—better—"to whom I gave it."
- Obs. 2. The preposition is sometimes omitted. It is then said to be understood; thus, "Give (to) me that book. Here "me" is governed by "to" understood.

SUB-RULE.—A noun denoting time, place, price, weight, or measure, is sometimes used in the objective, without a governing word, to restrict the meaning of a verb or adjective with which it stands connected; as, "He was absent six months;" "Let us go home;" "It cost a penny, but it is not worth a farthing;" "The parcel weighs a pound;" "The wall is six feet high."

This may be called the objective case restrictive.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the prepositions and the word governed by each. Put that word in the proper case, if not in it already. Give the Rule.

This belongs to my father and I. Who did you get it from? Who shall we send it to? Divide it between ye, or give it to he and I. This is a small matter between you and I. Who did you give it to? Who do you work for?

. 2. In this way write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain a preposition (see the list, p. 79.) followed by a personal or relative pronoun in the proper case. Parse the sentences, and give the Rule for the case after the preposition.

LESSON XLIV.

Rule IV. Two or more nouns in the singular, taken in connexion, require a verb and pronoun in the plural; as,

- 1. Cato and Cicero were learned men, and they loved their country.
 - 2. Honor, justice, religion itself, are derided by the profligate.
- 3. The king, with the lords and commons, constitute the English form of government.

EXPLANATION.—The plural denotes more than one; and because two or more nouns in the singular denote more than one, they are equivalent to a plural; and hence the verb to which they are the subject, and the pronoun which stands instead of them, or nouns which refer to them, must be plural also.

EXERCISES.

Point out the verb in each of the following sentences. See whether the subject consists of one, or more than one person or thing. If of more than one, put the verb in the proper number and person;—also the pronoun.

One and one makes two. Your sister and brother has come. Time and tide waits for no man. Socrates and Plato was a Grecian philosopher. Dew and hear frost shews itself in the valley. Diligence and perseverance overcomes all difficulties.

 Write a number of sentences similar to the above, having two nouns in the singular coupled by and, for the subject of the verb. Parse them, and give the Rule for the verb being plural.

LESSON XLV.

Rule V. Two or more nouns in the singular, taken separately, have the verb or pronoun in the singular; as, John, James, or Andrew, intends to accompany you.

EXPLANATION.—Nouns are viewed separately, when, though they all stand as the nominative to the verb, yet only one, exclusive of all the rest, is the subject of discourse, as in the above example: or, though all are equally the subject of discourse, yet they are not so in combination, but individually. In this case the verb agrees with the last, and is understood to the rest. Separation is marked by the conjunctions or and nor expressed or understood.

SUB-RULE.—A singular and a plural nominative, connected by a disjunctive, require a verb in the plural; as, Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved.

• . • The plural nominative should be placed next the verb.

EXERCISES.

Point out the verb and the several nominatives, tell whether taken in connexion or separately, and why.
 Put the verb in the proper number, according to the Rule.

Are James, or John, or Thomas, the oldest? Either his gratitude or compassion were roused. Hope or despair govern him. Charles, or John, or Henry, are at home. One or the other have done it. Either Tom or Dick have hurt themselves.

Write short sentences of which the subject shall be two or more nouns taken separately, and the verb in the present or in the perfect tense.

LESSON XLVI.

RULE VI. 1. When two or more nominatives combined are of different persons, the verb and pronoun in the plural, prefer the first person to the second, and the second to the third; as, He and I shared (first person) it between us.

2. When nominatives of different persons are disjunctively connected, the verb in the singular agrees with the person next it; as, Thou or he is the author of it. He or I am to blame.

EXPLANATION.—This Rule means that if, of different nominatives to a verbone is in the first person, then the plural verb or a pronoun referring to them, is put in the first person; and if one is in the second person and none in the first, then the verb or pronoun is put in the second person. It is however, only in the use of the pronouns that there is a liability to err under this rule, because all the persons of the verb in the plural number are alike. The second part needs no explanation.

Oss. In the order of arrangement in English, the second person is usually placed before the third, and the first person is always placed last.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences point out which words are the verbs—what are the nominatives. Arrange the nominatives in the proper order, put the pronoun is each in the proper number and person, to represent the combined nominatives.

Thomas and you has divided that apple between us. I and James did it themselves. I and thou art to blame. I or thou have done it. I, or thou, or John, is appointed to read. I and James has a horse of his own; have not they?

2. Write short sentences of which the subject shall be nominatives of different persons, properly arranged, and tell what person and number the verb is, and why. Tell what pronoun stands for "he and I"—"thou and he"—"he and she"—"thou and I."

LESSON XLVII.

Rule VII. 1. When a collective noun conveys the idea of unity, its verb must be singular; as, The class was large.

2. When a collective noun conveys the idea of plurality, its verb must be plural; as, My people do not consider. They have not known me EXPLANAT.C.N.—A collective noun conveys unity of idea, when that which is said of it regards the collection as one whole, and not as individuals or divided. Thus, in the first example, it was the "class," and not the individuals composing it, that "was large." It conveys plurality, when that which is said regards mainly the individuals or parts, and not the collection as one whole; as, "My people" (that is, all of them and every one of them,) "do not consider." In this Rule the sense is the best guide.

Obs. Pronouns referring to collective nouns, must in like manner be singular or plural, according as the idea of unity er plurality is expressed.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the collective nouns. Consider from the sense whether they convey unity or plurality of idea, and put the verb in the singular or plural accordingly.

The school are dismissed. A church are made up of all their members. The assembly were unanimous. The assembly was divided. The number of hearers were very great. Mankind is united by the bonds of friendship. Never was a people more various in its sentiments. The crowd were immense.

2. Write short sentences in each of which the subject, or nominative to the verb, shall be one of the following nouns, viz., multitude, crowd, army, nation, fleet, people, generation, &c.; tell whether the verb is singular or plural, and why.

LESSON XLVIII.

RULE VIII. 1. Every adjective qualifies a substantive expressed or understood; as, A good boy.

2. Adjectives denoting one, must have nouns in the singular; those denoting more than one, must have nouns in the plural; as, This man; that woman; these things.

EXPLANATION.—This Rule applies to all adjective words, namely, adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles. These being indeclinable in English, there is danger of error only in the use of such as imply number.

Obs. 1. Adjectives denoting one, are this, that, one, each, every, either, neither; and the ordinal numerals, first, second, third, &c.

OBS. 2. Adjectives denoting more than one, are these; those, many, several; and the cardinal numerals, two, three, four, &c.

OBS. 3. Some adjectives implying number can be joined with either singular or plural nouns, according to the sense; as, some, all, no, &c.; thus, Some man; Some men, &c.

OBS. 4. EXCEPTION. When the noun following the numeral is used in an adjective sense, (Lesson X., OBS. 1,) it has not the plural termination; thus, we say, A four *inch* plank; a three foot wall; a four horse team; a ten acre field, &c.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise, point out the adjectives and the substantives which they qualify. Tell which denote one, and which more than one, and make the substantives singular or plural as the adjectives require.

A well six fathom deep. A pole ten foot long. A field twenty rod wide. I have not seen him this ten days. Those sort of people are common. These kind of things are useless. You will find the remark in the second or third pages. Each have their own place and they know it. The second and third pages were torn.

3. Write short sentences each of which shall contain an adjective of number (See Obs. 1, 2, 3,) and a substantive in the number required by the adjective. Thus, Every man had a pole six feet long.

LESSON XLIX.

Rule IX. When two persons or things are contrasted, that refers to the first mentioned, and this to the last; as,

Virtue and vice are as opposite to each other as light and darkness; that ennobles the mind, this debases it.

OBS. Former and latter, one and other, are often used instead of that and this. Former and latter are alike in both numbers; one and other refer to the singular only. In most cases, however, the repetition of the nouns is preferable to either of these substitutes. This Rule needs no illustration.

LESSON L.

Rule X. 1. Pronouns agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number, and person; as, John is here; he came an hour ago. Every tree is known by its fruit.

EXPLANATION.—This Rule applies only to the personal and possessive pronouns. These stand instead of nouns of all genders, numbers, and persons, and the Rule means that when any of these pronouns is used, it must be of the same gender, number, and person, with the noun for which it stands.

- Obs. 1. When a pronoun refers to two words of different persons connected by a copulative conjunction, it becomes plural, and prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third; as, John and I will do our duty. [See Rule VI. 1.]
- Obs. 2. The word containing the answer to a question must be in the same case with the word that asks it; as, Who said that? I (said it.) Whose books are these? John's.
- Obs. 3. Pronouns of different genders or numbers should **not** be used to express the same object in the same sentence; **thus, I** labored to make *thee* happy, and now *you* reward me with **ig**gratitude. It should be, either, "to make *you* happy," or, "thou rewardest."

EXERCISES.

 In the following Exercise point out the personal and possessive pronouns and the nouns for which they stand. Change the pronoun, if necessary, for one of the same gender, number, and person, with its noun.

Give to every man their due. Answer not a fool according to her folly. Take handfuls of ashes and sprinkle it towards heaven. Rebecca took raiment and put them upon Jacob. Thou and he shared it between them. Who is there? Me. Who did that? Him. Whom did you meet? He. Whose pen is that? Her or mine's. Virtue forces her way through obscurity and sooner or later it is sure to be rewarded.

2. Write sentences each of which shall contain one of the following nouns, and a pronoun standing instead of it: John, Mary, uncle, father, mother, book, house, gril, boy, pen, &c.; thus, "There is John; tell him to come in he must be tired."

LESSON LL

RULE XI. The relative agrees with its antecedent in number and person, and the verb agrees with it accordingly; as, thou who speakest. The book which was lost.

EXPLANATION.—The relative both stands instead of the noun or pronoun called its antecedent, and connects the idea expressed in its clause with the antecedent, as a farther limitation or description of it. Consequently the relative is always regarded as of the same person and number as its antecedent; and, if the nominative to a verb, the verb will be of the same number and person also. For remarks respecting the antecedent and the use of who and which see Lesson XIII.

SPECIAL RULES UNDER RULE XI.

RULE I. The relative who is applied to persons; which, to animals and things; that, to both persons and things.

RULE II. The relative, with its clause, should be placed as near as possible to its antecedent, to prevent ambiguity.

RULE III. When the relative is preceded by two words referring to the same thing, its proper antecedent is the one next it; as, Thou art the man who was engaged in that business.

- OBS. The relative that is used instead of who and which-
- 1. After the superlative degree, the words same, all, and sometimes no, some, and any; as "It is the best that can be got."
- 2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, "The man and the horse that we saw yesterday."
- 3. After the interrogative who, and sometimes after the pernal pronouns; as, "Who that knows him will believe it." "I that speak in righteousness."

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the relative, and the noun or pronoun to which it refers. Tell the use of the relative, and its clause in each sentence. After the relative, if secessary, as required by its antecedent, according to Sub-Rule I. If the relative is the nominative, put its verb in the same number and person as the relative or the antecedent. Give a reason for each change.

The friend which I love. The vice which I hate.

There is the dog who followed us. They who seeks wisdom find it. All which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave. "I who speak unto you am he."

2. Write a few short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following nouns or pronouns, limited by a relative and its clause; viz. Man, house, dog, tree, field, hat, boot, chair; 1, thou, he, we, you, they; thus, "There is the man who makes baskets." Parse the sentences, and tell the number and person of the relative, and why.

LESSON LII.

Rule XII. Substantives denoting the same person or thing, agree in case; as, Cicero the orator.

Words thus used are said to be in apposition.

EXPLANATION.—A noun is placed in apposition after another noun, to express some attribute, description, or appellation, belonging to it. Both nouns must be in the same member of the sentence, that is, in the subject, or predicate. This Rule applies to all words used substantively, and it is only when the word in apposition is a pronoun that there is any danger of error, because in pronouns only the nominative and objective are different in form. The word in apposition is sometimes connected with the preceding by the words as, being, and the like.

EXERCISES.

1.-In the following Exercise point out the words in apposition. See if they are in the same case. If they are, the sentence is right; if not, it is wrong and must be corrected. In the following, some sentences are right, others wrong.

First in the hearts of his countrymen is Washington, the hero, the statesman, and the patriot. La Fayette, the friend of Washington, is no more. Your brother has returned, him who went abroad. I bought this paper from a bookseller, he who lives opposite; will you please to give it to that boy, he that stands by the door. Is your sister well, her that was lately sick?

2. In this manner write correct sentences containing nouns, or a noun and its pronoun, in apposition.

LESSON LIII.

RULE XIII. A verb may have the same case after it as before it, when both words refer to the same thing; as, It is I. I took it to be him.

EXPLANATION.—Verbs having the same case after as before them are chiefly those which signify to be, to become, passive verbs of naming, making, choosing, and the like; as, "John became a scholar;" "David was made king." The mominative before the finite verb is the subject, the one after it is the predicate, and the verb is the sopula. Hence they all form a simple sentence, and though the nouns denote the same person or thing and are in the same case, they are not in apposition, as in the preceding rule. This Rule refers both to nouns and promouns. In questions, the verb or its auxiliary stands before both nominatives. When the word after the verb, according to the Rule, is a relative or interrogative pronoun, it stands before both the others. Here again there is danger of error only in the use of pronouns, and for the same reason as before.

EXERCISES.

I. In the following Exercise, in each sentence point out the verb to which the Rule applies, and the noun or pronoun before and after it. Tell the case of the one before and why. Put the one after in the same case as the one before, give the Rule for the change, and shew how it applies. Tell the subject and predicate in each sentence.

It is me. It could not have been them. I am certain it was not me. That is the man who I thought it to be. Is that thee? Whom did they say it was? I understood it to have been he. Was it me that said so? It could not have been me; but it might have been him, or her, or them both.

2. Write similar correct sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, with the same case after it as before it, viz., is, are, became, was made, shall be chosen, to be, to be called, to be appointed. Apply the Rule as above.

LESSON LIV.

RULE XIV. When two nouns come together, denoting the possessor and the thing possessed, the first is put in the possessive case; as, John's book; on eagle's wings.

EXPLANATION.—Under this Rule the noun denoting the possessor is always in the possessive case. That denoting the person or thing possessed may be in any case. This Rule applies to the relative pronoun and to the possessive case of the personal pronoun, when the noun denoting the thing possessed is understood; as, "That book is mine." When expressed, the possessor is denoted by the possessive adjective pronoun; as, "That is my book."

- Obs. 1. When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive ('s) is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, "Jane and Lucy's books," i. e., books the common property of Jane and Lucy.
- OBS. 2. But if common possession is not implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each; as, "Jane's and Lucy's books," i. e., books, some of which are Jane's and others Lucy's.
- Obs. 3. When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as, Julius Cæsar's Commentaries." The Bishop of London's Charge.
- OBS. 4. The latter or governing substantive is frequently understood; as, "He stays at his father's" (house.)
- Obs. 5. The preposition of, with the objective, is frequently equivalent to the possessive, but not always. In the use of it, both harshness and ambiguity should be avoided.
- 65 For several of the minutiæ belonging to this Rule see Gr., \$6 62, 63.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise point out the noun or pronoun denoting the possessor, and the noun denoting the thing possessed, and if understood supply it. Put the word denoting the possessor in the possessive case. When several words coming together should be in the possessive, or when the name is complex, add the sign of the possessive ('s) to the proper term.

The boys book. The gir's bonnet. The Ladys book, a birds nest, a bear skin. A mothers tenderness and a fathers care, are natures gifts for mans advantage. A horse tooth. James and Thomas feet are cold. Williams and Marys reign. Robinson's, Pratt's & Co.'s bookstore is in New-York. James loss is Thomas gain. The Farmers Guide. The Scholars Companion. The Courts session is put off. The meeting's president was appointed.

Write short sentences, each of which shall contain two nouns, one denoting the possessor, in the proper case, the other the thing possessed.

LESSON LV.

RULE XV. When the present participle is used as a noun, a noun before it should be put in the possessive case; as, Much depends on your pupil's composing frequently.

EXPLANATION.—The present participle is used as a verbal noun whenever is in the subject of a verb or the object of a transitive verb or preposition.

One. A pronoun before the verbal noun must be the possessive pronoun, and not the possessive case; as, "Much depends on your (not yours,) composing frequently."

EXERCISES.

 In the following Exercise tell which is the verbal noun, and how you know it to be used as such. If a noun stands before it, put that noun in the proper case, and give the rule.

My brother being sick is the cause of his absence. A man making a fortune depends partly on him pursuing a proper course. John attempting too much was the cause of his failure. Hers going away was not observed. The ship sailing was delayed.

2. Write short sentences similar to the above, point out the verbal noun, and see that the noun before it is in the proper case.

LESSON LVI.

RULE XVI. When the present participle, used as a noun, has an article before it, it should have the preposition of after it; as, In the keeping of his commandments there is a great reward.

EXPLANATION.—The same as in the preceding Rule.

Oss. 1. The sense will often be the same if both the article and the preposition be omitted; but the one should not be omitted without the other; thus. In keeping his commandments, &c. In

some cases however, these two modes express very different ideas and therefore attention to the sense is necessary.

OBS. 2. When a possessive case or a possessive pronoun precedes the participle, as in RULE XV., of usually follows it; but not always, and never when a preposition follows the participle; as, His depending on promises proved his ruin.

EXERCISES

In the following Exercise, point out the participial noun and tell how you know it to be so used. See what words are before and after it, and if not right seconding to the Rule, make them so, and give the Rule for the change.

Learning of any thing well requires application. The doing our duty is commendable. By reading of good books the mind is improved. Of the making many books there is no end. By exercising of our faculties they are improved. The giving to every one his own is a sacred duty. Reading of novels is a wasting time.

LESSON LVII

Rule XVII. The perfect participle, and not the imperfect tense, should be used after the verbs have and be; as, I have written, (not wrote.) I am chosen.

EXPLANATION.—This rule can be violated only in the use of verbs in which the imperfect tense and perfect participle differ in spelling. Before a perfect participle, have and be are auxiliaries, the former in the active voice, the latter in the passive.

- Ons. 1. The perfect participle should not be used instead of the imperfect tense; thus, it is improper to say, "he begun," for "he began;" "he run," for "he ran;" "he done," for "he did;" "he seen," for "he saw."
- OBS. 2. The present participle, active, and not the perfect, is often used after the verb to be, to express the continued suffering of an action; as, "The house is building," not "being built."—Gr., § 31.

EXERCISES.

). In the following Exercise, when the imperiect tense stands after the auxiliarice have, or be, change it into the perfect participle, and give the Rule for the change.

He should have wrote. Have you spoke to the master? I am almost froze. She has just began to read. James has broke his arm. You should have drove more slowly. He has drank too much, and should be took home. He might have rode if he had chose.

2. Correct the following errors, and give a reason for the change.

I seen him an hour ago. I done what you told me. James run a mile in ten minutes, and had not began to be tired. The school begun yesterday. He ought to have went, or at least to have wrote. That is wrong, you had not ought to done it.

- 3. Write short sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, in the perfect or pluperfect, indicative, active, viz., begin, run, sing, write, freeze, est, drink. Parse the sentences, and apply the Rule.
- 4. Write short sentences with the following verbs in the passive voice; viz., verite, begin, shake, sink, speak, give. Parse them, and apply the Rule.

LESSON LVIII.

RULE XVIII. 1. One verb governs another in the infinitive mood; as, I desire to learn.

2. To, the sign of the infinitive, is not often used after the verbs bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, and let, in the active voice, nor after let, in the passive.

EXPLANATION.—The infinitive mood in most cases may be regarted as a verbal noun, and so when in immediate dependance on a verb is related to it, either as its subject or object. After nouns, adjectives, or other parts of speech, the infinitive generally represents the action or state denoted by the verb as the object, end, or design, of the attribute or fact expressed by the preceding or governing word, and connected with it by a preposition or other conjunctive word, understood.

Obs. Dare, with an auxiliary, generally requires to to be inserted. Need always requires it, except in the present tease, simple negative form; as, I need to write; you need not write.

SUB-RULE.—The infinitive mood is often governed by nouns and adjectives, or by such words as "for," "in order to," and the like, understood; as, A desire to learn; anxious to please; I read (in order) to improve; "The thief cometh not but (for) to steal." "Joshua set men by the cave (for) to keep them."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, tell which verb is in the infinitive mood, and what
governs it. State whether it is the subject or object of the governing verb. Insert or omit to, the sign of the infinitive, and give a reason according to the Rule.

Strive learn. Cease do evil. Learn do well. He needs not to write I would have you to take care. He dares not to do a wicked action; nor will he dare do it. I heard him to say so. He was heard say so. Let James to do this. Bid him to speak to me. Did you see him to do that? No, but I heard him to do it.

Write short sentences, in each of which shall be one verb in the infinitive moon. Parse them, and apply the Rule.

LESSON LIX.

RULE XIX. 1. When doubt and futurity are both implied, the subjunctive mood is used; as, Though he fall, (i. e., at some future time,) he shall arise again.

2. When doubt only, and not futurity, is implied, the indicative is used; as, If he speaks (i. e., now,) as he thinks, he may be safely trusted.

EXPLANATION.—Doubt and futurity are both implied when the auxiliary, shall, or should, referring to future time, can be inserted before the verb without changing the meaning: thus, "Though he fall," and "Though he should fall," mean the same thing. It is only in the present tense and third person singular, that there is danger of error under this Rule, except in the verb to be.

REMARK.—Many of the best writers, and some distinguished grammarians, often use the subjunctive present when mere doubt or contingency is expressed; but in this even they are not uniform, while the weight of authority is evidently in favor of the above Rules. A general adherence to them would have this advantage, that the mood used would be a certain guide to the sense intended.

SUB-RULE.—Lest and that, annexed to a command, require the subjunctive mood; as, Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. Take heed that thou speak not to Jacob, either good or bad.

Obs. The subjunctive mood, in the imperfect tense, expresses a supposition with respect to something present, but implies a denial of the thing supposed; as. If I were a nightingale I would sing; implying, I am not.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, state whether the verb following "if" or "though" should be in the subjunctive or indicative mood, and why; and make the necessary correction.

If there be a rule it should be observed. Though he be rich he is not happy. If the mail arrives to-morrow we shall have letters. If he studies diligently when he goes to school he will improve. If he is but discreet when he goes abroad he will gain friends. If he have money he must have earned it.

LESSON LX.

RULE XX. 1. Conjunctions couple the same moods and tenses of verbs; as, Do good, and seek peace.

2. Conjunctions couple the same cases of nouns and pronouns; as, He and I are happy.

EXPLANATION.—The reason of this Rule is, that words thus coupled are for the most part in the same construction; that is, nouns connected must be in the same case, because they are nominatives to the same verb, or governed by the same noun, verb, or preposition; and verbs thus coupled have usually the same nominative. In respect of case, errors occur chiefly in the use of pronouns.

OBS. 1. When conjunctions connect different moods and tenses, or when a contrast is stated, with but, not, though, &c., the nomi-

native is generally repeated; as, He may return, but he will not remain.

- Obs. 2. The relative after than is usually in the objective case; as, "Alfred, than whom," &c.
- Obs. 3. After verbs of doubting, fearing, denying, that should be used, and not lest, but, but that; as, They feared that (not lest,) he would die.
- Obs. 4. In the compound tenses, verbs coupled in the same tense have the auxiliary expressed with the first and understood to the rest; as, John can read, write, and spell. When different tenses are coupled, the auxiliary must always be expressed; as, He has come, but he will not stay.

EXERCISES.

In the following, point out the connected verbs. If they have the same nonelnative, put them in the same mood and tense. If they must be in different moods or tenses, repeat the nominative; and if that is a noun, repeat it by its pronous. Point out the connected nouns or pronouns, and put them in the same case.

He reads and wrote well. If he say it and does it, I am content. If he be at home, and is well, give him the letter. My father has read the book, and will return it to-morrow. James and me ran all the way. That is a small matter between you and I. Him and I are great friends, and so are Mary and me. Nobody knows that but her and me.

- 2. Write short sentences, in which two or more verbs are connected in the same mood and tense, and notice particularly OBS. 4. Put the verbs in the present—in the imperfect—in the perfect, &c. Express the same ideas with the verbs in the passive voice.
- 3. Write sentences containing two or more verbs in different moods and tenses, paying attention to Ors. 1.; others, containing two or more nouns or pronouns connected in the same case.

LESSON LXI.

Rule XXI. Some conjunctions and adverbs have their corresponding conjunctions; thus,

Though,		yet; as,	Though he was rich, yet for our sakes, &c.
Whether	,	or;	Whether he go or stay.
Either,		or;	I will either write or send.
As,		ae;	(expressing equality) Mine is as good as yours.
As,		s o;	(expressing equality) As the stars, so shall thy seed be.
<i>S</i> 0,		ae;	(with a negative expressing inequality) He is not so wise as his brother.
So,		that ;	(expressing consequence) 1 am so weak that I cannot walk.
Not only,		but also	; Not only his property, but also his life was in danger.
Lf,		then;	(in reasoning) If he can do it, then he will do it.
Nors. A	s and s	in the a	ntecedent member of a comparison, are properly ad-

EXPLANATION.—This Rule means that when any of the above corresponding terms stands in one member of a sentence, the other term should stand in the other member. After "though," "yet" is sometimes understood.

EXERCISES.

 Point out the corresponding terms in the following sentences, and make the second correspondent to the first, or the first to the second, as the sense requires. Supply the correspondent term where improperly omitted.

He will not do it himself nor let another do it for him. Though he slay me so will I trust in him. That is so far as I am able to go. This book is equally good as that one. Nothing is so bad as it cannot be worse. He was not only diligent but successful in his studies. It is neither cold or hot.

Write correct sentences, each of which shall contain one pair of the above corresponding terms, and state what they express.

LESSON LXII.

RULE XXII. The comparative degree and the pronoun other require than after them, and such requires as; as, Greater than I; No other than he; Such as do well.

SUB-RULE.—When two objects are compared, the comparative is generally used; but when more than two, the superlative; as, James is older than John Mary is the wisest of them all.

EXPLANATION.—This Rule may be regarded as a continuation of the preceding one. And the correspondent terms are, the comparative degree and than: other—than: such—as. The same explanation, therefore, will suffice. For the minutise in the use of the comparative and superlative degree, see Gr. § 71.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, point out the comparative degree, or other correspondent terms, and make the one correspond to the other, according to the Rule.

James writes better as I do. There were more besides him engaged in that business. No more but two can play at this game. The days are longer in summer besides they are in winter. Has James no other book but this? This is such conduct that I did not expect. John is the wisest of the two. Which of all these books is the prettier?

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain a word in the comparative degree, or the word other or such followed by the proper correspondent terms

LESSON LXIII.

RULE XXIII. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper; Thus we ought not to say, "more better," "most best;" but "better," best."

EXPLANATION.—The only error likely to occur under this Rule, is the prefixing of more and most to adjectives already compared by adding er and est: or the adding of er and est to adjectives already compared by prefixing more and most. The Rule means that only one method of comparison should be used.

Obs. It is improper to compare adjectives whose signification does not admit of increase or diminution, and of course not of comparison. For such adjectives see Lesson XI., Obs. 4

EXERCISES.

 In the following point out the adjectives in the comparative or superlative degree. If double, correct the sentence by removing one of the forms of comparison.

James is much more taller than Henry. How much more better it is to get wisdom than gold. Subtract the lesser number from the greater. He began to grow

worser and worser. Thomas was the most liveliest man in the company. After the most straitest sect of our religion. What is more sweeter than honey, or more stronger than a lion?

 Write sentences each containing an adjective or adverb in the comparative or superlative degree, and avoid the error pointed out in the Rule and explanation.

LESSON LXIV.

Rule XXIV. 1. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

2. Adverbs should not be used as adjectives; thus, "Use a little wine for thine often infirmities," should be, "for thy frequent infirmities."

EXPLANATION.—This Rule means, first, that when a verb, adjective, or adverb, is to be modified by any word, that word must be an adverb, and not an adjective, or other part of speech; and secondly, that an adjective, and not an adverb, is used with nouns to express a property or quality belonging to them.

Where always refers to place; when, and then, to time.

- Obs. 1. Where should not be used for in which, except when place is referred to; as, the situation in which I left him, not where I left him; because "situation" does not here refer to place. So, is often used elliptically for an adjective, a noun, or a whole sentence; as, They are rich, we are not so. He is a good scholar, and I told you so.
- Ons. 2. Only, solely, chiefly, merely, too, also, and perhaps a few others, are sometimes joined to substantives; as, Not only the men, but the women also were present.

EXERCISES.

 Point out the modifying words in the following sentences. If not adverbs, make them so, and give the Rule.

Come quick. James does that very good. That was done excellent. Time moves rapid. Apparent slow people accomplish much if sufficient steady. You can read excellent well. It is real cold.

2 In the following point out the adverb improperly used. Shew why it is so; change it for the proper term, and give the Rule.

Thine often infirmities. Come the soonest day possible. The soonest time will be late enough. The then ministry opposed the measure. The condition where I found him was truly bad. He was here last year, since when I have not seen him.

3. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain an adverb, (See LESSON XXXI.,) modifying a verb or adjective, and see that it is placed as directed in the next Rule and Explanation.

LESSON LXV.

RULE XXV. Adverbs are for the most part placed before adjectives, after a verb in the simple form, and after the first auxiliary in the compound form; as, He is very attentive, behaves well, and is much esteemed.

EXPLANATION.—This is to be considered only as a general Rule, to which there are many exceptions. Indeed no rule for the position of the adverte can be given, which is not liable to exceptions. The best direction for the use of this Rule is to place the adverte where the sense requires, having due regard to the harmony of the sentence. [See Gr., § 74.]

EXERCISES.

 In the following sentences place the adverb as the Rule directs, provided the sense will thereby be clearly expressed.

A man industrious eminently. He is agreeable always. He sweetly sings, charmingly converses, and prudently conducts himself on all occasions. He unaffectedly spoke. He manfully has contended for the prize, and certainly will obtain it. Time will wait never. He could have not done it. He will be always trusty.

The following sentences have the adverb placed according to the Rule, but the sense and harmony of the sentence evidently require it to be in a different position. Men contend frequently for trifles. I only* saw three persons. Of the books I sent him he only read one. James can very well read. You should slowly write. He might plainly have told him. He not only saw her pleased, but greatly pleased.

- 3. Write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more adverbs correctly placed. [See List, Lesson XXXI.]
- 4. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following adverbs, viz., only, merely, solely, chiefly, first, at least, and tell the word which they modify. Place the adverbs in as many different positions in each sentence as you can so as to make sense, and mark the change of meaning.

LESSON LXVI.

RULE XXVI. Two negatives in the same sentence are improper, unless we mean to affirm; thus, "I cannot by no means allow it," should be, "I cannot by any means allow it." Or, "I can by no means allow it."

EXPLANATION.—The reason of this Rule is that one negative destroys the other, so that the two are equivalent to an affirmative. A negative is often made by the syllables dis, in, im, un, &c., prefixed to a word. And when this is the case, another negative is sometimes used to express a diminished kind of affirmation; as, "He was not unkind." An affirmation made by two distinct negative trems is harsh, and should be avoided. Negative terms are such as No, not neither, nor, never, &c. [See Gr., § 75.]

EXERCISES.

 Point out the two negatives in the following sentences. Show why they are wrong; correct them and give the Rule.

I cannot eat no more. He is not able to walk no farther. We cannot do that in no way. He will never be no taller. Never do nothing of the kind. Time and tide will not wait for no man. No man never did that.

^{*} Note. The improper position of the adverb only, often occasions ambiguity, and no word is more frequently placed improperly.

2. Make short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following words, sworthy, just, discreet, kind, obliging, agreable, happy, firm, &c. Then prefix to these words, the appropriate negative prefix mentioned above. Then insert a negative word in each sentence, and mark the difference of meaning with each change; thus, "He is a worthy man," "He is not an unworthy man."

LESSON LXVII.

RULE XXVII. Appropriate prepositions must be used before names of places; thus,

- To—is used after a verb of motion, to express destination; as, He went to Spain; but it is omitted before home; as, He went home yesterday.
- 2. At-is used after the verbs to be, touch, arrive, land: as, I was at Rochester.
- In—is used before names of countries and large cities; as, I live in Albany, in the State of New-York.
- 4. At—is used before single houses, villages, towns, and foreign cities; as, He is at home; He resided at Gretna Green; at York, at Rome.

One inhabitant speaking of another's residence, says, He lives in State Street; or if the word number be used,—at No. -— State Street.

EXPLANATION.—This general Rule includes four specific Rules under it, marked 1, 2, 3, 4, and in applying it the specific, Rule is that which should be given. The preposition is sometimes understood.

Obs. Interjections sometimes have an objective after them, but they never govern it. It is always governed by an active transitive verb or preposition understood; as, Ah me! i. e., What has happened to me?

EXERCISES.

f. In the following sentences change the preposition used for that which the Rule requires, and give the specific Rule.

I have been to home. Have you been to Boston? They live in Union Village; formerly they lived at New-York. He has been at England, and has just returned to home. We touched on France on our way to home. He lives to Washington, at B. Street, but resided formerly in No. 50, Broadway, New-York.

 Write short sentences, each of which shall contain the name of some city village, country, or state, preceded by a verb of motion, or by the verb be, live, well, &c., and the appropriate preposition.

LESSON LXVIII.

RULE XXVIII. Certain words and phrases must be followed with appropriate prepositions; such as,

Accuse of. Acquit of. Adapted to. Ask or inquire of a person for what we

wish to see,-after what we wish to hear of.

Believe in, sometimes on.

Betray to a person.-into any thing else. Call on a person,—at a house.

Change for.

Compare with, in respect of quality,to, for the sake of illustration.

Confide in.

Conformable, consonant to.

Conversant with men,-in things. Copy from life, nature,-after a parent.

Dependent upon

Die of disease,-by an instrument or violence.

Differ from.

Difficulty in.

Diminish from,-diminution of.

Disappointed in what we have,-of Regard to. what we expect.

Discourage from. Discouragement to.

Engaged in a work,-for a time.

Equal to, with.

Exception from, -sometimes to.

Expert in, (before a noun,)-at, (before an active participle.)

Familiar to, with: A thing is familiar to us: we are familiar with it.

Free from.

Glad of, something gained by ourselves,at, something that befals another.

Independent of or on.

Indulge with what is not habitual,-in

what is habitual.

Insist upon Made of.

Marry to. Need of.

Observation of.

Prejudice against.

Prevail (to persuade) with, on, upon, (to overcome,) over, against.

Profit bu.

Protect (others,) from, (ourselves,) against.

Provide with or for.

Reduce (to subdue) under,-in other ca-

ses, to; as, to powder.

Sick of.

Swerve from.

Taste (meaning capacity or inclination) for,-(meaning actual enjoyment) of. Tax with, (e. g., a crime,)-for the state.

Value upon or on.

Worthy of,-sometimes the of is under-

EXPLANATION.—As words connected by prepositions are differently related. care must be taken to employ the preposition which best expresses the relation intended. The sense and the practice of correct writers will here be our best guide. The above are only a few examples out of many.

OBS. The same preposition that follows the verb or adjective, usually follows the noun derived from it, and vice versa; as, Confide in, -confidence in, -confident in. Disposed to tyrannize. -a disposition to tyrannize, &c.

EXERCISES.

1. Change the preposition in the following sentences for that required by the Rule.

He was accused with robbery, and acquitted from the charge. I have been calling upon an old friend. Call in the post-office. I differ with you in that matter. John died by consumption, Henry died of the sword, and Robert is sick with the jaundice. Try to profit from experience. You have a taste of poetry. Conversant in men and things. Compare this piece to that and see which is the best. I could never bear the taste for tobacco. This is an exception against the general rule.

Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more of the words in the preceding table, followed by the appropriate preposition.

LESSON LXIX.

RULE XXIX. In the use of verbs and words that in point of time relate to each other, the order of time must be observed; as, "I have known him these many years;" not, "I know him these many years."

EXPLANATION.—This Rule is general, and here also the sense is the best guide. The following principles may be noticed in this place.

- 1. That which is always true is expressed in the present tense.
- 2. That which is past, but viewed as continued to the present, is expressed in the perfect tense.
- 3. Verbs having the auxiliaries shall, will, may, can, can be associated in a sentence with other verbs in the present only; those with might, could, would, should, with verbs in the past.
- 4. The present infinitive expresses what is cotemporary with, or subsequent to the time of the governing verb; the perfect infinitive expresses what is antecedent to it. [See Gr., § 78.]

EXERCISES.

 In the following sentences point out the verb which is wrong in respect of tenses
 Put it in the proper tense, and tell why it is so changed. It was said that fever always produced thirst; that heat always expanded metals; and that truth was immutable. He is now absent a week. I have been abroad last year. If he would lend me that book I will be obliged to him, He can do it if he would. I intended to have written; but I still hoped he would have come. Rome is said to be built seven hundred years before the Christian era. Nero is said to persecute the Christians. He has been gone long before I knew it.

2. Write short sentences, and express in each something which you hoped, feared, desired, intended, to do yesterday, before yesterday,—which you hope, fear, &c., to do to-day, to-morrow. Also what some one did yesterday,—before yesterday,—always does,—does now,—has just done now,—will do to-morrow,—before to-morrow night.

LESSON LXX.

RULE XXX. When a member of a sentence refers to two different clauses, it should be equally applicable to both; as, He has not been, and cannot be, censured for such conduct.

EXPLANATION.—In order to see whether sentences are correct according to this Rule, join the member of the sentence common to the two clauses, to each of them separately, so as to make two sentences. If both of the sentences are grammatically correct, and express the sense intended, the sentence is right—if not, it is wrong, and must be corrected. Thus, for example, "He has not, and he cannot, be censured," is wrong, because if you add the member "be censured," to the first clause, it will make "He has not be censured," which is incorrect, according to RULE XVII. This must be corrected by inserting "been" after "has not," so as to read "He has not been, and he cannot be, censured." The different clauses should be correctly marked by punctuation.

This rule is often violated in sentences in which there are two comparisons of a different nature and government. Thus, "He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Cinthio." Here, "as Cinthio." is applicable to the clause "so much admired," but cannot be connected with "more beloved." In such sentences as this, the proper way is to complete the construction of the first member, and leave that of the second understood; as, "He was more beloved than Cinthio, but not so much admired" (as Cinthio.)

A proper choice of words, and a perspicuous arrangement, should be carefully attended to.

EXERCISES.

Make trial of the following sentences, as directed in the Explanation. If the first clause joined with the common member of the sentence, is not grammatically correct, point out the error and correct it. Do so with the second clause.

He always has, and he always will be, punctual. They might, and probably were, good. James is taller, but not so strong, as his brother. His book is not so good, though larger, than I expected. This house is larger, but not so convenient, as that one. I ever have, and I ever will, say so. "He depends, and confides in me," is just as incorrect as, "He confides and depends upon me."

LESSON LXXI.

RULE XXXI. 1. A substantive with a participle, forming an independent member of a sentence, is put in the nominative case absolute; as, "He (not him) destroyed, all this will soon follow."

2. The person or thing addressed, without a verb, is put in the nominative independent; as, Plato, thou reasonest well. I am, Sir, your humble servant.

EXPLANATION.—It is in the use of pronouns only that there is liability to error under this Rule, because in these only the nominative and objective differ in form. The case absolute has no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence, but is used to express some circumstance of time, manner, order, exception, &c., related to it. Sometimes the substantive is understood: as, "His conduct, ("we," or "a person,") viewing it in its most favorable light, is dishonorable." The infinitive is sometimes used in the same way; as, "To say the truth."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences point out the pronouns used absolutely, and the participles joined with them. If in the wrong case, correct them by the Rule

The boys all ran away, him and me excepted. Me staying behind, the rest went forward. Them being now come, we may proceed.

"Thee, only thee, directing all our way."

LESSON LXXII.

RULE XXXII. The article A is used before nouns in the singular number only. The is used before nouns in both numbers. A is indefinite. The is definite.

EXPLANATION.—It is impossible to give a precise Rule for the use of the article in every case. The best general Rule is to observe what the sense requires. The following usages may be noticed. For others see Gr., § 81.

OBS. 1. The article is omitted before a noun that is unlimited, or that stands for a whole species; as, Man is mortal; and before the names of minerals, metals, arts, &c. By usage some nouns denoting the species, have the article always prefixed; as, The dog is a more grateful animal than the cat. The lion is a noble animal. Others never have it; thus, Lead is softer than iron. Wood is lighter than stone.

OBS. 2. The last of two nouns after a comparative, should have no article when they both refer to one person or thing; as, He is a better reader than writer.

OBS. 3. When two or more adjectives, or epithets, belong to the same subject, the article should be placed before the first, and omitted before the rest; when they belong to different subjects the article is prefixed to each; thus, "A red and white rose," indicates one rose, partly red and partly white. "A red and a white rose," means two roses, one red and one white. "Johnson, the bookseller and stationer," denotes one person. "Johnson, the bookseller, and the stationer," denotes two.

EXERCISES.

The following sentences are wrong only in the use of the article. Show why
they are wrong, and correct them.

A great talents without a virtue are dangerous. A man is mortal. A time flies. The money is scarce. John is a better farmer than a scholar. The black and the white spaniel runs fastest. The black and white spaniel run together. The time and the tide wait for no man. A red and a white rose grows on this bush.

The black and white man came together. Smith, the tanner and currier, entered into partnership. Smith, the tanner and the currier, is a man of a great industry.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain the article a, or an, or the.

Others, which shall contain nouns without an article.

LESSON LXXIII.

RULE XXXIII. An ellipsis or omission of words is admissible, when they can be supplied in the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense. Thus, instead of saying, He was a learned man, and he was a wise man, and he was a good man; we say, He was a learned, wise, and good man.

EXPLANATION.—There is a constant tendency in man to express his ideas in the fewest words possible. Whenever, therefore, a word can be spared from a sentence without obscuring its meaning, that word is often left out. This is called ellipsis. Thus, instead of the full form of the sentence, as follows, "I rise at six hours of the clock in the morning, I breakfast at seven hours of the clock in the morning, I go to the school at nine hours of the clock, and study till twelve hours of the clock," we can say, (and be equally well understood,) "I rise at six, breakfast at seven, go to school at nine, and study till twelve." This is the origin of abbreviated sentences; and in order to parse such, or to understand their grammatical construction, the words left out must be supplied.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, leave out such words as may be omitted without obscuring the sense.

He had an affectionate father and an affectionate mother. You may read, or you may write, as you please. Will you study, or will you not study? I have been at London, and I have seen the queen. A house and a garden. He would neither go, nor would he send.

2. In the following sentences, supply the words left out, so as to shew their full construction.

It is six o'clock; we may study till seven. We have done it, but you have not. John will read, and Thomas write letters. This apple is larger than that, but not so sweet. Give this apple to James, that to Robert, and the other to Mary. I have heard and read much about Washington and the Revolution. "Sun, stand thou still upon Gibeon; and thou, Moon, in the valley of Ajalon.

LESSON LXXIV.

RULE XXXIV. An ellipsis is not allowable when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety; for example, "We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen," should be, "We speak that which we do know, and testify that which we have seen."

EXPLANATION.—The sense will always be obscured when, on account of improper ellipsis, the construction of the sentence is rendered doubtful, or is not clearly and readily perceived. When a sentence or clause is emphatic, ellipsis is less allowable. The antecedent to the relative, except in poetry, is seldom omitted; and the relative itself, if in the nominative case, never. The article should be repeated when a different form of it is required; as, "A horse and as ass."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences point out the improper ellipsis. Shew why it is improper, and correct it.

Cicero made orations, both on private and public occasions. He is the most diligent scholar I ever knew. Thou hast that is thine. Thine the kingdom, the power, and the glory. Depart in peace, be ye warmed, clothed, and filled. I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me. That is the best can be said of him. He has a house and orchard. We must all go the way we shall not return.

LESSON LXXV.

Model of Syntactical Parsing.

In syntactical parsing, the pupil is required, besides parsing the word etymologically, [See Lesson XXXVI.] to state its relation to other words in the sentence, and the rules by which these relations are governed. To illustrate this more clearly, the same sentence parsed etymologically, Lesson XXXVII., is here parsed syntactically.

- "Give instruction to a wise man, and he will be yet wiser."
- "Give," is a verb, transitive, irregular; give, gave, given; in the imperative, active, second person, singular, and agrees with its nominative thou, understood. Rule I.

 "A verb agrees." &c.
- "Instruction," is a noun; neuter, singular, the objective; govern ed by give. Rule II. "A transitive verb," &c.
- "To," is a preposition, and expresses the relation between give and man, as its remote object.
- "A," is an article, indefinite, belongs to man. Rule XXXII.
 "The article a is used," &c.
- "Wise," is an adjective, compared, wise, wiser, wisest; and expresses a quality of man. Rule VIII. "Every adjective," &c.
- "Man," is a noun, masculine, singular, the objective, governed by to. Rule III. "Prepositions govern," &c.
- "And," is a conjunction, copulative, and connects the two clauses.

 Definition. "A conjunction is a word," &c.
- 'He," is a third personal pronoun, masculine, singular, the nominative; stands instead of man, with which it agrees Rule X. "Pronouns agree," &c., and is the subject or nominative of will be.
 - 'Will be," is a verb, intransitive, irregular; am, was, been; in the future, indicative; active; third person, singular; and affirms of its subject he, with which it agrees. Rule I. "A verb agrees." &c.
- "Yet." is an adverb, modifying wiser. Rule XXIV. "Adverbs modify," &c.

"Wiser," is an adjective, comparative degree; wise, wiser, wisest; and belongs to man, or is predicated of he. Rule VIII. "Every adjective," &c.

Questions similar to those suggested at the close of Lesson XXXVII. may be proper here also.

For Exercises in Syntactical parsing, the pupil may now return to Lesson XXXVIII., or take any plain passage in the reading lessons of the Spelling Book; or the ordinary reading books used in the school may be used for this purpose, as the teacher may direct.

LESSON LXXVI.

Promiscuous Exercises on the Rules of Syntax.

In order to correct the following Exercises, examine each sentence carefully, and see wherein it is wrong. See, first, whether words that should agree, do so—the verb with its nominative—the numeral adjective with its nomi—the pronouna personal and relative, with its substantive; second, whether nouns and pronouna are in the case which the word governing them requires; and lastly, whether the words are arranged in the order which the Rules require. Having found the error, correct it, and give the Rule for the correction. These Exercises, when corrected, or in the time of correcting, may be used as Exercises in Syntactical parsing.

- 1. John writes beautiful. I shall never do so no more. The train of our ideas are often interrupted. Was you present at last meeting? He need not be in so much haste. He dare not act otherwise than he does. Him who they seek is in the house. George or I is the person. They or he is much to be blamed. The troop consist of fifty men. Those set of books was a valuable present. That pillar is sixty foot high. His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity. These trees are remarkable tall.
- 2. He acted bolder than was expected. This is he who I gave the book to. Eliza always appears amiably. Who do you lodge with now? He was born at London, but he died in Bath. If he be sincere, I am satisfied. Her father and her were at church. The master requested him and I to read more distinctly. It is no more but his due. Flatterers flatter as long, and no longer than they have expectations of gain. John told the same story as you told. This is the largest tree which I have ever seen.

- 3. Let he and I read the next chapter. She is free of pain. Those sort of dealings are uajust. David the son of Jesse, was the youngest of his brothers. You was very kind to him. he said. Well, says I, what does thou think of him now? James is one of those boys that was kept in at school, for bad behaviour. Thou, James, did deny the deed. Neither good nor evil come of themselves. We need not to be afraid. It is all fell down.
- 4. He expected to have gained more by the bargain. You should drink plenty of goat milk. It was him who spoke first. Do you like ass milk? Is it me that you mean? Who did you buy your grammar from? If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray. Neither man nor woman were present. I am more taller than you. She is the same lady who sang so sweetly. After the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee. Is not thy wickedness great? and thine iniquities infinite? There is six that studies grammas.

LESSON LXXVII.

Punctuation.

Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to convey to the reader the exact sense, and assist him in the proper delivery. The principal stops are the following:—

The comma (,) the semicolon (;) the colon (:) the period, or full stop (.) the note of interrogation (?) the note of exclamation (!) the parenthesis () and the dash (—)

The comma represents the shortest pause; the semicolon a pause double that of the comma; the colon, double that of the semicolon; and the period, double that of the colon.

The duration of the pauses must be left to the taste of the reader or speaker.

The Comma usually separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

The Semicolon is used to separate the parts of a sentence, which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma.

The Colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon, but not so independent as to require a period.

The Period is used when a sentence is complete, with respect to the construction and the sense intended; as, "God made all things." "By disappointments and trials, the violence of our passions is tamed." "In the varieties of life, we are inured to habits both of the active and the passive virtues."

The period must be used after all abbreviations; as, "A. D."
"M. A." "Fol."

LESSON LXXVIII.

Of Capitals.

In Composition the following words begin with capital letters:

- 1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.
- 2. The first word after a period; also after a note of interregation, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other.
 - 3. Proper names, that is, names of persons, places, ships, &c.
 - 4. The pronoun I, and the interjection O, are written in capitals.
 - 5. The first word of every line in poetry.
- 6. The appellations of the Deity; as, God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, &c.
- 7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, Grecian, Roman, English, &c.
- 8. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon; as, Always remember this ancient maxim: "Know thyself."
- 9. Common nouns, when personified; as, "Come, gentle Spring."
- 10. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books; as, "Euclid's Elements of Geometry," "Goldsmith's Deserted Village.",

NOTE. Other words besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

PART FOURTH .-- PROSODY.

LESSON LXXIX.

Of Prosody.

PROSODY consists of two parts; Elocution, and Versification.

I. ELOCUTION.

ELOCUTION is correct pronunciation, or the proper management of the voice in reading or speaking, and comprises Accent, Quantity, Emphasis, Pause, and Tone.

II. VERSIFICATION.

VERSIFICATION is the arrangement of a certain number of long and short syllables according to certain rules. Composition so arranged is called *Verse*, or *Poetry*.

VERSE is of two kinds; Rhyme, and Blank Verse. In Rhyme, the last syllable of every two lines has the same sound. In Blank Verse this is not necessary,

Every verse or line of poetry consists of a certain number of parts called Fact.

The arrangement of these feet in a line according to the accent, is called Metre; and the dividing of a line into its component feet, is called Scanning.

All feet used in poetry are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three syllables; the long syllable being marked by a straight line (—) and the short, by a curve, () as follows:

TRISSYLLABLE.	
A Dactyl — 🔾 🔾	
An Amphibrach \smile —	
An Anapæst 🔾 🔾 —	
A Tribrach \smile \smile	

In English, accented syllables are long, unaccented are short.

The Metres in most common use, are the lambic, Trochaic, and Anapæstig.

IAMBIO METRE is adapted to grave and serious subjects; has the second, fourth, and other even syllables, accented or long, and the first, third, and other uneven syllables, unaccented or short. Of this verse there are various kinds, some having two feet, some three, some four, some five. The last is called heroic measure, and is the same that is used by Milton, Young, Thompson, Pollock, &c.

When the last line of a stanza is extended to six feet, it is called Alexandrins.

TROCHAIC METER is quick and lively, and adapted to gay and cheerful composition. It comprises verses of one and a half, two, three, four, five, and sometimes six feet; sometimes followed by an additional syllable.

ANAPESTIC METRE consists of lines of two, three, four Metres or Anapæsts with sometimes an additional syllable.

LESSON LXXX.

Composition.

Composition is the putting of words together in sentences, for the purpose of expressing our ideas in writing, in the best manner, according to the Rules of Grammar, and the best usages of the language.

Almost all the Exercises in the preceding Grammar, and especially those under the Rules of Syntax, have been framed with a view to exercise the pupil in the elementary parts of composition, by leading him to vary his ideas, and to express the same idea in different forms; to detect and correct errors which often occur in the construction of sentences; and so to put him on his guard against similar errors; and also to form correct sentences for himself, according to the particular directions laid down under the various Rules. In committing his own ideas to writing, in the form of compositions, then, all he has to do is to endeavor to select the proper words, and to combine these so as to express his meaning correctly, according to the Rules with which he is now supposed to be familiar. The few following hints may be useful.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS TO YOUNG COMPOSERS.

- 1. Spell every word correctly. Pay proper attention to the use of capitals; always using them where they should be, and never where they should not be. [See LESSON LXXVIII.]
- 2. Carefully avoid all vulgar expressions and cant phrases, and never use words which you do not understand, or which do not correctly express your meaning.
- 3. At the end of the line never divide a word of one syllable, nor any word in the middle of a syllable. If there should not be room at the end of the line for the whole syllable, do not begin it at all, but carry it to the next line.
- 4. When you have written what you intended, look over it earefully; see if you can improve by a better choice of words, or by a better arrangement of them, so as to express your meaning more clearly; and mark the changes proposed.
- 5. Copy the whole over in as neat, distinct, and plain a manmer as you can, guarding against blots and erasures, which dis-

figure any writing, dotting your i's, crossing your t's, and pointing the whole in the best manner you can, so that any person, as well as yourself, may easily read and understand it.

6. Try to make every new composition better than the one before it. Never write carelessly, and though it may be a little difficult at first, a little practice will soon make it easy.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

The more simple exercises in composition are, for young beginners, so much the better. They should not be required to write about any thing with which they are not perfectly familiar.

- 1. The following is a very simple and easy exercise. A class of pupils may be directed to look at a certain picture in the Spelling Book or Geography, or any other book at hand; and the teacher may excite their attention by asking some questions, or telling them something respecting it, and then direct each one, either in his seat or at home, to write a description of the picture, together with any ideas that occur to him on the subject. This method will furnish an endless variety of easy and useful exercises.
 - 2. From pictures, the attention may be turred to real objects. The class may now be directed to any object or objects within their view, which they may be required to describe and give their ideas about as before; for example, the school-house and its furniture—the business of the day, in the form of a journal—the principal objects in view to the south of the school-house—to the north—to the east—to the west. Each may be directed to describe his own house, and the leading objects in view from it in different directions; or any object which he may choose to select.
 - 3. Another class of easy interesting subjects may be found in describing familiar objects in natural history—the various seasons of the year, with their employments and amusements—the various operations of the farmer and different mechanic arts—narratives of any accidents, or striking events that may have occurred.
 - 4. Short familiar epistolary correspondence, real or imaginary. One pupil may be directed to write to another concerning any thing he pleases. A post-office might be set up in the school, with its letter-box, to be opened at stated seasons, and its contents read for the amusement and instruction of the school. This ex-

ercise, because voluntary, would be entered into with spirit, and prove of great benefit.

5. Themes on familiar subjects may next be assigned, such as the following:

Point out the evils of the following vices and improprieties, and make such remarks respecting them as you think proper; viz., Lying, Stealing, Swearing, Disobedience to parents, Sabbath breaking, Discontentment, Intemperance, Ill nature, Violent passions, Penuriousness, Idleness, Cruelty to animals, Bad company, &c.

Point out the benefits arising from, and make such remarks as you think proper, respecting,—Truth, Honesty, Sobriety, Love to God, Love to men, Good nature, Industry, Contentment, Kindness to the poor, Keeping good company, Proper amusements, &c.

In all cases with beginners, it is better to require them to give their own thoughts on familiar subjects with which they are acquainted, than to give them subjects of an abstract nature, or of which they cannot be supposed to have much knowledge. In the former case, they will be likely to give their own thoughts in their own way; in the latter, they will have to resort to books, and instead of giving their own ideas, will be apt to copy the writings of others, without perhaps well understanding them.

6. When the compositions are prepared, the errors in Grammar should be pointed out and explained, mistakes in orthography, capitals, punctuation, &c., corrected, or pointed out to be corrected, and then the whole copied, in a correct and plain manner, into a book kept for that purpose.

Compositions of a higher order than those which have been suggested, would be above the years and acquirements of those for whom this little work is intended, and would therefore be improper. Having gone through these Lessons, pupils though young will be well prepared for taking up, with ease and advantage, the "Principles of English Grammar," and for going through a more thorough and critical course.

[THE END.]

REPORT

On the Method of Teaching English Grammar, and on Text Books to the Superintendent of Common Schools in the State of New-York; By Ralph K. Finch, Esq., Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools, Steuben Co.—(Assembly Documents, No. 34-pp. 577-589.)

To the Hon. Samuel Young, Superintendent of Common Schools:

SIR—I have endeavored to perform the task assigned me, and beg leave to submit the following remarks on the method of teaching English grammar. I have not the vanity to believe that the plan here recommended is the best that

can be devised, but it is one that I have tested in the school room, and found embnently successful.

I am, sir, with sentiments of high esteem, your obt. servant,
R. K. FINCH.

R. K. FINCH, Superintendent Common Schools, Steuben County

RÉMARKS ON THE METROD OF TEACHING ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

In the study of English grammar, three things should be steadily kept in view. So. To acquire an accurate knowledge of the principles and facts of the science. 2d. To become prompt and expert in the application of these both in analysis and composition: and, 3d. By means of this to educate or train the mental faculties, in the most effectual and profitable manner. The first of these, in the beginning at least, is chiefly an exercise of the memory: the second, combines with this the exercise of the judgment or reasoning powers; and it is in the proper direction of these, that the skill of the teacher, aided by his text book, leading the pupil to think, to reason, and to arrive at conclusions by the use of his own faculties, is required to effect the third.

It may be proper here to notice a subject which has of late attracted the attention of the writer; it is the practice of committing accurately to memory, or by rote, as it is rather ungenerously called, The time has been, (and in many places still is) when teachers seemed to think their whole duty consisted in requiring their pupils to commit their text book to memory, to assign them their daily task, and hear them recite it off, parrot-like, and he who made fewest mistakes was the best scholar. I have known this process gone through, not only with English grammar, but with Kames, Smellie's Philosophy, and even Euclid, in some schools of high pretensions. Nothing could be more preposterous or useless; and such a mode of teaching has fallen under the just condemnation of all sensible men. But it appears to me that even sensible men are now misleading the public mind into the opposite extreme; which, though not so absurd, nor so injurious, is still an error, and has a pernicious influence on education. Grammar, and every thing else, many think should be taught by mere conversational lectures, without requiring any committing to memory on the part of the pupils. The result is. a great deal seems to be accomplished in little time. Grammar is taught in six lessons, without any effort on the part of the learner. If the teacher is skilful, the pupils, by being led to understand the subject, will be delighted, and suppose they have acquired a great

deal But such acquisitions are like "morning clouds;" the pupils have scarcely left the teacher, when all is gone. The true method, it appears to me, is to combine the two. "In medio tutissimus ibis."

The leading principles of grammar, (and every thing else,) should be fixed in the mind by being carefully committed to memory, and fixed there by repeated rehearsals, and wrought into the understanding by familiar illustrations and exercises. Even allowing pupils to give the sense of the rule, instead of the ipsissima verba, (the very words,) has a pernicious effect. For not only in that way does it fail, generally of being strictly accurate, but at every repeti tion it will be given differently, and thus in a short time will become uncertain, and (if I may use the expression) chaotic; whereas, if always repeated in the same way, the connexion of the words becomes so associated in the mind, and so firmly lodged, as to be always there, and always accurate. Without this, there may be a confused idea of the principle, or rule, and to be sure of it the text book must be at hand, and resorted to-with it, the principle is in delibly fixed in the mind, always present, always ready; so that in fact the little labor expended in committing accurately to memory, saves a great deal of labor and inconvenience afterwards.

It is obvious, if these views are correct, that for the attainment of the first object proposed in the division of my subject, the leading parts of a text book containing the facts and principles designed to be thoroughly committed to memory, should be brief, accurate, so expressed as to be easily understood, and retained in the memory, and so distinguished from the subordinate parts, by size of type, or otherwise as to be manifest on inspection, and moreover in this department should be neither defective nor redundant. To facilitate the second, copious and appropriate exercises should be furnished at every step. A grammar that does not furnish these, is essentially deficient as a text book. And to aid in the third, the subordinate parts of the book should contain illustrations and details, sufficient both for teacher and pupil, in developing and acquiring a knowledge of the minutiæ of the subject, and in training the mind to habits of reflecting, reasoning and discriminating. If in the study of English grammar, any of these be neglected, the result will be a failure.

The study of English grammar, in common schools, should be commenced as soon as the pupil can read with some degree of ease and fluency-not sooner, and should be continued till the subject is completely mastered. No study seems better adapted to the capacity of children, at this stage, than this, as it calls into action, and improves the memory and reasoning faculties, by exercising them on subjects not too difficult to be comprehended. The science of language as a branch of education, is surely of equal importance with the study of geography or of arithmetic. As a means of disciplin ing the mind and improving the rational powers, it is far superior to the former, which is chiefly an exercise of the memory; and is at least equal to the latter: and yet the returns of the county superin tendents for 1842, show an aggregate of about forty-one thousand studying geography, sixty-four thousand studying arithmetic, and only twenty-eight thousand studying grammar. This fact seems to show a want of attention to this important study, which is probably owing to a general prejudice against the study, most people considering it mysterious, difficult and useless. It is however a prejudice only, and has its origin not in the character of the study, which, when properly conducted, is both easy and attractive; but, as I think,

in the two following causes:

1st. It is owing partly to the character of the text books employ ed. These are for the most part, greatly defective in simplicity and proper adaptation to the capacity of youthful pupils. In many, the definitions, rules and leading facts are prolix, inaccurate and confused-not properly distinguished from subordinate matter, and expressed in language not easy to be understood. Some are so small and defective in parts as to be insufficient to direct to a full knowledge of the subject, and so destitute of appropriate exercises, as to render what they do contain nearly useless, unless followed by something more full and complete; and some are so large, complicated, and burdened with unnecessary details as to appal the beginner, and to render the prospect of his ever mastering the subject, nearly hopeless.

This prejudice is owing, in no small degree, perhaps chiefly,

to defective and injudicious modes of teaching.

Some teach, if teaching it may be called, by merely requiring the pupil to commit the text book to memory, without any explanations or illustrations being given, or any pains taken to ascertain whether the pupil understands what he studies or not—the teacher merely assigns the task and hears it recited.

What is studied in this way will never be well understood, as the memory will be incumbered with a mass of crude materials, the use and application of which the pupil has never learned. With such learning, it is impossible he should be either pleased or instructed.

Another error, is the neglect of repeated reviews; which are necessary to keep what has been learned fresh before the minds of the learners-they proceed onward, and it may be, are well taught as they go, but for want of reviewing, by the time they have got to the middle they have forgotten the beginning, and when they reach the end, but little more time is required to forget the whole. Comparatively few make use of exercises, in parsing or syntax, consequently no opportunity is afforded to apply the principles learned. This indeed must be the case, where text books are used, which do not supply them sufficiently, such as many of the compends now in use in our schools, which have been introduced on account of their cheapness. In parsing, many never exercise their judgment to distinguish one part of speech from another, but depend on the infer mation of others, or perhaps resort to a dictionary.

In all such indolent and mechanical processes, there is no teaching on the part of the teacher, and with much irksome toil there is but little learning on the part of the pupil. No wonder if under such a course of heartless and unprofitable labor, the study should be avoided and considered dry and uninteresting. A remedy for this evil is much needed, and it is in the power of the conscientious. active and skilful teacher, aided by a good text book, to effect it. The following suggestions respecting the method of teaching English grammar, the result of much experience and observation, will It is believed, if carried out, go far to bring about a reformation so desirable in this branch of common school education.

In commencing the study of English grammar the first thing to we attended to is proper classification. When a school term commences, care should be taken, as far as possible, to have all the pupils up at the beginning, and arrangements made for their being kept steadily at school till its close. In some studies, such as reading, spelling, writing, and even geography, early and regular attendance, though exceedingly desirable, is not so indispensable; but in all studies in which subsequent parts cannot be understood without a knowledge of the preceding, unless the members of the class begin all together, and continue regular in their attendance, the loss to the delinquents will be very great, and no teacher ought to be held responsible for the progress of pupils whose attendance is greatly irregular. A pupil entering a class in English grammar, properly taught, a fortnight or even a week after it begins, will feel the loss to the end, and is in danger of being discouraged by that very disadvantage. The same will be the effect of partial attendance. For this reason, when a term opens, it would be wise to delay forming classes in English grammar, for a short time, and to give notice through the district that a class will be formed on such a day, and that it is important for all who intend to join it, to be present at the commencement. Pupils who have but little knowledge of the subject would do well to begin the course again, and to proceed regularly. The classes should be as few in number as possible; two in most schools will be sufficient.

The class being assembled, the teacher in a few remarks should explain the nature and importance of the study, intimating that if properly conducted it will prove to be both pleasing and profitable, and that a very respectable knowledge of it, which will be of great use in after life, may be attained without a great deal of labor, if due attention is seriously and steadily bestowed. In order more fully and conveniently to illustrate the course of the class, it will be necessary for me here to select some good author as a text book. We will then suppose Bullions' grammar to be the text book of the class, a work of great merit, and one which we shall have occasion to notice more particularly in its proper place. The first lesson may then be given out, viz: the definitions, &c., pages 1 and 2, to be accurately committed to memory, while the part in small print, containing the definitions of the vowels, diphthongs, &c. may be read over in the class, commented on and illustrated by the teacher. a. d the pupils be directed to read it carefully by themselves, and be in readiness at the next recitation to answer questions respecting them.

Spelling may, for the present, be passed over, the pupil being

supposed to have studied that subject already.

The next lesson may be § 3, the definitions, &c., in large print to be committed accurately to memory, and care being taken by the teacher, when giving out the lesson, to see that words needing explanation are explained, and the meaning clearly comprehended. In order to illustrate the classification of words under different heads,

^{*} The work referred to is "The Principles of English Grammar," &c., pp. 216.

called parts of speech, some familiar remarks may be made respect ing classification in general, and the principles on which it is made: and reference may be made to natural history, showing that although individual objects are numerous, and almost infinitely varied, vet they are capable of being arranged in a few classes, according to some points in which all the individuals of the same class agree. and by which they are distinguished from those of another class, as animals, vegetables and minerals, with the numerous subdivisions of each. Or reference may be made to the pupils in a school, who, though numerous, are arranged in few classes.

In like manner the words that make up a language, though very numerous and vastly different in their orthography and meaning, yet, as many of them agree in certain properties, in which they differ again from other words, they are capable of being arranged, and are arranged under a few heads or classes called parts of speech. Some, for example, are names of objects; others are not names but are used to express qualities of names, &c. Some familiar remarks of this kind, occasionally interspersed, serve not only to interest the pupil and impress the fact so illustrated on his mind, but an intelligent and skilful teacher will by means of such illustrations call the attention of his pupils to remarks they never thought of before, though they have always been before their eyes, and in this manner train them to habits of reflecting, comparing, classifying and reasoning for themselves. The pleasure which a happy illustration gives to the pupils, if thereby the thing illustrated is clearly understood, will soon be manifested by the delight expressed in their countenances.

These definitions being now accurately committed to the memory and recited, together with those from the beginning of the book in review, the next lesson may be § 4, in giving out which, some remarks may be made respecting this class of words: that it is the smallest class consisting of two words easily remembered; that some languages have this class and some have not; the reasons of the names definite and indefinite; the different forms of the indefinite and the manner in which they are used. These things being committed to memory and well understood, the pupils will forthwith go through the exercises on the article, as directed in the text book, applying the knowledge they have already acquired.

They may then be directed to point out and name the articles in any piece of composition, and show their use in every place, telling why the definite is used in this place and the indefinite in that; a in one place and an in another. Such exercises, though simple and easy, interest the pupil, call the thoughts into action and prepare

the mind for greater efforts.

Having perfectly mastered this, and repeatedly gone over all that goes before, the class may be told that they are now to be made acquainted with a very large and important class of words called

NOUNS.

That this is the name given in grammar to all those words which are names of things, and that it is by this that they are distinguished from all other words; that every word which is the name of any thing we can see, hear, speak of, think of, &c., is a noun, and if a word is not the name of something it is not a noun; that names are of two kinds; that some names are common to things of the same sort. as man, woman, &c., and that others are appropriated to individuals of a class, as John, Helen, &c.; hence nouns are divided into two classes, common and proper. The character of a noun being thus wrought into the mind, and the distinction of common and proper nouns understood, the pupils should be directed to reduce their newly acquired ideas to practice; to mention names of things which they see, &c.; and without hesitation or difficulty will be heard such words as man, book, tree, house, &c., from every tongue. With such exercises the class will be delighted, while at the same time they are thoroughly instructed, and the idea that the study is dry and irksome will be done away. As a farther exercise they may now try their skill in finding out the nouns in some piece of composition. They will probably make some mistakes, which the teacher will kindly point out and show them how they were probably made. With a little practice this will become an easy exercise, the judgment of the pupil will be improved by applying the definitions to every word and ranking it as a noun, or rejecting it from the class according as it answers to the rule by which it is to be tried, and there will be no need to resort to a dictionary or to a neighbor to find out to what class such words as the above belong. This, with review, will be sufficient for one or two recitations. Having been made familiar with this exercise, the properties of the noun will next be attended to; but one at a time.

As person, properly speaking, is not so much a property of a noun as a mode of using it in speech—the same noun, without change of form or meaning, being of the first person according to one mode of using it—of the second, according to another, and of the third, according to another, nothing more need be said of it than is contained in § 6, till the pupil comes to the first rule of syntax.

The next property to be considered is gender. It may be remarked to the class, that nouns are divided into three classes, according to their relation to sex; those denoting males being called masculine, those denoting females, feminine, and those denoting neither males nor females, neuter or neuter gender, and this illustrated by proper examples. The teacher may then remark on the simplicity and beauty of the English language, above almost any other, and as before, the pupil will now be desirous of applying his knowledge, by telling the gender of every noun he sees, in which, of course, he should be indulged.

Next proceed to number. Explain the distinction of singular and plural; cause the rules for forming the plural to be accurately committed to memory, and then apply them by forming the plural of the list of nouns, page 13, giving the rule for each plural formed; thus, fox, plu. foxes. "Nouns ending in s, sh, ch, x or o, form the plural by adding es. Book, plu. books." "The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular," &c. By repeating the rules in this manner, every time, they will be committed to memory with

^{*} A class should never be tasked with more than what they can master with ease is better to err by giving too little than too much. Festing lents.

little labor, and be indelibly fixed there. The 3d paragraph in this list of exercises to be used thus: "book" is singular because it denotes one, plu books, and give the rule. "Trees plu because it denotes more than one; singular, tree, &c. So of the rest. §§ 9 and 10, except the first part of § 9, may be passed over until the grammar is reviewed.

This being well understood, and the reviews of preceding parts kept up daily, next proceed in the same way with case, § 11, explaining the meaning of the term, and requiring the definitions, in large print, to be carefully committed to memory. As the nominative and objective cases of nouns are of the same form, and can be distinguished only by their use in a sentence, which the pupil is not prepared to analyze, he should not be troubled with this distinction till he comes to pages 47 and 48. The possessive having always the apostrophe, is easily distinguished. The method of using the exercises on gender, number and case, page 18, is sufficiently explained in the note. This exercise being what is called parsing a noun, should be continued until the whole class are expert in it. In all this process the pupils should be kept lively, and caused to go through these exercises rapidly as well as accurately. By so doing, a great deal can be done in a little time, and the mind kept under sufficient excitement to render it susceptible of deep impression.

By proceeding in this way, slowly but surely, thoroughly disposing of one part before proceeding to another, keeping the whole fresh in the mind from the beginning, or as far back as the teacher may deem proper, drilling repeatedly on the exercises, and applying the rules where rules are applicable, every thing belonging to the etymology of nouns, will be so familiar, so well understood, and so firmly riveted in the mind, that no farther trouble need be apprehended, and the class may now proceed to the

ADJECTIVE.

This part of speech being indeclinable in English, and having only the accident of comparison, all that is necessary here is to commit the definitions, and rules for comparison, and apply them. Connected with the definition, the main thing the teacher has to do, is to teach the pupil how to distinguish this part of speech from any other. It always describes a noun or pronoun, by expressing some quality or property belonging to it, and is generally placed before the word which it qualifies. Examples will best illustrate this, and for this purpose the pupil may be directed to point out the adjectives in the exercises, or in any piece of composition that may be at hand. When the idea of an adjective is once wrought into the mind of the pupil he will not find much difficulty in distinguishing it from other parts of speech; and as a pleasing exercise the whole class may have it assigned them as a lesson, on a slate or on paper, at school or at home, as may be thought best, to write all the adjectives in a given paragraph or page, with the nouns they qualify opposite them As a technical way of assisting young children in this exercise, they may be told that any word, (the possessive case of nouns ex cepted) which makes sense with the word thing after it, is an adjective; as, A good thing; a bad thing. As a farther exercise, the

leacher may give the class a number of nouns to write in a column on the right hand side of the slate and ask them to write down, on the same line, all the adjectives they can think of, which will properly describe that noun, thus, black, white, dapple, bay, fat, lean, &c., horse. Or he may reverse this process, and give them a few adjectives to write in a column, on the left hand side of the slate, and ask them to write on the right of each, on the same line, as many nouns as they can think of, to which the adjective will apply; thus, beautiful, trees, houses, garden, flower, woman, child, &c. In this way an industrious and ingenious teacher may exercise and interest the minds of his pupils, and as soon as they are acquainted with only two or three parts of speech, he may begin with these to teach them the art of composition as well as of analysis.

PRONOUNS.

The pronouns are so few in number, that all necessary to be done, is to commit to memory the names of the different classes, and the pronouns under each. This can be accurately done with little labor. The teacher, however, as elsewhere, by oral and familiar instruction, has something to do to explain, illustrate and distinguish, in which he will be assisted by the notes and observations interspersed through the grammar, remembering always to go back, and keep all fresh, by repeated rehearsals or reviews; an exercise which will be easy, and therefore pleasant, unless too much neglected. Here, as in the preceding, the pupil must reduce his newly acquired knowledge to practice. Page 28 will furnish him with suitable exercises.

THE VERB.

The first lesson on this part of grammar should be prefaced with some familiar remarks respecting this part of speech; as, that it is the most important class of words; that we cannot speak or write a sentence without a verb in some form; that it assumes more forms and is used in a greater variety of ways than any other part of speech. Hence its name, verb, the word, emphatically the word. It is therefore the more important that it should be thoroughly studied and understood; and that though it is the most difficult part of speech to master, yet with a little diligence and attention on their part, they may become as well acquainted with it as with any other.

The pupils may be directed to commit the definitions as their first lesson, or such portion of them as can be thoroughly mastered, and to proceed in the way above mentioned with $\S\S\ 20$, 21, 22, 23. Or those in $\S\S\ 22$ and 23, as well as 24, may be omitted for the present, and the class proceed from $\S\ 21$ to 25 and 26; and while this process of committing is going on, the teacher should make use of the text to illustrate in a familiar way the meaning and distinguishing character of this part of speech. As a technical test, young pupils may be informed that a word that makes sense with I or he before it, is a verb. Those of more mature judgment will not stand in need of such aid. He should also point out the meaning of the terms traneitive and intransitive and the distinction between the verbs so called This distinction it is important that the pupil should understand and be able to make accurately and promptly.

This can easily be made plain even to very young children, by means of the directions given in section 19; but as children do not so readily comprehend what they read as what is told them in a plain and familiar manner, a little pains on the part of the teacher here will be well rewarded. The pupil may then be exercised in making this distinction, first in very short and simple sentences, such as those at page 47, second paragraph, and afterwards on longer The formula of the verb must next be accurately committed to memory, and the pupils exercised in repeating it in every way that can be thought of, till they can do it accurately, beginning at once and going through any mood or tense that may be named, and tell at once and without hesitation in what part, i. e., in what voice, mood, tense, number, and person, any part that may be nam ed is. It will greatly facilitate this, to teach the pupil to distinguish the tenses by their signs, and to be ready at once to tell the sign of each tense that may be named. Thus: what are the signs of the perfect indicative? Ans. Have, hast, hath or has. Of the pluperfect? Ans. Had, hadst, &c. The active voice of the verb "to love" being thus completely mastered, (and until this is done a step be youd should not be taken,) the class may be drilled in the exercises. pages 47 and 48, according to the directions there given. ing done, proceed in the same way with the verb "to be," and the passive voice of the verb "to love," which will now be accomplished with the greatest ease in a fourth part of the time that was required to commit the active voice. The class should then be thoroughly drilled in the exercises, pages 51, 52, and 56. At a subsequent period, it should be required to conjugate the irregular verbs. § 32, going through them at the rate of a page or a half page per diem, according to the capacity of the pupils.

The definitions of the adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection, are next to be acquired, which requires no special notice, only that, as the prepositions and conjunctions are few in number, it may be as well to commit them to memory, as it is not easy for young persons to distinguish them from other words by their defini-

tions or use.

This brings the pupil through etymology, and with ordinary diligence it may all be thoroughly done in five or six weeks, if the teacher takes pains to keep the attention of his pupils awake, and to prevent their falling into a state of mental indolence—a state of mind in which little benefit is derived from the best instruction

PARSING.

The class is now prepared for parsing etymologically in simple sentences promiscuously, and should be drilled for some time in this exercise, for the purpose of making them expert in applying the knowledge previously gained, in distinguishing the different parts of speech as they occur promiscuously in a sentence, and enabling them to tell readily their accidents or properties, using always the fewest words possible, and stating them always in the same way. Section 40 furnishes exercises for this purpose, and general directions are there given, which will be found very useful to the student. In this exercise, the class may be properly exercised for two or three weeks, and in the mean time the previous part of the grammar should be

gone over two or three times in review,—first in short portions and then in longer,—till the whole becomes so familiar that farther attention is unnecessary. By this time the class will be prepared to enter with ease, spirit and intelligence, on the next part, namely,

SYNTAX.

Here they may be told that hitherto they have been learning chiefly the character, forms, and changes of words, and analyzing sentences containing them. That they are now to be taught how to put words together in a proper manner, according to approved rules and methods. The part of grammar which teaches to do this is called syntax; a word that signifies combining or arranging together, viz: words in a sentence. After acquiring a correct knowledge of the definitions and general principles, $\S\S$ 43, 44, and 45, the next lesson may be Rule I., \S 46. No particular effort is required in committing either this or the following rules to memory. The simple repetition of them from the book, as each sentence in the exercises under the rule is corrected, will generally be sufficient. Or they may have two or three rules assigned them to commit daily, so as in this exercise to keep in advance of the other.

It will be necessary in entering on the exercises, to point out to the pupil the precise object of each rule, as he advances; to intimate that the exercises contain violations of that rule only; that his business is to find out, in each sentence, what is contrary to the rule and to alter it accordingly. Under the first rule, for example, it may be necessary to remind the pupil that every sentence contains at least one distinct affirmation; that the verb is the word which makes the affirmation; and that the person or thing of which the verb affirms is its subject or nominative; and that according to the rule these must always agree in number and person; i. e., the verb must be in the same number and person with the nominative. Under Rule I., then, the business in each sentence is to find the verb and the nominative, in order to compare them and see if they agree, and if they do not, to alter the verb so as to make it agree with its nom inative. In order to discover the verb and its nominative, the pupil may be directed to read the sentence and see what it means: he may then be asked, (having read the first sentence, e. g., "I loves reading,") what is spoken of? Answer. I. What is said of I, or what is I said to do? Answer. I loves. Then loves is the verb and I its nominative: compare them and see if they are in the same number and person. Nominative I is the first person, and loves is the third person; loves then should be love, to agree with I in the first person. Or the teacher may proceed Socratically as follows:

Teacher. Read the first sentence. Pupil. "I loves reading."
T. Who or what is spoken of here? P. I. T. What is I said to do? P. To love. T. Then which word expresses the person spoken of? P. I is the person spoken of, and is therefore the nominative. T. To what verb is I the nominative? P. To the verb loves.
T. In what should they agree according to the rule? P. In number and person. T. Do they so agree? P. No. I is the first person singular, and loves is the third. T. What must be done to make them agree? P. Change loves to love. T. Read the sen-

tence so corrected, and give the rule? P. I love reading. "A verb

agrees," &c.

Having gone through all the exercises under this rule, in this way or in any other way the teacher may find best calculated to communicate the idea, they may begin again and go ever the whole without being questioned; thus, loves should be love in the first person and singular number, because I, its nominative, is in the first person and singular number, "A verb must agree," &c. After this the whole may be read over by the pupils, each reading a sentence, and only marking the corrected word with greater emphasis; thus, "I love reading;" "a soft answer turns away wrath." &c., giving the rule as before; in this way a class will easily proceed at the rate of one rule a day, reviewing the preceding as before. Every part being thoroughly understood as they proceed, they will take pleasure in it, their perception and power of reasoning will every day expand and become more vigorous. and at the end of the course their improvement will be astonishin; to themselves.

After going through the ru'ss of syntax, a farther advance and exercise of the powers of the pupils will be found in Syntactical parsing, sufficiently explained in § 84, and in the promiscuous exercises in § 85, all of which, being corrected, may be used for exercises in syntactical parsing, which should be followed up by parsing the best authors, both in prose and poetry, while they should at the same time be carried through the subsequent parts of the grammar.

As soon as a class gets through the rules of syntax, they should be instructed in short and simple exercises in composition. By so doing they will furnish exercises for themselves, and should be led to correct their own mistakes, in the same way in which they cor rected the exercises under the rules.

TEXT BOOKS.

It is not my intention to attempt an elaborate review of the principal works on this subject, as the discussion would extend these remarks, (which are already too prolix,) to an inconvenient length. Authors can generally set forth the merits of their own productions, and they seldom fail to exhibit the faults and defects of rival works, with peculiar acumen, and with eloquence hardly to be expected from persons less interested. It is therefore not probable that any literary production of even moderate pretensions, will escape without a little wholesome criticism.

Early in the year 1842, wishing to select some work on the subject of English grammar which I could recommend as a text book to the schools under my superintendency; I collected all the works on the subject which seemed to have any considerable claims to consideration, in order to make a comparison of their respective merits. A cursory examination was sufficient to induce me to throw aside several as materially defective and unsuitable, but I retained upon my table for a more thorough inspection those of Kirkham, Hazen, Pierce, Brown and Bullions. After a patient and protracted examination, the first three in the order in which they are mentioned above for reasons which it would be too tedious to mention, were laid aside Being satisfied of the eminent merits of the works of

Bullions and Brown, and certain that I should make choice of one of them for the purpose I had in view, I reserved them for a careful comparison, not with a view to ascertain their intrinsic value, of which I was already satisfied, it having been the object of my first and second perusal, but that I might determine which would be the most suitable for general use in our common schools. Having made the comparison with as much candor and ability as I could bring to the task, I came to the following conclusion: that as treatises on grammar the works were of nearly equal merits, that of Brown being somewhat more copious in its exercises and full and argumentative in its notes and observations on the language, while Bullions' is far superior to the former in conciseness and simplicity of style and in clearness of arrangement. The rules are well expressed and the principles clearly developed, while the notes and philosophical observations are fully sufficient, without that redundancy which characterizes the corresponding parts of the grammar of Mr. Brown, and increases its volume to such a degree as to render it truly appalling to beginners.

The grammar of Dr. Bullions has also the advantage of being suitable for young students and those commencing the study, thus saving the expense of a "first book" or "first lines," while at the same time it is a complete grammar of the language, and available for every purpose for which Mr. Brown's can possibly be used. It is also one of a "series;" and a pupil having studied it, can take up the grammars of the Latin and Greek, by the same excellent author, in which the rules and arrangements, so far as the principles and analogies of the language will admit, are the same, and proceed with a facility under other circumstances not attainable. This is a consideration of no small importance to those who may wish to advance from the common school to the academy and the college. But I cannot here set forth all that influenced my mind an coming to the conclusion that the grammar of Dr. Bullions was superior to any other I had examined as a text book for use in our common schools. Suffice it to say, that I recommended it for use in the schools in this county.

Since the subject of these observations was assigned me by the Department, I have made another investigation, and come to the

same conclusion.

Respectfully submitted.
R. K. FINCH,
Sup. of Com. Schools for the Co. of Steuben.

Bath, Nov. 5, 1843.

N. Y., (late Robinson, Pratt & Co.,) "Practical Lessons on English Grammar and Composition; for Young Beginners:" pp. 132

By Rev P Bullions, D. D.

89090360355



B89090360355A

Coogle.