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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
LOUPTINES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

CALCULATED

FOR THE USE

OF

BOTH SEXES AT SCHOOL:

IN WHICH THE

PRACTICAL RULES OF THE LANGUAGE

ARE

CLEARLY AND DISTINCTLY LAID DOWN,

AND THE

SPECULATIVE DIFFICULTIES

AS MUCH AS POSSIBLE AVOIDED.

A NEW EDITION.

BY JOHN WALKER,

AUTHOR OF THE CRITICAL PRONOUNCING DICTIONARY,
ELEMENTS OF ELOCUTION, &c. &c.

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PREFACE



THE multitude of Grammars that have appeared since Dr. Lowth's Introduction, sufficiently show that latter grammarians have either thought that work defective, or that they could instruct their pupils better by a method of their own : and perhaps, it must be confessed that any method, which is the produce of our own judgement, may with greater readiness be conveyed to others than the method of another person, though really preferable. Under the favour of this allowable prejudice, I have presumed to add my mite of grammatical improvement, and shall in a few words give my reasons for so hazardous an undertaking.

Notwithstanding the many excellent Grammars that have been lately produced, I conceived there was a middle class of pupils, beyond the age of childhood, and before that of maturity, to which these Grammars were not perfectly accommodated. The abridgements of these Grammars appeared to me to be too scanty, and the others too redundant.

A middle Grammar therefore seemed wanted for the middle class of pupils I have supposed ; and such a Grammar I have endeavoured to supply in a method somewhat different from my predecessors.

In the first place, I imagined that the catechetical method was the fittest to convey instruction in every stage of science but the last. This method points out the rule more distinctly to the notice of the pupil, and gives the teacher a better opportunity of examining his progress ; to say nothing of the exercise it affords for improvement in reading, as the dialogue form is happily calculated to promote a natural and conversation tone of pronunciation.

In the next place, I was of opinion, that almost all our Grammars seemed to lean, without necessity, to an exclusion of Latin terms, and Latin forms of construction. This propensity has been observed by a judicious grammarian, who says—
“ Most of the writers since Dr. Lowth, from a sup-
“ position, perhaps, that the English language hath
“ little concern with the Latin, seem to have de-
“ parted as much as possible, not only from the
“ rudiments, but the terms made use of in Gram-
“ mars of that tongue ; and have chosen to put
“ their materials into any form, rather than suffer

“ them to fall in with the Latin plan. In the distri-
 “ bution of the moods and tenses particularly, there
 “ is a remarkable variety; some arrange them in
 “ one manner, some in another; some *enlarge*,
 “ while others *diminish* their number. In one
 “ Grammar a tense is transposed in the same mood;
 “ in another, it is transplanted into a different one;
 “ and in all, many of the technical terms are
 “ changed for others, equally, if not more ab-
 “ stracted and perplexing: and thus a new kind
 “ of grammatical language has been invented.”

Shaw's Grammar; Preface.

From this state of the case, which appears to be
 a very just one, we may perceive how difficult it is
 to avoid extremes. Because some of the old gram-
 marians were too fond of the Latin terms, and
 Latin forms of construction, the moderns have at-
 tempted to exclude them altogether; and thus, by
 avoiding one fault, have fallen into another.

But it will be naturally demanded, of what use to
 an English scholar is retaining the Latin terms and
 forms of construction? It may be answered, that
 if these terms and forms of construction are as in-
 telligible as any we can substitute in their stead,
 why should we depart from the ancient and re-
 ceived grammatical language of Europe without
 deriving any advantage from the change? If, in-

deed, the Latin terms and forms of construction were much more difficult than such as must be substituted to supply their place, the objection would be a very strong one: but this is not really the case. In the declension of nouns we must have two cases, and in that of pronouns, three. Where would be the difficulty or embarrassment in extending the cases to six, the number of them in Latin? The answer will be, because we have no such cases in our language; and therefore why should we create them? It may be replied, that a case or termination of a noun adds no more to its signification than a preposition prefixed to it; the difficulty therefore of adopting these additional cases is ideal: three more cases would be as easily learned as the two or three we are obliged to adopt; and by doing so, we speak the general grammatical language of all the scholars in Europe: for it must be observed, that general utility, and not philosophical or abstract propriety, is the great object of grammar, as well as of language.

What has been observed of the cases of nouns is applicable to the declensions. We are obliged to form nouns into classes according to their several modes of forming their plurals; and as we have five varieties of this formation, where would be the impropriety of calling each of these modes a declension? I greatly mistake, if putting each of these

varieties in a table declined, with all their cases, will not make a better and more lasting impression, of the plurals and genitives of nouns, which are so often confounded, than the short transient way in which they are generally mentioned.

The moods of verbs in Latin, except the optative, have been generally retained by some of the most respectable English grammarians; notwithstanding the strong reasons which may be brought to prove, that we have no more than one mood in English. To abolish these moods would be certainly to coin our grammar anew; but it is highly probable, that what it might gain by this in metaphysical value, it would lose in general currency.

It will scarcely be questioned, that for boys who are to have a Latin education, an English Grammar in the Latin form would be by far the most eligible. But why, it will be said, should ladies be plagued with Latin terms and forms of construction? Why? it may again be answered, Because they are as easily understood as any other. What difficulty do we avoid by calling the noun or substantive, a name; the adjective, an adnoun or a quality; the verb, an affirmation; and the indeclinable parts of speech, particles? Are the leading state and the following state of the noun, which are very inadequate and erroneous terms, more easily conceived

than the nominative and the accusative cases ? or is the case of the substantive or personal pronoun, when a question is asked, better apprehended by saying the leading state of the substantive or pronoun follows the affirmation, instead of coming before it ? One would think such egregious trifling as this could never have entered into the heads of men of sense. If these improvements then are merely visionary, I know not why ladies are to be instructed by a grammar different from that of men, any more than that they should learn composition by a different system of rhetoric.

It is not pretended, however, that this adherence to the learned languages should induce us to conform to them in all their peculiarities of construction, when that of our own language is much more simple and easy. We may with great convenience and propriety adopt their cases, declensions, and moods ; we may divide our syntax into concord and government, without entering into that intricacy and caprice of construction with which these languages abound : for however a foreigner, who understood Latin, might be benefited by knowing what cases certain verbs, adjectives, and other parts of speech require, such rules would tend to embarrass a native rather than instruct him, especially if he had not already made a considerable progress in grammar.

There are certain rules for construction which hold good in all languages:—The verb agrees with its nominative case in number and person: when two verbs come together, the latter is in the infinitive mood: the verb *To Be* has the same case after it that goes before it: the relative agrees with the antecedent in gender, number, and person;—and a few others. These rules, which are in all languages, and in the nature of things, are very different from that government of words peculiar to the Greek and Latin languages; in the former of which a neuter, and sometimes a masculine or feminine substantive in the plural number, requires a verb singular; and in the latter, not only adjectives, but adverbs and interjections govern the cases of nouns. The case absolute in the Latin is the ablative; in the Greek, the genitive; and in English, the nominative. It would therefore be the height of absurdity to follow the syntax of these languages, any farther than they follow the syntax of all other languages; and in these, if we adopt the same terms, it is because they are more universally known than any other.

I have been thus long in obviating an objection, which I know to be very popular, and likely to make a great impression upon the generality of readers; but the most formidable objection I have to dread is the competition I place myself in with

so many excellent grammarians. I am much indebted to Mr. Knowles of Liverpool, and to Mr. Shaw of Rochdale. Those who wish to see a most able, luminous, and philosophical, as well as practical Grammar, must peruse Dr. Crombie's Etymology and Syntax : and I need not acquaint the Public with the merit and success of Lindley Murray's Grammar ; which seems to have superseded every other. Indeed, when we consider the plain simple mode of instruction he has adopted, the extent of observation he has displayed, and the copious variety of illustration he has added, we shall not wonder that his Grammar has been so universally applauded. If mine has any title to public attention, it may be because it is short * ; that it adopts a somewhat different vehicle of instruction from other Grammars ; that its parts are connected so as to explain each other by numeral references ; that the practical and speculative parts

* I am of opinion that it is of the utmost importance not to engage youth too far in the niceties and intricacies of grammar. It is always a dry and disgusting subject to young minds, and, when pursued to such points as are highly abstracted, and metaphysical, tends rather to puzzle than instruct them. There is great judgement in knowing how far we can venture to teach ; and too much care cannot be taken to prevent grammar, which is the torment of youth, from becoming more tormenting than is absolutely necessary.

are more distinctly marked by throwing the latter into notes, and that these notes contain some original observations, or at least such as I have never met with. How I have succeeded in my pretensions to novelty, and whether they are of sufficient importance to excuse my obtruding a new Grammar on the public, must be left to that public to determine.

Entered at Stationers' Hall.

OUTLINES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

WHAT is Grammar?

Grammar is the art of rightly expressing our thoughts by words.

Into how many parts is Grammar usually divided?

Into four; namely, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

What is Orthography?

Orthography treats of the Spelling and Pronunciation of words.

What is Etymology?

Etymology treats of the several sorts of words, and of the variations to which they are subject by Declension, Comparison, and Conjugation.

What is Syntax?

Syntax treats of uniting words into a connected series, so as to express the various conceptions of the mind.

What is Prosody?

Prosody treats of the composition of Verse according to the laws of harmony and proportion.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

WHAT is Orthography ?

Orthography is the method of spelling words by particularising their letters according to the established rules of writing and pronouncing them.

How many letters are there in the English language ?

Twenty-six; namely,* A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z. Of these letters six are generally called vowels, namely, *a, e, i, o, u, y*, and the rest consonants; and where two or more vowels are pronounced with a single impulse of the voice they are called diphthongs; as *round, boil, &c.*

What are the rules combining letters into syllables and syllables into words ?

The general rules are so easy and so commonly known, that some of our Grammarians have omitted them, as the proper province of the Spelling Book; and the critical rules are so numerous and difficult as to require a separate volume. Those, therefore, who wish for as much satisfaction as can be expected upon this subject must be referred to The Principles of English Pronunciation, prefixed to the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language.

* For the true alphabetical sound of the first and last letters *a* and *z*, see the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary where they occur; and for the sound of *i, u, and y*, see Principles of English Pronunciation, prefixed to the Dictionary, No. 8, 105, 171.

ETYMOLOGY.

How many parts of speech are there?

1. Ten: namely, Article, Noun or Substantive, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, Interjection.

What is an Article?

2. An Article is a word prefixed to substantives to limit or determine their signification.

How many Articles are there?

3. Two: namely, *A* or *An*, and *The*.

What does *A* or *An* signify?

4. It signifies a thing in general, as *I want a book*; that is, no book in particular, but any book; and it is therefore called the *Indefinite* article.

What does *The* signify?

5. It signifies a thing or things in particular; as, *Give me the book*; or, *Give me the pens*; that is, the particular book or pens understood by the person speaking and the person spoken to; and it is therefore called the *Definite* article.

When is *A* used?

6. Before words beginning with a consonant, as, *a book*; or words beginning with long *u*, as, *a useful book*.

When is *An* used instead of *A*?

7. Before words beginning with any vowel but long *u*, as, *an art*, *an egg*, *an urn*; or words beginning with *h* mute, as, *an honour*; or when the *h* is not mute if the accent be on the second syllable, as *an historical account*, *an heroic action**, &c.

* An ignorance of the real composition of *u*, and the want of knowing that it partook of the nature of a conso-

- Is there always a substantive after an article?
8. Yes : either expressed or understood.

NOUN, OR SUBSTANTIVE.

What is a Noun, or Substantive?

9. A noun, or substantive, is the name of any thing. It makes sense by itself, and I can place the article *A* or *The* before it, as *a man*, *the book*.

How many kinds of nouns are there?

10. Two : proper and common.

What is a noun proper?

11. A proper name; or a name proper to one person or thing only; as, *Cæsar*, *Alexander*, the *Thames*, &c.

What is a noun common?

12. A common name; or a name common to many things; as, *a book*, *a desk*, *a table*, &c.

How many numbers have nouns?

13. Two : the singular and the plural.

What does the singular number mean?

14. One : as, *a pen*, *the apple*.

What does the plural number mean?

15. More than one; as, *pens*, *apples*.

How is the plural number formed?

16. By adding *s* to the singular; as, *book*, *books*; *house*, *houses*; &c.

Is it always so formed?

nant, has occasioned a great diversity and uncertainty in prefixing the indefinite article *An* before it. This difficulty will vanish when we consider long *u* as equivalent in sound to the pronoun *you*, and that it has consequently the nature of a consonant; and that short *u*, in *urn*, *umbrella*, &c. is a pure vowel. A difficulty of a like nature respecting this article before *h* will be removed by attending to the accent of the word to which it is prefixed. Thus we say, *a history* of England, *an historical account*; *a hero* of old, *an heroic action*, &c. See the article *An* in the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary.

17. No; when the singular ends in *s*, *sh*, *ch**, or *x*, the plural is formed by adding *es*; as, *miss*, *misses*; *brush*, *brushes*; *peach*, *peaches*; *box*, *boxes*; &c.

How do nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant form their plurals?

18. By changing the *y* into *ies*; as, *lady*, *ladies*; *fairy*, *fairies*, &c. except they be proper names; as, the *Henrys*, the *Gregorys*, &c.

Are there not some particular nouns that deviate from this rule?

19. Yes; the following nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, form their plural by changing the *f* or *fe* into *ves*, as, *sheaf*, *leaf*, *loaf*, *thief*, *calf*, *half*, *elf*, *shelf*, *self*, *wolf*, *life*, *wife*, *knife*. *Beeves*, the plural of *beef*, signifying black cattle or oxen, is always used in the plural; and *staff*, in certain cases, makes *staves*†.

What are the irregular nouns of our language?

20. The most irregular nouns are those that do not form their plural by *s*. These, however, are but few, as, *man*, *men*; *woman*, *women*; and all words compounded of *man*: *ox*, *oxen*; *child*, *children*; *brother*, *brothers*, or *brethren*; *foot*, *feet*;

* If the singular end in *ch*, sounded like *k*, the plural is formed by adding *s*; as *Monarch*, *Monarchs*; *Distich*, *Distichs*.

† When this word was used to signify a stanza, as, to sing a *staff*, it was irregularly pluralised into *staves*; as, may be seen at large in Johnson's Dictionary: but my observation fails me, if latterly the plural of this word has not regularised the singular into *stave*. On the contrary, this word signifying a stick or support, which was formerly irregular by making the plural *staves*, is now sunk into the regular plural *staffs*, as, "Then followed the constables with their *staffs*;" while the long piece of wood belonging to a vessel called a pipe, still continues its irregular plural, as, "The ship was laden with *pipe staves*."

tooth, teeth; goose, geese; louse, lice; mouse, mice; penny, pence; and die, a cube of ivory, makes dice.

Do all nouns differ in the singular and plural number?

21. No; some nouns are the same in both; as, *sheep, deer; means*, when it signifies cause, as, *by this means*, or *by these means*; but in geometry, signifying the middle between two extremes, it is regular: *series* and *species* are of both numbers; when they are of the singular, *a* is prefixed to them.

Have all nouns both a singular and a plural number?

22. No; some have no singular; as, *alms, ashes, annals, bellows, bowels, cresses, entrails, lungs, scissars, shears, snuffers, thanks, tongs, wages, orisons, &c.* Others, on the contrary, have no plural; as the names of *virtues* and *vices*; as, *generosity, avarice*; the names of metals, as, *gold, silver, copper*; the names of herbs, as, *mint, sage*; the names of several sorts of corn or pulse, as, *wheat, barley, rye. Peas*, considered individually, are regular; as *three or four peas*; but considered collectively, as, *a dish of peas*, are irregular: to which we may add the names of liquids, as, *wine, ale, beer, oil*; but some of these, as well as the former, when they signify several sorts, are used in the plural, as, *wines, oils**, &c.

What are the irregular nouns from other languages?

23. Some nouns from the learned languages end-

* It is an ingenious observation of Dr. Crombie's, that all things measured or weighed have no plural; for in them not number but quantity is regarded, as, *wheat, wine, oil*. When we speak, however, of different kinds, we use the plural, as, *the coarser wools, the finer oils*.—Grammar, p. 23.

ing in *is* form their plural by changing the *i* into *e*; as, *ellipsis, ellipses; emphasis, emphases; parenthesis, parentheses**, &c.

Some nouns retain the plural of their original languages, and may therefore be called foreign nouns.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Cherub,	Cherubim.	Crisis,	Crises.
Seraph,	Seraphim.	Diæresis,	Diæreses.
Phænomenon,	Phænomena.	Hypothesis,	Hypotheses.
Automaton,	Automata.	Metamorphosis,	Metamorphoses,
Dogma,	Dogmata.	Axis,	Axes.
Miasma,	Miasmata.	Calx,	Calces.
Criterion,	Criteria.	Effluvium,	Effluvia.
Minutia,	Minutiæ.	Genius,	{ Genii (attend- ant spirits).
Animalculum,	Animalcula.		
Medium,	Media.		{ Geniuses (great wits).
Erratum,	Errata.	Magus,	Magi.
Datum,	Data.	Radius,	Radii.
Arcanum,	Arcana.	Apex,	Apices.
Stamen,	Stamina.	Appendix,	Appendices.
Focus,	Foci.	Index,	{ Indices (in Al- gebra).
Genus,	Genera.		
Stratum,	Strata.		{ Indexes (of books).
Lamina,	Laminæ.	Vertex,	Vertices.
Desideratum,	Desiderata.	Vortex,	Vortices.
Stimulus,	Stimuli.	Beau,	Beaux.
Antithesis,	Antitheses.		
Basis,	Bases.		

Some of these words are used only in the plural, as *Banditti, Delitanti, Credenda, Literati*, &c.

GENDER.

What is the Gender of nouns?

24. The distinction of sex.

How many Genders are there?

25. Three; the masculine, which signifies males,

* I have met with *metropoles* for the plural of *metropolis*; as, "I know, indeed, there were no fixed ecclesiastical *metropoles* in Africa, but they had civil *metropoles* called by that name."—*Clergyman's Vade Mecum*, vol. ii. p. 189.

as, a *man*, a *boy*; the feminine, which signifies females, as, a *woman*, a *girl*; the neuter, which signifies any thing of no sex, as, a *book*, a *pen*: or something where the sex is of no importance, as, "*It is a pretty child.*"

Are not some nouns of no sex sometimes considered as masculine or feminine?

26. Yes; but metaphorically; as, the *sun*, *he* shines; the *moon*, *she* rises; the *ship*, *she* sails, &c.

How are the genders of nouns distinguished?

27. The masculine and feminine are sometimes distinguished by different words; as, *man*, *woman*; *boy*, *girl*; *buck*, *doe*, &c. The sex of nouns is sometimes marked by the addition of a pronoun before their names; as, a *he* or *she*-goat; a *cow*-calf or *bull*-calf; a *buck* or *doe*-rabbit; a *cock* or *hen*-pigeon: but most frequently the epithet *male* or *female* serves to distinguish the genders of those animals that are less familiar to us, as, the *male elephant*.

The difference of sex is sometimes expressed by the termination of the substantive, and this either by the mere addition of *ess* to the masculine, as,

Baron,	Baroness.	Poet,	Poetess.
Heir,	Heiress,	Viscount,	Viscountess.
Jew,	Jewess.	Prince,	Princess.
Lion,	Lioness.	Prior,	Prioress.
Shepherd,	Shepherdess.	Prophet,	Prophetess.
Patron,	Patroness.	Count,	Countess.
Peer,	Peeress.	Deacon,	Deaconess.

Or sometimes by a small alteration of the masculine, the better to make it coalesce with the feminine termination *ess*, as,

Abbot,	Abbess.	Adulterer,	Adultress.
Actor,	Actress.	Hunter,	Huntress.
Ambassador,	Ambadressess.	Chanter,	Chantress.
Governor,	Governess.	Elector,	Electress.
Protector,	Protectress.	Emperor,	Empress.
Arbiter,	Arbitress.	Painter,	Paintress.

D rector,	Directress.	Traitor,	Traitress.
Marquis,	Marchioness.	Tutor*,	Tutress.
Duke,	Duchess.	Master,	Mistress.
Tiger,	Tigress.	Votary,	Votaress.

Hero, for its feminine, adopts the French *Heroine*.

In some few instances, and those chiefly in law proceedings, the Latin termination in *ix* is preserved, as

Administrator,	Administratrix.	Testator,	Testatrix.
Executor,	Executrix.	Director,	Directrix.

CASE.

What are the Cases of nouns?

28. The cases of nouns are, either an alteration at the end of a noun, or prefixing a preposition at the beginning of it, in order to show its relation to some other word.

How many cases have nouns?

29. Six; namely, the Nominative, the Genitive, the Dative, the Accusative or Objective, the Vocative, and the Ablative.

What does the Nominative case signify?

30. The Nominative case is that in which the noun is simply mentioned; as, *a boy, a girl*.

What does the Genitive case mean?

31. The Genitive case is that which implies the belonging of one thing to another: it is formed either by the preposition *of* before it, or by *s* with

* This is the true formation of the feminine of *tutor*, as may appear from every word of the same form where the masculine ends in *or* or *er*, articulated by a consonant: though I own that *tutores* is the most common orthography.

Whipping is Virtue's governess;

Tutress of arts and sciences:

It mends the gross mistakes of nature,

And puts new life into dull matter.

Hud. Part 2. Canto 1.

an apostrophe after it: as, "The picture of my mother; My *father's* house*."

What does the Dative case signify?

32. The Dative signifies the tendency to a thing, and is formed by taking *to* before it; as, "He is gone *to* London."

What does the Accusative or Objective case signify?

33. The Accusative or Objective case in nouns is only known by its coming after the verb active, and receiving its impression, as, "I strike the *table*;" where the word *table* is in the accusative case, though its form is the same as the nominative: but its form in personal pronouns is different, as, "I strike *him*."

What is the Vocative case?

34. The Vocative case is that which calls to or invokes the object; and generally takes *O* before it; as, "O king, live for ever."

What is the Ablative case?

35. The Ablative in Latin principally signifies taking away something from the object; but in English it may be formed by placing any of the prepositions, but *of* or *to*, before it; as, "I took

* It may be observed, that the double genitive is an advantage peculiar to our language. The Latins can only say for the genitive *corona regis*, and the French *la couronne du roi*: while the English can say, either *the king's crown*, or *the crown of the king*. Nor is this a mere idle variety; for it not unfrequently indicates a very different relation of one thing to another. Thus, *the king's picture* may mean either his property or his likeness; but, *the picture of the king* can mean only the likeness of the king. The same distinction may be observed in many other instances.

“the book *from* the shelf;” “I sent the letter *by* him*.”

Are all these cases necessary in the English language?

By no means: they are only recommended as useful; and as contributing to unite the grammatical language of English with that of the Greek and Latin. Those who find no occasion for such a union may easily pass over the four last cases, and the four last declensions; as whatever relates to number and case in other grammars has already been laid down.—For the utility of these cases and declensions, see the Preface.

DECLENSIONS OF NOUNS.

What are the Declensions of nouns?

36. The declensions of nouns are such variations as they receive from their cases or number.

How many declensions are there?

37. There are five declensions, according to the five different formations of the plural number.

What is the first declension?

38. The first declension is that where the plural is formed by adding *s* only to the singular.

Give an example of the first declension.

* This may seem to give too great a latitude of signification to the ablative case, and to render it very indefinite; but as the creation of a new case for every preposition would be as useless as endless, and as keeping to the Latin number has many grammatical advantages, it is presumed no great inconvenience can arise from classing so many prepositions in the ablative case; especially when we recollect the numerous relations this case stands for in Latin, as Lily's Grammar tells us, that *in, with, through, for, from, by, and than,* are all signs of the ablative case.

THE FIRST DECLENSION.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. A book.	Nom. Books.
Gen. A book's, with an apostrophe before the <i>s</i> , or Of a Book*.	Gen. Books', with an apostrophe after the <i>s</i> , or Of Books†.
Dat. To a book.	Dat. To books.
Accus. or Object. A book.	Accus. or Object. Books,
Vocat. O book.	Vocat. O books.
Ablat. With, from, or by a Book.	Ablat. With, from, or by books.

What is the second declension?

39. The second declension is that where the singular ends in the silent *e* after the hissing consonants, soft *c* and *g*; *s* and *z*; which forms its

* This double explanation of the genitive is adopted to avoid the ambiguity which arises to the ear without it; as, *the books leaves* may mean the leaves of one, or of many books.

† Most of our grammarians seem to look upon our genitive plural formed by the apostrophe to be quite superfluous. It is certain that the Saxon language has no such termination to mark this case; but if such a termination of the genitive plural tends to determine the sense with greater precision, there is no reason why it should not be adopted. As a proof of the utility of the genitive plural marked by the apostrophe, we need only recur to a few common phrases.

All the ships masts were blown away;
All the trees leaves were blown off.

In these and similar phrases it is only the apostrophe placed before or after the *s* that determines the ships and trees to be either singular or plural: in the same manner when we say—

The kings crowns were placed upon the table,

without the apostrophe, we do not know whether the crowns belonged to one king, or to several. It is true the context will easily determine this; but it is the intention of grammar to determine the sense by the words without the necessity of recurring to what comes before, or to what follows.

plural by adding *s* only; as, *page, pages; place, places, &c.*

Give an example of the second declension.

SECOND DECLENSION.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Nom. A page.	Nom. Pages.
Gen. A page's, with an apostrophe before the <i>s</i> , or Of a page.	Gen. Page's, with an apostrophe after the <i>s</i> , or Of pages.
Dat. To a page.	Dat. To pages.
Accus. or Object. A page.	Accus. or Object. Pages.
Vocat. O page.	Vocat. O pages.
Ablat. With, from, or by a page.	Ablat. With, from, or by pages.

What is the third declension?

40. The third declension is that where the singular ends in the hissing consonants *ch, sh, s, x*, and *z*; which forms its plural by adding *es*; as, *coach, coaches; fish, fishes; circus, circuses; box, boxes; buzz, buzzes.*

Give an example of the third declension.

THIRD DECLENSION.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Nom. A coach.	Nom. Coaches.
Gen. A coach's, with an apostrophe before the <i>s</i> , or Of a coach.	Gen. Coaches', with an apostrophe after the <i>s</i> , or Of coaches.
Dat. To a coach.	Dat. To coaches.
Accus. or Object. A coach.	Accus. or Object. Coaches.
Vocat. O coach.	Vocat. O coaches.
Ablat. With, from, or by a coach.	Ablat. With, from, or by coaches.

What is the fourth declension?

41. The fourth declension is that where the singular ends in *y*, preceded by a consonant, which forms its plural by changing the *y* into *ies*; as, *fly, flies; lily, lilies; &c.*

Give an example of the fourth declension.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Nom. A fly.

Nom. Flies.

Gen. A fly's, with an apostrophe before the *s*, or Of a fly.Gen. Flies, with an apostrophe after the *s*, or Of flies.

Dat. To a fly.

Dat. To flies.

Accus. or Object. A fly.

Accus. or Object. Flies.

Vocat. O fly.

Vocat. O flies.

Ablat. With, from, or by a fly.

Ablat. With, from, or by flies.

What is the fifth declension of nouns?

42. The fifth declension is that where the singular ends in *f* or *fe*, and the plural in *ves*; as, *loaf*, *loaves*; *knife*, *knives*; &c.

Give an example of the fifth declension.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Nom. A loaf.

Nom. Loaves.

Gen. A loaf's, with an apostrophe before the *s*, or Of a loaf.Gen. Loaves', with an apostrophe after the *s*, or Of loaves.

Dat. To a loaf.

Dat. To loaves.

Accus. or Obj. A loaf.

Accus. or Obj. Loaves.

Vocat. O loaf.

Vocat. O loaves.

Ablat. With, from, or by a loaf.

Ablat. With, from, or by loaves*.

* If there were no other reason for declining nouns in the manner here adopted, the difficulty which youth, and often grown persons, find in marking the genitive case in writing would be sufficient; as this method tends to fix the genitive in the mind, by frequently exhibiting it to the eye, and prevents that confusion of the genitive and plural number which we so often meet with, and this in writings not of the lowest order. How disgraceful is it to see in polite correspondence, "I am desirous to send the Miss Parsons's compliments!" where, to pass over the impropriety of Miss for Misses, we find a genitive singular for a plural; for as the singular ends in *s*, it ought to be pluralised by *es*: and the genitive should be formed by an apostrophe after the *s*; as the Miss Parsons's compliments. This gross impropriety would, in all probability, never have taken such

How are the irregular nouns declined?

43. As regular nouns, or those that form their plural by *s*, form their genitive singular by an apostrophe before the *s*, and their genitive plural by an apostrophe after the *s*; so the irregular nouns form their genitive by an apostrophe before the *s* both in the singular and the plural; as, a *man's* hat, *men's* hats; a *woman's* cap, *women's* caps; a *child's* plaything, the *children's* playthings; an *ox's* horn, *oxen's* horns; a *tooth's* whiteness, the *teeth's* whiteness; &c.

Give an example of the declension of irregular nouns.

DECLENSION OF IRREGULAR NOUNS.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. A man.	Nom. Men.
Gen. A man's, with an apostrophe before the <i>s</i> , or Of a man.	Gen. Men's, with an apostrophe before the <i>s</i> , or Of men.
Dat. To a man.	Dat. To men.
Accus. or Object. A man.	Accus. or Obj. Men.
Vocat. O man.	Vocat. O men.
Ablat. With, from, or by a man.	Ablat. With, from, or by men.

Is not this *s* as the sign of the genitive sometimes omitted?

44. Yes; in proper names singular ending in *s* or *x*; as Ajax' strength; Plutus' mine, &c. Or in some common nouns that have no plural; as, for Peace' sake, &c. Omitting the *s* in Righteousness' sake, Goodness' sake, &c. obtains only in abstract substantives of this termination; for we should unquestionably write and pronounce Witness's sake for the singular, and Witnesses' sake for the plural.

deep root; if the Cases and Declensions of substantives had been exhibited to the eye in the manner here recommended.

- We sometimes, indeed, see and hear Demosthenes' orations; Socrates' fetters; but because the repetition of the hiss is very disagreeable to the ear, we ought in these cases to use the other genitive, and say, the orations of Demosthenes; the fetters of Socrates, &c.

ADJECTIVE*.

What is an adjective?

45. An adjective is a word that makes no sense by itself, but makes sense when joined by a substantive, which it describes; as, a *good pen*. So that an adjective may be defined to be a word that describes † the substantive.

* It is not easy to conceive what could induce so many acute and ingenious grammarians to remove the adjective from its old station after the substantive, and place it after the pronoun. If it be said that the pronoun is a sort of substantive, and therefore the adjective properly comes after both noun and pronoun, it may be answered, that the personal and reciprocal pronouns only can pretend to be of the nature of substantives; and that before we can explain the pronominal adjectives, the nature of an adjective must have been already explained; not only as the nature of an adjective is better conceived by being united with the substantive, but as we cannot enter upon the first grand distinction of the pronoun into the nature of substantives and adjectives, unless the adjective be previously known.

† I have differed from all our grammarians in the definition of an adjective, by saying that it *describes* the substantive; but this definition will, I flatter myself, be found to be more simple and more comprehensive than any other. If Dr. Lowth's definition be correct, namely, "An adjective is a word added to a substantive to express its quality," what shall we call those words that express number? Therefore to call an adjective a word *descriptive* of the substantive, seems to take in every modification; and if on this account it should be objected, that the Articles are modifying or descriptive words added to substantives; it may be added, that these words have been ranged under the Adjective by Beauz , one of the most acute grammarians of the age.

Do adjectives ever change their termination on account of number, gender, and case, as substantives do?

46. No ; they are joined without any change of termination to substantives of all genders, in all cases, and of both numbers; as, *a good man, a good woman, a good book ; of a good man, of a good woman, of a good book ; good men, good women, good books ; of good men, of good women, of good books, &c.*

Do adjectives ever change their termination at all?

47. Yes ; on account of comparison.

What do you mean by comparison?

48. Comparison, is either extending or contracting the signification of the adjective, and estimating this signification by different degrees.

How many degrees of comparison are there?

49. Three: the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

What is the positive degree?

50. The positive degree is that in which the adjective is simply expressed ; as, *strong, brave.*

What is the comparative degree?

51. The comparative degree is that in which the signification of the adjective is either increased or diminished ; as, *stronger, braver ; less strong, less brave.*

What is the superlative degree?

52. The superlative degree increases or diminishes the positive to the highest or lowest degree ; as, *strongest, bravest ; least strong, least brave.*

How is the comparative degree formed?

53. By adding *r* to the positive, if it end in silent *e*, as, *wise, wiser* ; or *er*, if the positive end in a consonant as, *strong, stronger.*

How is the superlative degree formed?

54. By adding *st* to the positive, if it end in silent *e*, as, *wise, wisest*; or *est*, if the positive end in a consonant, as, *strong, strongest*.

Are all adjectives thus compared?

55. No: adjectives may be compared by prefixing the words *more* and *most*, and *less* and *least*, to them: as, *strong, more strong, most strong*: *brave, less brave, least brave*.

Do all adjectives admit of being compared in both these ways?

56. No: all adjectives admit of being compared by *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*; as, *fair, more fair, most fair*; or *fair, less fair, least fair*: but only monosyllable adjectives admit of being compared by *er* or *est*; as, *fair, fairer, fairest*; *strong, stronger, strongest*; or such dissyllables as end in *y*, as, *happy, happier, happiest*; or in *le* after a mute, as *noble, nobler, noblest*; *ample, ampler, amplest*; or such as are accented on the last syllable; as, *complete, completer, completest*; *polite, politer, politest*, &c.

How do adjectives that end in *y* after a consonant form their comparatives and superlatives?

57. The same rule holds in adjectives as in substantives and verbs; namely, when any of these words end in *y*, preceded by a consonant, and take an additional syllable, beginning with any vowel but *i*, the *y* is changed into *i*; as, *holy, holier, holiest*; *a fly, flies*; *a flier, flying*, &c.

According to the same rule in the other parts of speech, if the positive end in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, with the accent on the last syllable, the final consonant must be doubled in the comparative and superlative; as, *hot, hotter, hottest*; *flat, flatter, flattest*, &c. See Participle.

Are all adjectives compared in one or other of the foregoing ways?

58. No: some few are compared quite differently ; as,

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good *,	Better,	Best.
Bad,	Worse,	Worst.
Little,	Less,	Least.
Much or many,	More,	Most.
Near,	Nearer,	Nearest or next.
Late,	Later or latter,	Latest or last.

In what part of a sentence is the adjective usually placed?

59. Immediately before the substantive, as a Good Man, a Good Woman, &c.

Is it always so placed?

60. No; it is sometimes placed after the substantive: first, when it forms the title of a person or place; as, Alexander the Great, Louis the Fourteenth, Arabia the Happy: secondly; when it is followed by words that describe it; as, A man, true to his trust; Feed me with food convenient for me: thirdly, for the sake of greater harmony, or more emphatic expression; as, O Grace Divine!

PRONOUNS.

What is a Pronoun?

61. A pronoun is a word put instead of a noun to prevent the too frequent repetition of it; as, Cæsar conquered the Gauls, and then *he* conquer-

* It is remarkable that these adjectives are irregularly compared in all the languages we know, and particularly *good* and *bad*; which should seem to arise from the importance of these two epithets, as if they required a more marking difference than that which arises from a different termination: this is somewhat analogous to that difference of the sexes which in almost all languages is marked by different words, as, *ανθρωπος, ανηρ*, *homo, vir*, a man; *γυνη, mulier, femina*, a woman, &c.; where we find a different word adopted to distinguish the sex, and not a mere termination, as in the Latin *equus*, a horse; and *equa*, a mare.

ed his country : where the pronoun *he* is used instead of Cæsar.

How many kinds of pronouns are there?

62. Six ; namely, the Personal, the Possessive, the Reciprocal, the Relative, the Demonstrative, and the Distributive. Of these the Personal and the Reciprocal may be considered as substantives, and the rest as adjectives.

Which are the Personal Pronouns?

63. *I, thou, he, she, it*, and their plurals *we, ye* or *you*, and *they*. *I* and *thou*, with their plurals *we, ye* or *you*, are both masculine and feminine. *He* is of the masculine gender, *she* of the feminine, and *it* of the neuter. *They* is of all genders.

Are pronouns subject to declension?

64. As personal pronouns are of the nature of substantives, they may like substantives be declined through all the cases.

How do you decline the first personal pronoun?

Singular.	Plural.
65. Nom. <i>I</i> .	Nom. <i>We</i> .
Gen. * <i>My</i> or <i>Of me</i> .	Gen. <i>Our</i> or <i>Of us</i> .
Dat. <i>To me</i> .	Dat. <i>To us</i> .
Accus. or Obj. <i>Me</i> .	Accus. or Obj. <i>Us</i> .
Vocat. <i>Is wanting</i> .	Vocat. <i>Is wanting</i> .
Ablat. <i>With, from, or by me</i> .	Ablat. <i>With, from, or by us</i> .

* In declining the Personal Pronouns I might have omitted putting *my* for the genitive case of *I*; *thy* for the same case of *thou*; *his* for *he*; *her* for *she*; *its* for *it*; &c. For though it is highly probable that these were the Saxon genitives of their respective pronouns, yet as our language has departed from its Saxon parent in a thousand instances, I know not why we should encumber it by preserving Saxon peculiarities, when such improvements as naturally arise in the cultivation of letters enable us to class words in a clearer and more analogical manner. This, I flatter myself, is done by considering these old genitives as possessive pronouns, and dividing them into substantives and adjectives. As this,

How do you decline the second personal pronoun?

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
66. Nom. Thou.	Nom. Ye or you.
Gen. Thy or Of thee.	Gen. Your or Of you.
Dat. To thee.	Dat. To you.
Accus. or Obj. Thee.	Accus. or Obj. You.
Vocat. O thou.	Vocat. O ye or O you.
Ablat. With, from, or by thee.	Ablat. With, from, or by you.

How do you decline the third personal pronoun of the masculine gender?

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
67. Nom. He.	Nom. They.
Gen. His or Of him	Gen. Their or Of them.
Dat. To him.	Dat. To them.
Accus. or Obj. Him.	Accus. or Obj. Them.
Vocat. Is wanting.	Vocat. Is wanting.
Ablat. With, from, or by him.	Ablat. With, from, or by them.

How do you decline the third personal pronoun of the feminine gender?

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
68. Nom. She.	Nom. They.
Gen. Her or Of her.	Gen. Their or Of them.
Dat. To her.	Dat. To them.
Accus. or Obj. Her.	Accus. or Obj. Them.
Vocat. Is wanting.	Vocat. Is wanting.
Ablat. With, from, or by her.	Ablat. With, from, or by them.

How do you decline the third personal pronoun of the neuter gender?

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
69. Nom. It.	Nom. They.
Gen. It or Of It's.	Gen. Their or Of them.
Dat. To her.	Dat. To them.
Accus. or Obj. It.	Accus. or Obj. Them.
Vocat. Is wanting.	Vocat. Is wanting.
Ablat. With, from, or by it.	Ablat. With, from, or by them.

however, is a matter of some dispute among grammarians, I have given these pronouns both ways, and leave it to the teacher's choice to prefer which he pleases.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

What are the Possessive pronouns?

70. The possessive pronouns are personal adjectives, or such adjectives as describe some property belonging to personal pronouns.

How many possessive pronouns are there?

71. As many as there are personal pronouns; that is, every personal pronoun has a possessive pronoun which corresponds to it.

How does this appear?

72. By exhibiting them together in the following scheme.

<i>Personal Pronouns.</i>	<i>Adj. Possessives.</i>	<i>Subs. Possessives.</i>
<i>Singular.</i>		
1 I	my	mine.
2 Thou	thy	thine.
3 { He. Mas.	his	his.
She. Fem.	her	hers.
It. Neut.	it.	
<i>Plural.</i>		
1 We	our	ours.
2 Ye or You	your	yours.
3 { They. Mas.	their	theirs.
They. Fem.	their	theirs
They Neut.	their.	

What is the distinction between adjective and substantive possessives?

73. Adjective possessives are those which are used before the substantive, as, This is *my* hat: Substantive possessives are those which are used without a following substantive, as, This hat is *mine*. *His* is the same, whether we use it with or without the substantive; as, This is *his* hat; or, This hat is *his*. *Its* is never used substantively; for though we can say, These are *its* qualities, we cannot say, These qualities are *its*.

Are not *mine* and *thine*, though substantive possessives, sometimes used as adjectives? as, *mine* eyes, *thine* arm, &c.

74. Yes; but improperly: they are indulged in poetry for the sake of sound and solemnity; but in prose they have been long disused.

What are the Reciprocal Pronouns?

75. Those where *self* is added to some of the possessive, and some of the oblique cases of the personal pronoun; as, *myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself; ourselves, yourselves, themselves*. These are of the nature of substantives, but, like *which* and *what*, cannot be declined in the genitive by *s*, with an apostrophe.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

What are Relative Pronouns?

76. Relative pronouns are such as relate to an antecedent, and unite the latter part of the sentence to the former; and therefore ought to be, and sometimes are, called Conjunctive Pronouns.

Which are the relative pronouns?

77. *Who, which, what, and that*.

Are they declinable?

78. *Who*, like nouns, is declined with two genitives; *whose* or *of whom*. *Which* and *what* may be declined with the genitive formed by *of*; but *that*, as a relative, is wholly undeclinable.

How do you decline the relative *who*?

Singular.	Plural.
79. Nom. Who.	} The same.
Gen. Whose or Of whom.	
Dat. To whom.	
Accus. or Obj. Whom.	
Vocat. Is wanting.	
Ablat. With, from, or by whom.	

How do you decline the relative *which*?

Singular.	Plural.
80. Nom. Which.	} The same.
Gen. Of which.	
Dat. To which.	
Accus. or Obj. Which.	
Vocat. Is wanting.	
Ablat. With, from, or by which.	

How do you decline the relative *what*?

Singular.	Plural.
81. Nom. What.	} The same.
Gen. Of what.	
Dat. To what.	
Accus. or Obj. What.	
Vocat. Is wanting.	
Ablat. With, from, or by what.	

Of what gender, number, and person, are the relative pronouns?

82. *Who* is of both numbers, of the masculine and feminine genders, and of all rational persons.

Which is of both numbers, of the neuter gender, and of all irrational persons.

What is a compound relative including its antecedent, and is equivalent to *that which* or *those which*; it is of both numbers, all genders, and all persons.

That is of both numbers, all genders, and all persons.

Is *which* never applied to rational persons?

83. When *which* is used interrogatively, or is put before the person to whom it relates, it is applied to rational persons as well as things; as "*Which* is the lady you mean?" "*Which* man sings best?"

How do you know when *that* is a relative pronoun?

84. By trying to change it into *who* or *which*; thus, "the master *that* taught me," I can change into "the master *who* taught me," and "the books *that* you sent," into "the books *which* you sent;" when I cannot do this, the word *that* is either a demonstrative pronoun, or a conjunction.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

What are Demonstrative Pronouns?

85. Demonstrative pronouns are such as point out any particular persons or things.

36. Which are the demonstrative pronouns?

This and *that*.

Are they declinable?

87. Yes; as they stand in the place of substantives, they are, like them, declinable, except in the genitive case, by *s* with an apostrophe.

How do you decline the demonstrative pronoun *This*?

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
88. Nom. <i>This</i> .	Nom. <i>These</i> .
Gen. Of <i>this</i> .	Gen. Of <i>these</i> .
Dat. To <i>this</i> .	Dat. To <i>these</i> .
Accus. or Obj. <i>This</i> .	Accus. or Obj. <i>These</i> .
Vocat. Is wanting.	Vocat. Is wanting.
Ablat. With, from, or by <i>this</i> .	Ablat. With, from, or by <i>these</i> .

How do you decline the demonstrative pronoun *That*?

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
89. Nom. <i>That</i> .	Nom. <i>Those</i> .
Gen. Of <i>that</i> .	Gen. Of <i>those</i> .
Dat. To <i>that</i> .	Dat. To <i>those</i> .
Accus. or Obj. <i>That</i> .	Accus. or Obj. <i>Those</i> .
Vocat. Is wanting.	Vocat. Is wanting.
Ablat. With, from, or by <i>that</i> .	Ablat. With, from, or by <i>those</i> .

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

What are Distributive Pronouns?

90. Distributive pronouns are so called because they denote the persons or things that make up a number, as taken singly and separately.

Which are the distributive pronouns?

91. *Each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*.

Of what gender, number, and person, are the distributive pronouns?

92. They are of all genders and persons, are only of the singular number; as, "*Each has his share*;" "*Every man gives something*;" "*Either of them has enough for himself*;" "*Neither is a proper man for a friend*."

Do not these pronouns, like the possessive, the relative, and the demonstrative, suppose some substantive or personal pronoun either expressed or understood?

93. All pronouns but the personal and reciprocal have the nature of adjectives, and are joined to some substantive or personal pronoun either expressed or understood : expressed ; as, " I sent *her* servant ;" " He saw *that* man ;" " I have read the book *which* you lent me." Understood : " *This* (book) is *mine* ;" " *Each* (man) has his share ;" " *Either* (man) has enough for himself ;" " *Neither* (person) is to blame ;" " *Who* steals my purse steals trash ;" that is, *he* who steals my purse steals trash.

THE VERB.

What is a Verb ?

94. A verb is a word that signifies *to be* ; as, *I am* : *to do* ; as, *I strike* : or *to suffer* ; as, *I am struck*.

How many kinds of verbs are there ?

95. Three ; active, passive, and neuter.

What is an active verb ?

96. An active verb signifies *action*, and such action as passes over to some object ; as, *I strike the table* ; and is therefore called *transitive*.

What is a passive verb * ?

* A most ridiculous singularity has crept into our language in the signification of the word *passion*. One would suppose, by its general appropriation to the passion of anger, that this passion was the strongest of all passions, and that therefore it was so called by way of eminence. It is true, the effects of anger are, like the rest of the passions, of an active nature ; but the cause of it, like that of the rest, is an impression made on the mind by some object which occasions a kind of suffering. To denominate causes by their effects is often proper in rhetoric and poetry ; but

97. A passive verb signifies *passion*, suffering, or the receiving of an impression ; as, *I am struck*.

What is a neuter verb ?

98. A neuter verb signifies either being, as, *I am* ; a state or condition of being, as, *I sit, I stand* ; or such action as does not pass over to another object, as, *I walk, I run* ; and is therefore called *intransitive*.

What are the properties of a verb ?

99. Mood, tense, number, and person.

What is a mood ?

100. A mood is a certain mode * or manner of being, doing, or suffering.

How many moods are there ?

101. Five ; namely, the infinitive, the indicative, the imperative, the potential ; and the subjunctive.

What is the infinitive mood ?

102. The infinitive mood expresses being, doing, or suffering, in the largest and most unlimited sense ; and is known by the preposition *to* before it ; as, *to love*.

Why is it called the infinitive mood ?

in didactic works and plain prose, nothing can be so inapplicable. If we were to tell a Frenchman that such a man was in a *passion*, he would ask, *Quelle passion, Monsieur ?* and if you explain it farther to him, he would say, *Eh ! Monsieur, vous voudriez dire qu'il est en colère.* In consequence of this vulgar application of the word, a passionate man means an angry man ; while the most awful and important fact in Christianity, the *passion* of our Saviour, is in direct opposition to such a sense.

* An affectation of critical precision has made several of our grammarians call this property of the verb a *mode*, contrary to the appellation formerly given it of *mood*. It is certain that *mode* and *mood* are radically the same, but the latter is more specific than the former ; meaning a mode of the mind ; and therefore more applicable to its grammatical usage.

103. Because it is infinite; that is, it is not limited or circumscribed by number or person.

What is the indicative mood?

104. The indicative mood indicates, declares, or affirms; as, *I strike*; or asks a question; as, *Do I strike?*

What is the imperative mood?

105. The imperative mood is the mood of commanding or bidding; as, *Read your Grammar*; *Let me go*.

What is the potential mood?

106. The potential mood is the mood of power, and expresses liberty, necessity, or duty: it is formed by prefixing the auxiliary verbs, *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, *would*, *should*, or *must*; as, *I may, might, can, could, would, should, or must strike*.

What is the subjunctive mood?

107. The subjunctive mood is so called because it requires another verb to be subjoined in order to form complete sense. It has generally a conjunction prefixed to it; as, *If he go, he will certainly lose his life*.

What is the tense of a verb?

108. A tense is the time in which any thing exists, acts, or suffers.

How many tenses are there*?

* An accurate and philosophical definition and arrangement of the tenses, is one of the most abstruse and metaphysical parts of grammar. Those who wish to see the subject excellently handled may consult Dr. Crombie's *Etymology and Syntax*. Without entering into this thorny path, in which youth can never be expected to follow, it may not be improper to obviate a difficulty which is apt to arise in young minds; namely, how the imperfect tense can be called imperfect, when the time it intimates is more perfectly passed, than that of the perfect tense itself. This difficulty may be solved by telling them that the tense is called imperfect, not because the time is imperfectly passed,

109. There are six tenses or times ; namely, the present, the imperfect, the perfect, the pluperfect, the foretelling future imperfect, the commanding future imperfect ; and the future perfect tense.

What is the present tense ?

110. The present tense signifies the present time ; as, *I dine, I sup.*

What is the imperfect tense ?

111. The imperfect tense signifies an action, passion, or event imperfectly passed, at a time perfectly passed ? as, *I supped last night at eleven o'clock.*

What is the perfect tense ?

112. The perfect tense signifies an action, passion, or event at a time perfectly passed, but at no particular time ; and it may be called the passed time extending to the present ; as, *I have finished my supper.*

What is the pluperfect tense ?

113. The pluperfect tense signifies an action, passion, or event perfectly passed, at some time perfectly passed ; as, *I had finished my supper last night at ten o'clock.*

What is the foretelling future imperfect tense ?

114. The foretelling future imperfect tense signifies simply foretelling the time to come ; as, *I shall dine at five ; You will sup at ten.*

What is the commanding future imperfect tense ?

115. The commanding future imperfect tense implies the commanding or ordering of some action, passion, or event to come to pass ; as, *I will dine to-day at four ; You shall sup to night at nine.*

reckoning from the present, but because the action at a passed time is imperfect, or not completely finished. Thus when I say, " I supped at eleven o'clock last night," though the time is now passed, the action at that hour was imperfect, incomplete, or unfinished.

What is the future perfect tense?

116. The future perfect tense signifies the time to come as passed, before some other time to come be passed; as, *I shall have dined to-day before six o'clock; Thou wilt have supped to-night before eleven.*

How many numbers have verbs?

117. Two; singular and plural; as, *He reads, They read.*

How many persons have verbs?

118. Three; singular and plural; as, *I* for the first person, *thou* for the second, *he, she, and it*, for the third person singular—*we* for the first, *ye or you* for the second, and *they* for the third person plural.

How are the moods and tenses formed?

119. By the means of auxiliary verbs.

How many auxiliary verbs are there?

120. Nine.

Which are the auxiliary verbs?

121. *To have, to be, to do, shall, will, may, can, let, and must.*

Have the auxiliary verbs any conjugation? that is, have they any moods, tenses, or persons?

122. Yes.

How do you conjugate the auxiliary verbs?

123. Some of the auxiliary verbs have a present and a passed time; as, *to have, to be, to do.* Some have an absolute and a conditional form; as, *shall, will, may, and can*; and some have only a present tense; as *let and must.*

How do you conjugate *To Have* as an auxiliary verb?

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

124. I have.

Thou hast.

He hath or has.

Plural.

We have.

Ye or you have.

They have.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.
I had.
Thou hadst.
He had.

Plural.
We had.
Ye or you had.
They had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.
If I have.
If thou have.
If he have.

Plural.
If we have.
If ye or you have.
If they have.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.
If I had.
If thou had.
If he had.

Plural.
If we had.
If ye or you had
If they had.

How do you conjugate *To Be* as an auxiliary verb?

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.
125. I am.
Thou art.
He is.

Plural.
We are.
Ye or you are.
They are.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.
I was.
Thou wast.
He was.

Plural.
We were.
Ye or you were.
They were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.
If I be.
If thou be.
If he be.

Plural.
If we be.
If ye or you be.
If they be.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.
If I were.
If thou were.
If he were.

Plural.
If we were.
If ye or you were.
If they were.

How do you conjugate *Do* as an auxiliary verb?

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
126. I do.	We do.
Thou dost.	Ye or you do.
He doth or does.	They do.

Preterimperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I did.	We did.
Thou didst.	Ye or you did.
He did.	They did.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
If I do.	If we do.
If thou do.	If ye or you do.
If he do.	If they do.

Preterimperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
If I did.	If we did.
If thou did.	If ye or you did.
If he did.	If they did.

How do you conjugate *Shall*, *Will*, *May*, and *Can*?

SHALL.

Absolute Form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
127. I shall.	We shall.
Thou shalt.	Ye or you shall.
He shall.	They shall.

Conditional Form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I should.	We should.
Thou shouldst.	Ye or you should.
He should.	They should.

WILL.

Absolute Form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I will.	We will.
Thou wilt.	Ye or you will.
He will.	They will.

Conditional Form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I would.	We would.
Thou wouldst.	Ye or you would.
He would.	They would.

MAY.

Absolute Form

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I may.	We may.
Thou mayst.	Ye or you may.
He may.	They may.

Conditional Form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I might.	We might.
Thou mightst.	Ye or you might.
He might.	They might.

CAN.

Absolute Form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I can.	We can.
Thou canst.	Ye or you can.
He can.	They can.

Conditional Form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I could.	We could.
Thou couldst.	Ye or you could.
He could.	They could.

How do you conjugate the auxiliary verbs *Let* and *Must*?

128. *Let* and *must* have no variation. *Let*, as an auxiliary verb, has always the sense of *permit* or *admit*. As a principal verb, it sometimes signifies to stop or hinder; as, "Wherefore do you *let* the people from their work?" (Bible). In this

sense, which is almost obsolete, it is a regular verb ; but in the sense of *permitting* or *admitting* ; as, “ He was *let* into the secret ;” “ The house was *let* to another tenant ;” it is irregular, having the present tense, the preterit, and the participle the same.

What do the auxiliary verbs signify ?

129. *To have*, *to be*, and *to do*, signify respectively possession, existence, and action : *shall* and *will* signify futurity ; *may* signifies possibility ; *can*, power ; *let*, permission ; and *must*, necessity.

Are the verbs *to have*, *to be*, and *to do*, always auxiliary verbs ?

130. No : *to have*, *to be*, and *to do*, are not only auxiliary, but principal verbs. When they are followed by a verb or participle, they are auxiliary, because they help the verb to form its mood or tense ; as, “ I have loved ;” “ I had loved ;” “ I am loving ;” “ I do love ;” “ I did love ;” &c. ; but when they are followed by a noun or pronoun they are principal verbs ; as, “ I have books ;” “ He was a scholar ;” “ I do my duty,” &c. : and in this sense they may be conjugated through all the moods and tenses.

Are *shall* and *will* used indifferently in the future tense ?

131. No : *will*, in the first person, promises or threatens ; and in the second and third persons, only foretells ; *shall*, on the contrary, in the first person, only foretells ; and in the second and third persons, promises or threatens : but, as Dr. Lowth observes, this rule only holds good in explicative sentences ; and the contrary takes place in such as are interrogative : thus, *I shall go*, *You will go*, express event only ; but *Will you go ?* imports intention, and *Shall I go ?* refers to the will of another : but again, *He shall go* ; and *Shall he go ?*

both imply *will*, expressing or referring to a command*.

132. In addition to these directions for the use of *shall* and *will*, Dr. Crombie has judiciously observed, that “When the second or third persons are represented as subjects of their own expressions or their own thoughts, *shall* foretells as in the first person; thus, ‘He says he *shall* be a loser by this bargain;’ ‘Do you suppose you *shall* go †?’”

How do you conjugate the active verb *To Have* as a principal verb?

To Have.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
133. I have.	We have.
Thou hast.	Ye or you have.
He hath or has.	They have.

* This intricacy of the future tense in our language, which, as far as I know, is not the case in any other language in the world, reminds me of an observation I have heard from Dr. Johnson; that a child of six years old bred in England shall never mistake these distinctions; while men of education in Scotland or Ireland shall often find themselves at a loss about them.

† As a corroboration of Dr. Crombie's remark, it may be observed, that when the second or third person is represented as the subject of his own thought or expression, *will* promises as in the first person; as, “He says he *will* certainly wait on you.” “You say that you *will* certainly come.” Hence we may infer the propriety of that delicate use of *shall* instead of *will* in our best authors. “The division of guilt is like to that of matter; though it may be separated into infinite portions, every portion *shall* have the whole essence of matter in it, and consist of as many parts as the whole did before it was divided.” Addison, Spect. No. 507.—Thus we see it is the foretelling or the commanding sense of *will* and *shall* that determines their usage in the different persons, and not their being in different persons that determines their sense.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

I had.

Thou hadst.

He had.

Plural.

We had.

Ye or you had.

They had.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

I have had.

Thou hast had.

He hath or has had.

Plural.

We have had.

Ye or you have had.

They have had.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

I had had.

Thou hadst had.

He had had.

Plural.

We had had.

Ye or you had had.

They had had.

The Foretelling Future Imperfect Tense *.

Singular.

I shall have.

Thou wilt have.

He will have.

Plural.

We shall have.

Ye or you will have.

They will have.

The Commanding Future Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

I will have.

Thou shalt have.

He shall have.

Plural.

We will have.

Ye or you shall have.

They shall have.

The Foretelling Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

I shall have had.

Thou wilt have had.

He will have had.

Plural.

We shall have had.

Ye or you will have had.

They will have had.

* This distinction of the future tense into the foretelling and the commanding seems absolutely necessary when we consider the different significations of *shall* and *will* in the different persons of the future imperfect tense, and the utter incompatibility of these signs in the same persons of the future perfect tense. The moment we hear *I will have had*, we find the impropriety of combining it with *I shall have had*; and, perhaps, separating this tense in the manner here adopted may be a means of preventing foreigners and provincials from confounding these two auxiliaries, and men of sense from becoming the jest of fools.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Let me have.

Have thou, or do thou have.

Let him have *.

Plural.

Let us have.

Have ye or you, or do ye or you have.

Let them have.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, or must have.

Thou mayst, canst, or must have.

He may, can, or must have.

Plural.

We may, can, or must have.

Ye or you may, can, or must have.

They may, can, or must have.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

I might, could, would, or should have.

Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have.

He might, could, would, or should have.

Plural.

We might, could, would, or should have.

Ye or you might, could, would, or should have.

They might, could, would, or should have:

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, or must have had.

Thou mayst, canst, or must have had.

He may, can, or must have had.

Plural.

We may, can, or must have had.

Ye or you may, can, or must have had.

They may, can, or must have had.

* As the imperative mood always addresses a person or persons present, the third person, which is either distant, or absent, cannot be addressed; and therefore the second person must always be understood; as, "Let *thou* him have," or in other words, "Permit *thou* him to have," where the verb *have* is in the infinitive mood, without the sign *to* before it according to the general rule.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

I might, could, would, should, or must have had.

Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, shouldst, or must have had.

He might, could, would, should, or must have had.

Plural.

We might, could, would, should, or must have had.

Ye or you might, could, would, should, or must have had.

They might, could, would, should, or must have had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD *.

Present Tense.

Singular.

If I have.

If thou have.

If he have.

Plural.

If we have.

If ye or you have

If they have.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

If I had.

If thou had.

If he had.

Plural.

If we had.

If ye or you had.

If they had.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

If I have had.

If thou have had.

If he have had.

Plural.

If we have had.

If ye or you have had.

If they have had.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

*Present, To have.**Perfect, To have had.*

PARTICIPLES.

*Present, Having.**Perfect, Had.**Compound Perfect, Having had.*

* Grammarians differ widely with respect to the nature and extent of this mood: they are pretty uniform in acknowledging its existence in the verb *to be*. I have given the three first tenses of this verb rather as they exist in some respectable authors, than as they form any rule for present usage. Milton, in Adam's Morning Hymn, says—

“And, if the night

“Have gather'd aught of evil or conceal'd,

“Disperse it, as new light dispels the dark.”

And in the New Testament we find—“If she *have* been the wife of one husband.”

How do you conjugate the verb *To Be* as a principal verb?

To Be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

134. I am.

We are.

Thou art.

Ye or you are.

He is.

They are.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I was.

We were.

Thou wast.

Ye or you were.

He was.

They were.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I have been.

We have been.

Thou hast been.

Ye or you have been.

He has been.

They have been.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I had been.

We had been.

Thou hadst been.

Ye or you had been.

He had been.

They had been.

The Foretelling Future Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I shall be.

We shall be.

Thou wilt be.

Ye or you will be.

He will be.

They will be.

The Commanding Future Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I will be.

We will be.

Thou shalt be.

Ye or you shall be.

He shall be.

They shall be.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I shall have been.

We shall have been.

Thou wilt have been.

Ye or you will have been.

He will have been.

They will have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Let me be.

Let us be.

Be thou, or do thou be.

Be ye or you, or do ye or you be.

Let him be.

Let them be.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

*Singular.**Plural.*

I may, can, or must be.

We may, can, or must be.

Thou mayst, canst, or must be.

Ye or you may, can, or must be.

He may, can, or must be.

They may, can, or must be.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

I might, could, would, or should be.

Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.

He might, could, would, or should be.

Plural.

We might, could, would, or should be.

Ye or you might, could, would, or should be.

They might, could, would, or should be.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, or must have been.

Thou mayst, canst, or must have been.

He may, can, or must have been.

Plural.

We may, can, or must have been.

Ye or you may, can, or must have been.

They may, can, or must have been.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

I might, could, would, should, or must have been.

Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, shouldst, or must have been.

He might, could, would, should, or must have been.

Plural.

We might, could, would, should, or must have been.

Ye or you might, could, would, should, or must have been.

They might, could, would, should, or must have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

If I be.

If thou be.

If he be.

Plural.

If we be.

If ye or you be.

If they be.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

If I were.

If thou were.

If he were.

Plural.

If we were.

If ye or you were.

If they were.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

If I have been.

If thou have been.

If he have been.

Plural.

If we have been.

If ye or you have been.

If they have been.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

*Present, To be.**Perfect, To have been.*

PARTICIPLES.

*Present. Being.**Perfect, Been.**Compound Perfect, Having been.*

How do you conjugate the active verb *To Do*
as a principal verb?

To Do.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

135. I do.

Thou dost.

He doth or does.

Plural.

We do.

Ye or you do.

They do.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

I did.

Thou didst.

He did.

Plural.

We did.

Ye or you did.

They did.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

I have done.

Thou hast done.

He hath or has done.

Plural.

We have done.

Ye or you have done.

They have done.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

I had done.
Thou hadst done.
He had done.

Plural.

We had done.
Ye or you had done.
They had done.

Foretelling Future Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

I shall do.
Thou wilt do.
He will do.

Plural.

We shall do.
Ye or you will do.
They will do.

Commanding Future Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

I will do.
Thou shalt do.
He shall do.

Plural.

We will do.
Ye or you shall do.
They shall do.

Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

I shall have done.
Thou wilt have done.
He will have done.

Plural.

We shall have done.
Ye or you will have done.
They will have done.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Let me do.
Do thou, or do thou do.
Let him do.

Plural.

Let us do.
Do ye or you, or do ye or you do.
Let them do.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, or must do.
Thou mayst, canst, or must do.
He may, can, or must do.

Plural.

We may, can, or must do.
Ye or you may, can, or must do.
They may, can, or must do.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

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

Plural.

We might, could, would, or should do.
Ye or you might, could, would, or should do.
They might, could, would, or should do.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, or must have done.

Thou mayst, canst, or must have done.

He may, can, or must have done.

Plural.

We may, can, or must have done.

Ye or you may, can, or must have done.

They may, can, or must have done.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

I might, could, would, or should have done.

Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have done.

He might, could, would, or should have done.

Plural.

We might, could, would, or should have done.

Ye or you might, could, would, or should have done.

They might, could, would, or should have done.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

*Present, To do.**Perfect, To have done.*

PARTICIPLES.

*Present, Doing.**Perfect, Done,**Compound Perfect, Having done.*How do you conjugate the active verb *To Call*?*To Call.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

136. I call.

Thou callest.

He calleth or calls.

Plural.

We call.

Ye or you call.

They call.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

I called.

Thou calledst.

He called.

Plural.

We called.

Ye or you called.

They called.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

I have called.
Thou hast called.
He has called.

Plural.

We have called.
Ye or you have called.
They have called.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

I had called.
Thou hadst called.
He had called.

Plural.

We had called.
Ye or you had called.
They had called.

Foretelling Future Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

I shall call.
Thou wilt call.
He will call.

Plural.

We shall call.
Ye or you will call.
They will call.

Commanding Future Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

I will call.
Thou shalt call.
He shall call.

Plural.

We will call.
Ye or you shall call.
They shall call.

Foretelling Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

I shall have called.
Thou wilt have called.
He will have called.

Plural.

We shall have called.
Ye or you will have called.
They will have called.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Let me call.
Call thou, or do thou call.
Let him call.

Plural.

Let us call.
Call ye or you, or do ye or you call.
Let them call.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, or must call.
Thou mayst, canst, or must
call.
He may, can, or must call.

Plural.

We may, can, or must call.
Ye or you may, can, or must
call.
They may, can, or must call.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

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

Plural.

We might, could, would, or should call.
 Ye or you might, could, would, or should call.
 They might, could, would, or should call.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, or must have called.
 Thou mayst, canst, or must have called.
 He may, can, or must have called.

Plural.

We may, can, or must have called.
 Ye or you may, can, or must have called.
 They may, can, or must have called.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

I might, could, would, should, or must have called.
 Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, shouldst, or must have called.
 He might, could, would, should, or must have called.

Plural.

We might, could, would, should, or must have called.
 Ye or you might, could, would, should, or must have called.
 They might, could, would, should, or must have called.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

If I call.
 If thou call.
 If he call.

Plural.

If we call.
 If ye or you call.
 If they call.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

If I called.
 If thou called.
 If he called.

Plural.

If we called.
 If ye or you called.
 If they called.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

If I have called.
 If thou have called.
 If he have called.

Plural.

If we have called.
 If ye or you have called.
 If they have called.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To call. *Perfect*, To have called.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Calling, *Perfect*, Called.

Compound Perfect, Having called.

How do you conjugate the passive verb *To Be Called*?

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

137. I am called.

We are called.

Thou art called.

Ye or you are called.

He is called.

They are called.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I was called.

We were called.

Thou wast called.

Ye or you were called.

He was called.

They were called.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I have been called.

We have been called.

Thou hast been called.

Ye or you have been called.

He has been called.

They have been called.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I had been called.

We had been called.

Thou hadst been called.

Ye or you had been called.

He had been called.

They had been called.

Foretelling Future Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I shall be called.

We shall be called.

Thou wilt be called.

Ye or you will be called.

He will be called.

They will be called.

Commanding Future Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I will be called.

We will be called.

Thou shalt be called.

Ye or you shall be called.

He shall be called.

They shall be called.

Foretelling Future Perfect Tense.

Singular.

I shall have been called.

Thou wilt have been called.

He will have called.

Plural.

We shall have been called.

Ye or you will have been called.

They will have been called.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Let me be called.

Be thou called, or do thou be called.

Let them be called.

Plural.

Let us be called.

Be ye or you called, or do ye or you be called.

Let them be called.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, or must be called.

Thou mayst, canst, or must be called.

He may, can, or must be called.

Plural.

We may, can, or must be called.

Ye or you may, can, or must be called.

They may, can, or must be called.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

I might, could, would, or should be called.

Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be called.

He might, could, would, or should be called.

Plural.

We might, could, would, or should be called.

Ye or you might, could, would, or should be called.

They might, could, would, or should be called.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, or must have been called.

Thou mayst, canst, or must have been called.

He may, can, or must have been called.

Plural.

We may, can, or must have been called.

Ye or you may, can, or must have been called.

They may, can, or must have been called.

Preterpluperfect Tense.

Singular.

I might, could, would, or should have been called.

Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been called.

He might, could, would, or should have been called.

Plural.

We might, could, would, or should have been called.

Ye or you might, could, would, or should have been called.

They might, could, would, or should have been called.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

If I be called.

If thou be called.

If he be called.

Plural.

If we be called.

If ye or you be called.

If they be called.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Singular.

If I were called.

If thou were called.

If he were called.

Plural.

If we were called.

If ye or you were called.

If they were called.

Preterperfect Tense.

Singular.

If I have been called.

If thou have been called.

If he have been called.

Plural.

If we have been called.

If ye or you have been called.

If they have been called.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To be called.

Perfect, To have called.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being called.

Perfect, Been called.

Compound Perfect, Having been called.

Is there not a common appellation by which grammarians use to distinguish the active and the passive verb?

138. Yes; they sometimes call the former the active voice, and the latter the passive voice.

Is there not another form of the verb distinct from these two?

139. Yes; where the active participle is united to the verb *to be*: as the verb in this form exhibits the action as actually performing, it may not improperly be called the actual voice.

Give an example of a verb in this voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

140. I am calling.

We are calling.

Thou art calling.

Ye or you are calling.

He is calling.

They are calling.

And thus the verb in this form may be conjugated through all the moods and tenses.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

What is an Irregular Verb?

141. A verb is irregular either when its preterimperfect tense or its participle passive does not end in *ed*,

Which are the irregular verbs?

142. They are enumerated in all our Grammars, and are variously classed according to the different conceptions of different grammarians.

How many kinds of irregular verbs are there?

143. Two; namely, those which have the present tense, the preterimperfect tense, and the participle passive alike; as *cast, cost, cut, &c.*; and those which have either the preterimperfect tense, or the passive participle, irregular; as, *show, showed, shown; crow, crew, crowed.*

Are there no other kinds of irregular verbs?

144. None but what come under one or other of these descriptions*.

* Dr. Lowth, and after him several other grammarians, have given us a very imperfect and confused idea of what they call contracted verbs; such as, *snatcht, checkt, snapt, mixt, dwelt, and past*, for *snatched, checked, snapped, mixed, dwelled, and passed*. To these are added, those that end in

Are all verbs decidedly either regular or irregular?

l, *m*, and *n*, or *p*, after a diphthong, which either shorten the diphthong, or change it into a single vowel; and instead of *ed*, take *t* only for the preterite; as, *dealt*, *dreamt*, *meant*, *felt*, *slept*, *crept*: and these are said to be considered not as irregular, but contracted only. Now nothing can be clearer than that verbs of a very different kind are here huddled together as of the same. *Snatched*, *checked*, *snapped*, *mixed*, and *passed*, are not irregular at all; if they are ever written *snatcht*, *checkt*, *snapt*, *mixt*, and *past*, it is from pure ignorance of analogy, and not considering that if they were written with *ed*, unless we were to pronounce it as a distinct syllable, contrary to the most settled usage of the language, the pronunciation, from the very nature of the letters, must be the same. It is very different with *dwelled*: here, as a liquid, and not a sharp mute, ends the verb, *d* might be pronounced without going into *t* just as well as in *fell'd*, the participle of *to fell* (to cut down trees). Here then we find custom has determined an irregularity, which cannot be altered, without violence to the language; *dwelt* may be truly called an irregular verb, and *dwelt* the preterite and participle.

The same may be observed of *deal*, *dream*, *mean*, *feel*, *weep*, *sleep*, and *creep*. It is certain we can pronounce *d* after the four first of these words, as well as in *sealed*, *screamed*, *cleaned*, and *reeled*; but custom has not only annexed *t* to the preterite of these verbs, but has changed the long diphthongal sound into a short one; they are therefore doubly irregular. *Weep*, *sleep*, and *creep*, would not have required *t* to form their preterites any more than *peeped*, and *steeped*; but custom, which has shortened the diphthong in the former words, very naturally annexed *t* as the simplest method of conveying the sound.

The only two words which occasion some doubt about classing them are, *to learn* and *to spell*. The vulgar (who are no contemptible guides on this occasion) pronounce them in the preterite *learnt* and *spelt*; but as *n* and *l* will readily admit of *d* after them, it seems more correct to favour a tendency to regularity, both in writing and speaking, which the literary world has given into, by spelling them *learned* and *spelled*, and pronouncing them *learn'd* and *spell'd*. Thus *earned*, the preterite of *to earn*, has been recovered from the vulgar *earnt*, and made a perfect rhyme to *discerned*.

145. No: some are used both in the regular and irregular form; as, *I awake, I awoke, or I awaked*; or, *I have awoke, or, I have awaked*: the irregular form seems proper when the verb is neuter, and the regular when it is active: that is, when I ceased from sleeping, it is *I awoke*; when I aroused another from sleep, it is *I awaked him*.

What are the irregular verbs of the first class?

146. Those that have the present time, the preterite, and the participle, alike; as the following*:

Present.	Preterite.	Participle.
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Cost,	cut,	cost.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Knit,	knit,	knit.
Split,	split,	split.
Let (<i>to permit</i>),	let,	let.
Put,	put,	put.
Rid (<i>to disencumber</i>),	rid,	rid.
Set,	set,	set.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Slit,	slit,	slit.
Spit (<i>to cast out spittle</i>),	spit,	spit.
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.

* There cannot be a greater imperfection in language than verbs of this kind; for though the participle is perfectly distinguished by *have* prefixed, the preterite is not at all distinguished from the present, so that it depends entirely on the sense of the sentence whether we shall understand it as present or passed. It may be observed however, that these verbs in the second person singular of the imperfect tense take *ed* before the *st*; as, *I cast, or did cast; Thou castedst, or didst cast*: for if this were not the case, this tense would not only be confounded with the present, but the second person of the tense also with the first and third.

Which are irregular verbs of the second class ?

147. Those that have either the imperfect tense, or the passive participle, irregular, as the following* :

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Am,	was,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake (145),	awoke or awaked,	awoke or awaked.
Bear (<i>to bring forth</i>),	bare or bore,	born.
Bear (<i>to carry</i>),	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beaten or beat.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Bend,	bent,	bent.
Bereave,	bereft or bereaved,	bereft or bereaved.
Beseech,	besought or beseeched,	besought or beseeched.

* It may not, perhaps, be improper to observe, that some verbs, which a century ago were irregular both in the preterite and participle, have dropped the old participle in *en*, and adopted the preterite instead of it, which, in my opinion, is a considerable improvement of the language; as *rode* instead of *ridden*; *strove* instead of *striven*, &c. Dr. Lowth, whom I criticise with great deference and regret, seems to lament this growing usage, by which the form of the passed time is confounded with that of the participle; but if we reflect that the auxiliary verb *have*, in *I have rode*, distinguishes the participle from the passed time, just as much as if it had been *I have ridden*, we shall have but little occasion to regret the change, since it preserves to us a well-sounding word, in the room of one which in pronunciation (*ridd'n*) has a syllable without a vowel, and wounds the ear by a cluster of consonants. So far therefore from regretting the change, I wish it had prevailed more generally; and that the words *spoke*, *broke*, and *wrote*, were adopted as participles in writing, as they are generally in conversation, instead of *spoken*, *broken*, and *written*. The same objection from ill sound does not lie against *to know*, *to see*, and others, where there is no clashing of consonants in the participle. Nor can I agree with Dr. Lowth, that using *drank* for the participle *drunk* is to be looked upon as a corruption of the language.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
Bid,	bade, bad, or bid,	bid or bidden.
Bide,	bode,	bode.
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	bit or bitten.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Bless*,	blest or blessed,	blest or blessed.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke or brake (a),	broken or broke.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built,	built.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Catch,	caught or catch'd (b),	caught or catch'd.

(a) *Brake* is almost obsolete, and used only on religious occasions ; and *broken* seems rapidly falling into disuse.

(b) *Catch'd*; though sanctioned by Pope—

“ There, so the Fates ordain'd, one Christmas tide
 “ My good old lady *catch'd* a cold and dy'd,”

seems not to be generally adopted ; and as the contracted regular pronunciation is a very harsh one, it were to be wished it were banished conversation as well as writing.

* Placing this verb among the irregulars, as Mr. Knowles of Liverpool, a very good grammarian, has done, arises from a very blameable practice of spelling the imperfect tense and the participle according to the pronunciation, and a confused idea of the different pronunciation when a verb or participle, and when a participial adjective. In the first case, though it ought always to be written *blessed*, it is always pronounced in one syllable, as if written *blest*; as, “ He *blest* them, and departed:” and in the second case, it ought always to be written and pronounced in two syllables ; as, “ Our *blessed* Lord ;” “ This is a *blessed* day,” &c. Pope has followed the common orthography of his time—

“ *Blest* in thy genius, in thy love too *blest*,”

where the participle *blest*, which is always pronounced in one syllable, might as well have been written *blessed*, since it is uniformly pronounced so, in the same manner as we pronounce the preterites and participles of the words *to class*, *to dress*, and *to press*, which would be grossly mis-spelled if written *clast*, *drest*, and *prest*.

Present.	Preterite.	Participle.
Chide,	chid,	chid or chidden (c).
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave (<i>to split</i>),	clove or cleft,	cleft or cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed or clad (d),	clothed or clad.
Come,	came,	come.
Crow,	crew,	crowded.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Dare (<i>to venture</i>) (e),	durst or dared,	dared.
Deal,	dealt,	dealt.
Die,	died,	dead.
Dig,	dug or digged (f)	dug or digged.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Drink,	drank (g),	drank or drunk
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Dwell,	dwelt (h),	dwelt.
Eat,	ate (i) or eat,	eat or eaten.

(c) *Chidden* is grown very old, and it would be no misfortune to the language to find it extinct.

(d) *Clad* seems retiring to poetry and solemn occasions.

(e) *Dare*, without an auxiliary verb, never takes *to* after it; as, "If I *dare* trust you;" but when used with an auxiliary, it requires *to*; as, "I should not *dare to* provoke him." When this verb signifies *to challenge*, it is regular; as, "He *dared* him to the combat."

(f) *Digged*. The regular form of this verb should never be used.

(g) *Drank*. From the disagreeable idea excited by the participle *drunk*, *drank* has been long in polite usage adopted instead of it.

(h) *Dwelt*. See note, p. 50.

(i) *Ate*. Many good writers and speakers have endeavoured to preserve the irregular form of this preterite; but they have not yet succeeded. I think those, however, who do preserve it may be ranked among the more correct grammarians. There are few good speakers who do not distinguish the preterite, though written *eat*, by a shorter pronunciation, as if written *et*. This is doing something to answer the present necessity, but brings along with it an anomaly of the first magnitude, like that in the verb *read*. (See Critical Pronouncing Dictionary under the word *Bowl*.) As to the participle *aten*, like several other of these participles of the same termination, it seems to be losing ground,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt (<i>k</i>),	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee (<i>l</i>),	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken or forsook (<i>m</i>).
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Get,	got,	got or gotten (<i>n</i>).
Gild,	gilt or gilded,	gilt or gilded.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave,	graved,	graven or graved.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Have,	had.	had.

and yielding to *eat*; and as this is a better sound, and is secured in its tense by the auxiliary verb, the change is not much to be regretted.

(*k*) See note, page 50.

(*l*) *Flee*. This verb, signifying to run away, is entangled in meaning with the verb *to fly* (to move by the aid of wings). *To flee*, in the present tense, is now obsolete, or used only in solemn language: for upon the sight of two armies fighting, when one of them runs away, we should not say they *flee*, but they *fly* or are *flying*; but in the passed time we should say the army *fled*, not the army *flew*. Thus we see *to fly* is used in a metaphorical sense in the present time of this verb, but in no other.

(*m*) *Forsook*. Milton has availed himself of the licence of his art (an art as apt to corrupt grammar as it is to raise and adorn language) to use the preterite of this verb for the participle:

———“ unsphere
 “ The spirit of Plato to unfold
 “ What worlds and what vast regions hold
 “ Th’ immortal mind that hath *forsook*
 “ Her mansion in this fleshly nook.”—*Penseroso*.

(*n*) *Gotten*. This participle is quite obsolete in this verb; and *forgotten*, the participle of *forget*, is yielding every day to the preterite *forgot*.—See note, page 52.

Present.	Preterite.	Participle.
Hang,	hung or hanged (<i>o</i>),	hung or hanged.
Have,	had,	had.
Hear,	heard (<i>p</i>),	heard.
Heave,	hove or heaved,	hove or heaved.
Hew,	hewed,	hewn or hewed.
Hide,	hid,	hid or hidden (<i>q</i>).
Hold,	held,	held or holden.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade,	laded,	laden.
Lay (<i>to place</i>),	laid (<i>r</i>),	laid.
Lie (<i>to repose</i>),	lay (<i>s</i>),	lain.

(*o*) *Hanged*. This verb seems to be used regularly only when it signifies to execute by hanging; as, The coat, the hat, and the cloak, were *hung up*; but the dog, the thief, or the murderer, were *hanged*.—*Knowles*.

(*p*) *Heard*. Some speakers, who aim at being correct, pronounce the preterite and passed tense of this verb with the diphthong as long as in *hear*; but this is contrary to the best usage: and to make this pronunciation agreeable to analogy, these words ought to be written *heared*.

(*q*) *Hidden*. This participle, like many others, has ceased as a verb, and gone entirely into the participial adjective: as, *hidden treasures*, *a drunken man*, &c.

(*r*) *Laid*. This word, as well as *paid* and *said*, may be called orthographically irregular; for there is no reason for spelling them in this manner that would not entitle us to make the same alteration in the preterites of *pray*, *sway*, *play*, &c. by spelling them *praid*, *swaid*, *plaid*, &c. This irregularity is inexcusable: but much more inexcusable is the irregularity of the next verb.

(*s*) *Lie*. This neuter verb, signifying to place the body in a recumbent posture, has undergone a wonderful change within these forty years. If our grandfathers had heard us substitute the active verb *lay*, to place, for the present tense of the neuter verb *lie*, they would have blushed for our ignorance of grammar. Had not this substitution commenced with the vulgar, one should have thought it arose from a delicacy of avoiding the sound of a word which is so odious to the polite world; but when it may be traced from the lowest speakers to the lowest writers, from newspapers to pamphlets, from pamphlets to speeches in Parliament, where we often hear *the papers are now laying on the table*; when this is the case, though this alteration did not begin with good writers and speakers from the false deli-

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
Load,	loaded,	loaded or laden.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Meet,	met,	met.
Mow,	mowed,	mowed or mown.
Pass (<i>t</i>),	passed or past,	passed or past.
Pay,	paid (<i>u</i>),	paid.
Quit,	quit or quitted,	quit or quitted.
Read,	read (<i>w</i>),	read.

cacy above mentioned, we may fairly conclude it has, for this reason, been encouraged, and received by them; or it never could have been so generally adopted. The preterite of this verb being the same as the present of the other, may have contributed to this confusion; so that the impropriety seems to be now almost incurable.

(*t*) *Pass.* This word, like the word *bless*, has been placed among the irregulars by Mr. Knowles of Liverpool, and from a similar mistake; that of confounding the participle with the preposition. This word, when a preposition signifying *beyond*; as, "It is *past* the hour;" "The evil is *past* cure;" should always be written in the contracted way as it is pronounced; but when an adjective or a participle, should always be written in two syllables, though pronounced in one; as, "*Passed* pleasures are sometimes present pain:" "The music of Carrol was like the remembrance of joys that are *passed*; pleasing and melancholy to the soul." *Ossian*.—This I know is contrary to usage; but usage, in this case, is contrary to good sense, and the settled analogy of the language. Lindley Murray has judiciously omitted this and the verb *bless* as irregular.—See *Bless*, page 53, and Principles of English Pronunciation, No. 358, 359, &c. prefixed to the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary.

(*u*) See note on *lay*.

(*w*) *Read.* A feeling of the inconvenience of having the preterite the same word as the present tense (see page 51), has induced us to give a short sound to the diphthong in the former, to distinguish it from the other; this, however, is but a bungling way of remedying the imperfection of the language, and contrary to its real interests. (See Critical Pronouncing Dictionary under the word *Bowl*.) Other critics, and those of the first rank, have endeavoured to spell the preterite *red*: this would be a radical cure for the evil without any bad consequences to etymology, or any inconvenience arising from its coincidence with *red*, the colour.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
Reave,	reft or reaved,	reft or reaved.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Ride,	rode (<i>x</i>),	rode, rid, or ridden.
Ring,	rang or rung,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	rived or riven.
Run,	ran,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawed or sawn.
Say,	said (<i>y</i>),	said.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Sew,	sewed,	sewed or sewn.
Shake,	shook (<i>z</i>),	shook or shâken.
Shape,	shaped (<i>aa</i>),	shaped or shapen.
Shave,	shaved (<i>bb</i>),	shaved or shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	shorn.
Shine,	shone or shined,	shone or shined.
Show,	showed,	shown.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shrink,	shrunk,	shrunk.
Sing,	sung or sang,	sung.
Sink,	sunk or sank,	sunk.
Sit,	sat *,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Sleep,	slept (<i>cc</i>),	slept.
Slide,	slid (<i>dd</i>),	slid or slidden.
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Smite,	smote (<i>ee</i>),	smote or smitten.

This emendation, however, has not been received, while many others, though not so important, have met with approbation.

(*x*) See page 52.

(*y*) See the note on *laid*, page 56.

(*z*) See note *m*, page 55.

(*aa*) See page 52.

(*bb*) See page 52.

(*cc*) See page 50.

(*dd*) See page 52.

(*ee*) See page 52.

* *Sat*. The preterite of this verb is sometimes grossly mistaken for the active verb *to set*; and we frequently hear in those oracles of correctness, the newspapers, that on such a day a lady was led to the altar of Hymen, and that after the ceremony the bride and bridegroom *sat* out in a post-chaise together.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
Sow (<i>seed</i>),	sowed,	sown or sowed.
Speak,	spoke or spake,	spoken or spoke (<i>ff</i>)
Speed,	sped,	sped.
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	spilt or spilled,	spilt or spilled.
Spin,	spun or span,	spun.
Spring,	sprung or sprang,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stole or stolen (<i>gg</i>).
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stink,	stunk,	stunk.
Stride,	strode,	strode or stridden (<i>hh</i>).
Strike,	struck,	struck or stricken (<i>ii</i>).
String,	strung,	strung.
Strive,	strove,	strove or striven (<i>kk</i>)
Strow or strew,	strowed or strewed,	strowed, or strewed, or strown.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Sweat,	sweated or swet,	sweated or swet.
Swell,	swelled,	swelled or swollen.
Swim,	swam or swum,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Take,	took,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Thrive,	throve or thrived.	throve, thrived, or thriven (<i>ll</i>).
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Tread,	trod,	trod or trodden.
Wax (<i>to increase</i>),	waxed,	waxed or waxen.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove or weaved,	wove, woven, or weaved.
Weep,	wept,	wept.—See page 50.
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	wound.

(*ff*) See page 52.(*gg*) See page 52.(*hh*) See page 52.(*ii*) See page 52.(*kk*) See page 52.(*ll*) See page 52.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
Worked,	worked or wrought,	worked or wrought.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	written or wrote (mm).

From this view of the irregular verbs, we may perceive how great a tendency they have to become regular, wherever the irregular sound is uncouth or unpleasant to the ear. We may observe likewise, that the irregular form is generally dedicated to poetry and solemn occasions, and the regular to prose and familiar: and that nothing but reading good authors, polite conversation, and good taste, will direct us to make use of one form in preference to the other. It may be worth notice, however, that if we are in doubt which form to use, the irregular will be the safest and most correct.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

What are Defective Verbs?

148. Defective verbs are so called, because they are deficient in some of their moods and tenses.

Which are the defective verbs?

149. The principal of them are these:

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
Beware.		
Can,	could.	
May,	might.	
Must.		
Ought,	ought.	
Quoth,	quoth.	
Shall,	should.	
Weet,	wot.	
Will,	would.	
Wit,	wist.	

(mm) *Written.* See page 52.

PARTICIPLE.

What is a Participle ?

150. A participle is a word that participates or partakes of the nature of a verb and an adjective ; as, “ a *tried* friend ;” “ a *singing* bird ;” where *tried* is both the imperfect tense and the participle passive of the verb *to try* ; and at the same time it describes the substantive *friend*, which shows it to be an adjective (45). In the same manner, the word *singing* is the present participle of the verb *to sing* ; and at the same time, like an adjective, it describes the substantive *bird*.

How are the participles formed ?

151. They are formed from the verb. When the verb ends in silent *e*, this *e* is omitted before the participial terminations *ing* and *ed* ; as, *loving*, *loved* : when the verb ends in any other letter, *ing* and *ed* are annexed ; as, to *land*, *landing*, *landed* ; to *melt*, *melting*, *melted*, &c.

Is not the last consonant of the verb sometimes doubled in forming the participle ?

152. Yes : when the verb ends in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, and the accent is on the last syllable, then, upon taking the participial termination *ing* or *ed*, the consonant is doubled ; as, *allot*, *allotting*, *allotted* : but when the accent is not on the last syllable, the consonant is not doubled ; as, to *ballot*, *balloting*, *balloted*, &c. But when the letter *l* ends the word, it is doubled whether the accent be on the last syllable or not ; as, to *level*, *levelling*, *levelled*, *leveller* ; *duel*, *duelling*, *duellist* ; *victual*, *victualling*, *victualler*, &c. Words of one syllable, therefore, always having the accent, double the consonant ; as, *fat*, *fatted*, *fatting* ; *beg*, *begging*, *begged*, &c.

Do not some participles of the present tense admit of *a* before them ?

153. In some few phrases *a* is put before the participle of the present tense, when preceded by the verbs *to come*, *to go*, *to fall*, *to set*, *to run*, *to burst out*; as, “to come *a* begging;” “to go *a* hunting;” “to fall *a* crying;” “to burst out *a* laughing;” but it must be carefully noted, that this *a*, which is a corruption of the preposition *on*, must never be used after the verb *to be*, or any other verbs, except those above mentioned: therefore “He is *a* hunting;” “She is *a* singing,” &c. are inadmissible*.

* Nothing can be so vulgar and childish as to prefix this letter where it is not to be used; and as it is impossible to avoid using it in some cases, there seems to be a necessity of drawing the line as distinctly as possible between the proper and improper usage of it.

It seems highly probable, as Dr. Johnson and Dr. Lowth have observed, that this *a* is a contraction of the prepositions *at* or *on*, and that the carelessness of colloquial pronunciation has left us only the shadow of the original. It has ever been my opinion, that *on* rather than *at* was the origin of this *a*; and that the indistinctness with which it was pronounced, reduced it to the most indefinite of all our sounds, the unaccented *a*. (See Principles of English Pronunciation prefixed to the Pronouncing Dictionary, 70, 88, 545.) Hence the common orthography, *What's o'clock?* for *What is on the clock?* or *What hour is on the clock?* (88) and if I am not much mistaken, all those phrases where *a* occurs will be better resolved by substituting *on* than *at*. *To walk a-foot* is now universally corrected *To walk on foot*; and *Stand a-tip-toe*, as Shakspeare has it, to *Stand on tiptoe*; but if we were to trust our ears only, we should be inclined to say, *To ride a-horseback*, as the vulgar constantly do, instead of *To ride on horseback*, as it ought to be; which shows how much the ear is regulated by the eye.

But the greatest difficulty is, to know when to use it before a participle of the present tense, and when not; and till we have better rules, let us suppose the following were adopted.

It is never to be used after the verb *to be*; as, *He is a*

ADVERBS.

What is an adverb ?

154. An adverb is a word that describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb ; as, “ He reads *well* : ” “ It is *extremely* cold ; ” “ You run *very* *swiftly* .

Are not adverbs sometimes compared like adjectives ?

155. Yes ; as, *Far, farther, farthest ; Soon, sooner, soonest ; Wisely, more wisely, most wisely* &c.

*writing ; He is a swimming**, &c. but *He is writing ; He is swimming*, &c. The only verbs after which it may be used seem to be these five ; namely, *to go, to come, to fall, to set, to run* ; as, *To go a hunting, to come a begging, to fall a crying, to set a going, to run a gadding* : to which we may add the peculiar phrases, *To burst out a laughing*, and *To burst out a crying* : these seem to be the boundaries of this prepositive *a*, and such boundaries as cannot be extended without the grossest vulgarity.

But when the participle of the present tense begins with a vowel, and the *a*, as in the case of the Article, would occasion an hiatus, then it should seem proper to restore the original preposition *on* ; as, *It has set my teeth on aching ; She is gone on airing ; He is gone on angling ; She is gone on earing* (gathering up the ears of corn) ; *To set on itching ; To fall on ogling*, &c. These phrases are indeed uncouth, and are not recommended ; but I am not of opinion that all such phrases should be excluded from the language. A free pen will occasionally find a use for every one of them, especially in poetry ; and if we can but reduce them to grammatical construction, and define their just limits, we strengthen and enrich the language by preserving them. There is a peculiar force in idiomatic phrases, which is always weakened by altering them to such as are more general : thus if instead of saying, *Her tongue was set a going*, we say, *Her tongue was put in motion*, we lose all the force and poignancy of the expression.

* By faith, Jacob, when he was a dying, blessed both the sons of Joseph.—*Hebrews*, xi. v. 21.

May not an adverb be expressed by some other parts of speech?

156. Yes; all adverbs may be resolved into a preposition and a substantive; as, *far*, “at a distance;” *soon*, “in a rapid manner;” *wisely*, “in a wise manner, &c.

Are not adverbs sometimes used as conjunctions?

157. Yes; adverbs are sometimes of the nature of conjunctions, and are frequently used as such; as, “I wrote it *as well as* I could:” where the first *as* is a pure adverb, and the second an adverbial conjunction.

How many kinds of adverbs are there?

158. From the definition of an adverb which has been given, it is evident that there must be as many adverbs or adverbial phrases as there are modes of describing verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs: it therefore seems useless to enumerate so many of them as we see most of our grammarians have done. It may be sufficient to observe, that the same word may be a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb, according to its signification in the sentence: thus, “The *first* man who came in was your father:” here the word *first* is an adjective, as it describes the substantive *man*. “Of all the company your father came in *first*:” here the word *first* is an adverb, as it describes the verb *came in*. “*Much* may be said on both sides:” here *much* means the great quantity of reasoning, talking, or saying, that may be used on both sides; and therefore *much* must be considered as a substantive.

Are there not several phrases equivalent to an adverb?

159. Yes; besides such adverbs as consist of one word only, there are several phrases which do the office of an adverb, and are therefore called adverbial phrases; as, “He acted in the best way pos-

“sible.” Here, *in the best way possible*, as it describes the verb *acted*, may be called an adverbial phrase.

PREPOSITION.

What is a preposition?

160. Prepositions are words or particles, placed before nouns or personal pronouns, to show the relation they have to other words: and it is their being generally placed before these words that gives them their name.

What is the most distinguishing characteristic of prepositions?

161. Prepositions may be called the *circumstances* of nouns; for wherever there is a preposition, there is always some noun or personal pronoun to which it relates, except when placed before verbs in the infinitive mood. As adjectives, therefore, express the qualities of substantives; and adverbs express the qualities of verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; so prepositions express the *circumstances* of nouns or pronouns; as, “He went *to* London;” “I came *from* him,” &c.

How may we know a preposition from an adverb or a conjunction?

162. By placing the word before a personal pronoun in the oblique case: if it make sense with the pronoun, it is a preposition; if not, it is an adverb or a conjunction: for example; the word *from* coalesces or makes sense with *him*, *them*, *it*, &c. as, *from him*, *from them*, &c. The word *far*, which is an adverb, will not coalesce or make sense with *him*, *her*, &c. In the same manner, the word *if* will not coalesce or make sense with these oblique cases; and as it does not describe any verb, it cannot be an adverb, and therefore *if* must be a conjunction.

How many prepositions are there?

163. Their number is not exactly settled. Lindley Murray says, the principal prepositions are thirty; Mr. Knowles of Liverpool, thirty-six; Ward of Beverly reckons forty-six; and the Rev. Mr. Shaw of Rochdale, fifty-three. This being the most numerous list, I shall copy it:

above,	below,	into,	till,
about,	beneath,	instead of,	to,
according to,	beside,	near,	toward,
afore,	besides,	nigh,	towards,
after,	between,	of,	under,
against,	betwixt,	off,	underneath,
among,	beyond,	on,	until,
amongst,	by,	over,	unto,
amidst,	concerning,	out of,	up,
around,	down,	since,	upon,
at,	for,	through,	with,
because of,	from,	thorough,	within,
before,	in,	throughout,	without.
behind,			

Are not prepositions sometimes used as adverbs?

164. Yes; but it is by ellipsis, a substantive or pronoun being always understood; as, "He went *before*," and his servant "followed *after*:" that is, "He went *before* his servant, and his servant "followed *after* him."

Are not prepositions sometimes used as conjunctions?

165. Yes; *besides*, when it comes before a substantive or a pronoun, and governs it, is a preposition; as, "There were many more in company *besides* them;" but when it only begins a sentence or a member of a sentence, and is not followed by a substantive or a pronoun, but merely shows connexion with something that goes before; it is then a conjunction; as,

"*Besides*; you know not while you here attend,

"Th' unworthy fate of your unhappy friend."—*Dryden*.

But in this use of the word we may plainly perceive that it is a preposition, with the word or words it governs understood; *besides* implying *besides* the things which have been remarked: and thus it has the nature of a conjunction. But when this word implies no succeeding substantive or pronoun, it is an adverb; as, "Outlaws and robbers who break faith with all the world *besides*, must keep faith among themselves." *Locke*.—Lindley Murray has judiciously observed, that the prepositions *after*, *before*, *above*, *beneath*, and several others, sometimes appear to be adverbs, and may be so considered; as, "They had their reward soon *after*;" "He died not long *before*;" "He dwells *above*:" but if the nouns *time* and *place* be added, they will lose their adverbial form; as, "He died not long *before* that time," &c.

CONJUNCTIONS.

What are Conjunctions?

166. Conjunctions are words that join words, sentences, or members of sentences, together, in such a manner as to show their connexion with, or dependence upon, one another; as, "*I and you* write," &c.; "*but he plays, though he ought* also to be writing."

How many conjunctions are there?

167. These, like the prepositions, are variously enumerated by various grammarians. Lindley Murray reckons twenty; Ward of Beverly, thirty-eight; Knowles of Liverpool, forty-three; Shaw of Rochdale, thirty-four. I shall give the largest list, that the reader may see them all:

albeit,	as,	either,	lest,
again,	because,	except,	likewise,
also,	but,	for,	moreover,
although,	else,	however,	neither,
and,	eke,	if,	nor,

or,	save,	than,	wherefore,
otherwise,	saving,	that,	whether,
still,	seeing,	thereupon,	whereupon,
since,	though,	unless,	yet.
so,	therefore,	without,	

Are these words always used as conjunctions ?

168. No : some of them are sometimes used as adverbs, and sometimes as prepositions.

When is a conjunction used as an adverb ?

169. When *now* and *then* mean time only ; as, " The hour is *now* come ; " " He *then* set off for London ; " these words are adverbs : when they mean no particular time ; as, " Then cried they all again, saying, Not this man, but Barabbas ; " *now* Barabbas was a robber ; " " If all this be so, *then* man has a natural freedom " (*Locke*) ; here these words express an inference that forms a connexion between one part of the sentence and the other, and may be properly called conjunctions.

When is a conjunction used as a preposition ?

170. When *for* means the cause or end for which any thing is done ; as, " The Sabbath was made *for* man, not man *for* the Sabbath," it is a preposition ; but when it means the reason of something advanced before ; as—

" Old husbandmen I at Sabinum know,

" Who for another year dig, plow, and sow ;

" For never any man was yet so old,

" But hop'd his life one winter more would hold."

Denham.

For, in this sense, is a conjunction.

INTERJECTION.

What are Interjections ?

171. Interjections are words that express some passion or emotion of the mind ; as, *alas ! oh ! hush !* They are called interjections, because they are thrown in between the parts of a sentence with-

out affecting the construction of it : they are a kind of natural effusion of sound to express the emotions of the speaker.

Is not the interjection *Oh* sometimes confounded with *O*, the sign of the vocative case ?

172. Yes ; before a noun or pronoun, this exclamation ought always to be considered as the sign of the vocative case, and to be written singly *O* ; as, “ *O* King ! live for ever ! ” but when it is detached from the word, and implies an emotion of mind, it ought to be written *Oh* ! as,

“ *Oh* ! what a wretch and peasant slave am I ! ”

This distinction, though a very obvious one, is scarcely ever attended to.

S Y N T A X.

WHAT is Syntax?

173. Syntax or Construction is that connexion or arrangement of words which shows their dependence on each other for sense.

Of what does syntax consist?

174. Of concord and government.

What is concord?

175. Concord is the agreement of one word with another, in person, case, gender, and number.

What is government?

176. Government is that power which one part of speech has over another, so as to compel it to be in some number, case, mood, or tense.

How many concords are there?

177. Four:

The first between the nominative case and the verb;

The second between the substantive and the adjective;

The third between the antecedent and the relative;

The fourth between two substantives.

What is the first concord?

178. The first concord shows the agreement between the nominative case and the verb in number and person: as, *I write, thou art taught, the ship sails, we sing*; where *I*, a pronoun of the first person and singular number, requires *write*, which is the verb of the same number and person. *Thou*,

which is the second person and singular number, agrees with the same number and person of the verb, *art taught* ; the *ship*, of the singular number and third person, requires the verb *sails* to be of same number and person ; and *we*, the first person plural, agrees with the first person and plural number of the verb *sing*. This may be called the first rule of the concord between the nominative case and the verb.

Must every nominative be either a personal pronoun or a substantive ?

179. No ; a relative pronoun may be a nominative to a verb ; as, “ The master *who* taught me “ was a learned man ; ” “ The horse *which* won “ the race was my horse ; ” “ The book *that* was “ sent me I have read ; ” where *who*, *which*, and *that*, are equally nominatives to the succeeding verbs.

Are there no other nominatives besides nouns and pronouns ?

180. Yes ; sometimes the infinitive mood, or the clause or clauses of a sentence, may be the nominative to the verb ; as, “ *To play* is pleasant, but to “ *study* is more prudent ; ” “ *To rise* early, and go “ to bed betimes, is good for the health.”

Must every nominative case have a verb with which it agrees in number and person ?

181. Every one, except when it is followed by a participle of the present tense, either expressed or understood ; as, “ *The king coming*, the enemy “ fled : ” “ *The sermon finished*, the congregation “ dispersed ; ” that is, the sermon *being finished*, &c. This is called the case absolute, and is similar to the ablative absolute in Latin.

Is the nominative case always expressed ?

182. No ; it is frequently understood, particularly in the imperative mood ; as, “ Read thy

“book;” that is, “Read *thou* thy book:”
 “Attend to my directions;” that is, “Attend
 “*thou* to my directions:” where *thou*, understood,
 is the nominative case to *read* and *attend*.

What is the second rule of this concord?

183. Nouns singular, connected by conjunctions copulative, either expressed or understood, require a verb in the plural number; as, “Peter, James, and John, *were* chosen apostles:” or omitting the conjunction; “Confucius, Socrates, Plato, *were* famous philosophers; yet they could not reform the world.” But *or* and *nor* being disjunctive conjunctions, do not unite singulars into a plural, but preserve each singular distinct, and so require a verb singular: as, “Town *or* country *is* equally agreeable to me.”

Do all nouns in the singular number require a verb singular?

184. No; nouns of multitude or collective nouns, as they are called, when they convey rather a plural than a singular idea, may have a verb plural; as, “The *people were* much dissatisfied;” “The *congregation were* highly pleased.”

THE SECOND CONCORD.

What are the rules of the Second Concord?

185. Every adjective must agree with its substantive in case, gender, and number; that is, whatever case, gender, or number the substantive is in, the same case, gender, and number must the adjective be in.

Explain this rule by examples.

186. As English adjectives have no terminations to distinguish their cases, genders, or numbers, as in other languages, they must necessarily agree with their substantives in these respects (see page 46). The same may be observed of the pronominal ad-

jectives, which do not alter their termination with the case, gender, or number of the substantives with which they are joined; as, *My pen, my pens; of my pen, of my pens; my father, my mother; of my father and mother, &c.*

Is there no exception to this rule?

187. Yes; the demonstrative pronouns, *this* and *that*, which are real adjectives, make *these* and *those* in the plural, without any regard to case or gender; as, *This man, these men; that man, those men; this woman, these women? of this man, of these men, &c.* (87).

Do possessive pronouns ever vary their form?

188. Yes; when the substantive is previously expressed or understood, *my* becomes *mine, her, hers, &c.*; as, "This book is *mine*, or this is *mine*," where the possessive becomes a real substantive (see page 22). *Mine arm* and *mine eyes*, which were always ungrammatical, and admitted only for the sake of sound, are now confined to poetry and solemn language.

THE THIRD CONCORD.

What are the rules of the Third Concord?

189. As relatives, like adjectives, are of both numbers and of all genders, they must necessarily agree with their antecedents in both these respects; as, "*I who* was here; *thou who* wast here; *we who* were here; *the man who* was here; *the women who* were here," &c. But as *who* corresponds to rational persons only, it cannot be in concord with a neuter noun or pronoun. *Which*, when used interrogatively, as, "*Which* is the *man* you mean?" or, coming immediately before a noun, as, "He was generous to a *man*; *which* man proved ungrateful:" here *which* is applied to rational persons;

but in other cases, it is applied to irrational persons or things only. *That* corresponds equally with rational persons, irrational persons or things; as, "The *man that* came; the *horses that* came; the *books that* came," &c. (82).

THE FOURTH CONCORD.

What is the first rule of the Fourth Concord?

190. When two substantives, signifying the same person or thing, come together, they are said to be in apposition, and are in the same number, person, gender, and case; as, "*Cato the Censor*, "and *Seneca the Philosopher*, were the ornaments "of the age in which they lived;" where we may observe, that the *censor* and the *philosopher* are only added to *Cato* and *Seneca* in order the more exactly to distinguish them, and are therefore very properly considered as being in the same case.

GOVERNMENT.

What is the first rule for the Government of Words?

191. When two substantives, signifying different things, come together, one of them governs the other in the genitive case; as, "*Cato the Censor* "lived before *Cato of Utica*;" where we may observe, that *Cato* and *Censor*, signifying the same thing, are in the same case; but that *Cato* and *Utica*, signifying different things, are in different cases; that is, in order to show their connexion by belonging to each other without a sameness, one of them is in the genitive case.

Is not the word that governs another in the genitive case sometimes omitted?

192. Yes; as, *St. Paul's, St. James's*; that is, *St. Paul's Church, St. James's Palace*. This omission is frequent, both in conversation and writing: thus, "I called at the *bookseller's*; I have been at "my *father's*;" that is, "I called at the *bookseller's shop*; I have been at my *father's house*," &c.

Is the sign of the genitive case always inserted?

193. No; when several substantives in the genitive case follow in a series, the sign of the case is generally subjoined to the last; as, "The Jews are Abraham, Isaac, and *Jacob's* posterity;" and if the genitive is formed by *of*, this preposition is prefixed to the first; as, "The Jews are the posterity *of* Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob."

What is the second rule for the government of words?

194. Substantives or verbs, implying quantity, take the adjective or adverb *enough* after them; as, "We have bread *enough* for the family;" "We have laboured *enough* for this day;" but when substantives, implying number, take this word after them, it is pluralised into *enow*; as, "We have pens *enow*, though not ink *enough*."

What is the government of relatives?

195. We have seen under the first concord how the relative, as a nominative case, may govern a verb (179); as, "The master *who* taught me was a learned man;" where *who* governs the verb *taught*; but if a nominative case come between the relative and the verb, then the relative is either governed by the verb; as, "The man *whom* I saw was your friend;" where the relative is in the same case as the personal pronoun would be in if it were substituted for it; as, "I saw *him* who is your friend;" or the relative is governed by a preposition in the same clause; as, "The man

“*whom* I spoke of;” or, “The man of *whom* I spoke was your friend;” or it is governed by some substantive which forms the nominative to the verb; as, “The man *whose* fame is lost is miserable,” where we see the relative *whose* is in the genitive case, governed by the noun *fame*; as, “The man, the *fame* of *whom* is lost, is miserable.”

Is the government of the relative easily apprehended?

196. No; it is one of the most difficult parts of grammar, and that in which our best writers are most apt to err; as, “Those *who* he thought true to his party.” (*Clarendon*.) “Laying the suspicion upon somebody, I know not *who*, in the country.” (*Swift's Apology prefixed to his Tale of a Tub*.) “In these places it ought to be *whom*.” *Lowth*. In these examples, as in every other of a like nature, we may detect the impropriety by finding no finite verb for the nominative *who*, to govern. In the first example the relative *who* is governed by *thought*, as, he thought *them* true to his party; so it ought to be, “Those *whom* he thought true to his party:” and in the second example the relative *who* is governed by the preposition *upon*, understood; as, “Laying the suspicion upon *them*, I know not *upon whom*, in the country.” Thus in every case, where there is a nominative and no finite verb for it to govern, there must be an error in grammar.

In what phrases is it most difficult to discover the case of the relative?

197. In interrogative phrases.

What is the best method of discovering the case of the relative in these phrases?

198. Turning them into declarative ones, and substituting the antecedent for the relative, as the relative must be in the same case as the antecedent

*

Best method of solving all grammatical difficulties

would be in if substituted for it: thus the question, "Whom do men say that I am?" if turned into a declarative sentence, with the antecedent, would be, "Men do say that I am he:" consequently the relative must be in the same case as *he*; that is, the nominative *who*, and not *whom*. In the same manner in the phrase, "Who should I see but my old friend?" if I turn it into a declarative one, as, "I should see him, my old friend," I perceive the relative is governed by the verb; as *him* and *my friend* are in the accusative or objective case, and that it ought to be in the same case; that is, *whom*, and not *who*.

What is the government of verbs?

199. How verbs are governed by substantives, has been explained under the first concord; how verbs govern substantives, remains next to be considered: and first it may be observed, that active verbs alone govern substantives or personal pronouns; that is, they oblige them to be in a certain case; as, "I struck *him*, and he struck *me*;" the verb to strike being an active verb, the pronoun on which the action falls must be in what may be called the accusative or objective case, as, "I struck *he*, he struck *I*," would be grossly ungrammatical. Here our language gives us a different termination of the pronoun to express the agent and the object: but in substantives this difference is expressed by the position of the words; as, "The *hammer* strikes the *anvil*; the *anvil* strikes the *hammer*:" here we only know which is the agent and which the object; or, in grammatical language, which is the nominative and which the accusative case, by the former coming before the verb, and the latter following it.

Do only active or transitive verbs govern substantives or pronouns?

200. Certainly ; for though neuter verbs are sometimes followed by a noun which they seem to govern, this noun is always governed by a preposition understood ; as, "To walk a mile, to run a "race;" that is, "To walk to the distance of a "mile;" to run for the space of a race," &c.

Are the nouns that follow neuter verbs always governed by a preposition either expressed or understood?

201. No ; those which signify existence, not acting or effecting any thing, and only affirming one thing to be another, have the same case after them that goes before them ; as, "I am he ;" "You took me to be him." As the neuter verb *to be* only signifies existence, *am* has the nominative *he* after it, as well as the nominative *I* before it ; and as the same verb in the infinitive mood *to be* has the pronoun *me* in the accusative case before it, so it has *him*, the accusative case of *he*, after it. Thus the common rule, that "The verb *to be*, except in the infinitive mood, has a nominative case after it as well as before it," does not comprehend the whole state of the verb ; for whether in the infinitive mood, or any other, it has the same case after it as before it. See this well exemplified in L. Murray's Grammar, page 150.

Are not the same verbs sometimes active and sometimes neuter ?

202. Very often : thus when I say, "A boy "soon becomes a man ;" "When the dress was "altered *he* became *she* ;" the verb *become* only signifies progressive existence, and is therefore a neuter verb, requiring the nominative case *man* and *she* after it, as well as the nominative *boy* and *he* before it ; but when I say, "That dress "becomes her," the verb *become* is an active verb, meaning to *render pleasing* ; and therefore it

governs the pronoun *her* in the accusative or objective case.

How may we know when a verb is active and when neuter?

203. By placing a personal pronoun after it in the oblique case. If they coalesce or form sense, the verb is active; if they do not, the verb is neuter: thus to *stop* will unite with *him* or *her*; as, "I *stop* him or her," which shows the verb is active; but to *stand* will not admit of *him* or *her* after it, as I cannot say, "I stand *him* or *her*;" and therefore the verb *stand* is neuter.

Do not verbs govern other verbs?

204. Yes; when two verbs come together, the latter is in the infinitive mood; as, "I desire to learn;" "He is willing to teach."

Is there no exception to this rule?

205. Not any. Such verbs, indeed, as come after the following verbs, *see, hear, feel, bid, make, need*, the irregular neuter verb *dare* (signifying to venture), and *have* and *let*, used as principal verbs; as, "I saw my brother *fall*;" "I heard him *speak*;" "He felt the pain *abate*;" "I bad him *rise*;" "I would have him *take* care;" "He need not *walk* fast;" "He dares not *come*;" "I let him *go*;" "All these verbs require verbs after them in the infinitive mood, but without the sign *to* before it. When *dare* signifies to defy or challenge, it is an active regular verb; and requires the sign *to* before an infinitive dependent verb; as, "I *dared* him *to* fight with me."

How far does this irregularity extend?

206. Only to active or neuter verbs: for all these verbs, when made passive, require the preposition *to* before the following verb; as, "He was seen *to* go;" "He was permitted to be heard *to* speak

“in his own defence;” “He was bid *to be* upon his guard,” &c.

Is not a verb in the infinitive mood sometimes placed alone without being followed by another verb?

207. Yes; but in this case there is a considerable ellipsis to be supplied; as, “*To tell* you the truth, I never inquired.” These two members, as they here stand, are grammatically independent on each other: to connect them, therefore, we must supply some such words as *that I may*; as, “That I may tell you the truth, I never inquired.” The verb in this situation may be called the verb absolute.

THE GOVERNMENT OF PARTICIPLES.

What is the government of Participles?

208. As participles partake of the nature of substantives, adjectives, or verbs (see page 61), their government is like each of these parts of speech respectively. The active participle, in the phrase, “a good *painting*,” is a substantive; in “a *painting* brush,” it is an adjective; and in “I was *painting* him,” it is a verb. The passive participle is either an adjective or a verb: in “the *painted* chamber,” it is an adjective; in “I have *painted* the chamber,” it is a verb. When the letter *a* is to be used before the present participle, as, “He is gone *a* hunting,” &c. see page 62 in the note.

Does not the present participle sometimes perform the office of a substantive and a verb at the same time?

209. It was by some grammarians supposed to do so; but later writers on grammar have exploded that opinion: they say, when it has the article *a* or *the* before it, it ought to be considered as a substan-

tive, and that the substantive that follows it ought to be in the genitive case, and take *of* before it; as, “The middle station of life seems to be *the* most advantageously situated for the gaining *of* wisdom;” but when the participle is preceded by a preposition only, it must be considered as a verb, and govern the succeeding noun or pronoun in the accusative or objective case: an instance of both these rules we find quoted from Mr. Addison by Dr. Lowth. “Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon *the* supplying *of* our wants, and riches upon *enjoying* our *superfluities*.” Spect. No. 464. Where we may observe, that it might with equal propriety have been, “Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon *supplying* our *wants*, and riches upon *the* enjoying *of* our *superfluities*;” but that neither of these phrases would have been right if the article *the* without the preposition *of*, or the preposition *of* without the article *the*, had been used, in the manner following: “Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon *the* supplying our wants, and riches upon *enjoying* of our *superfluities*.”

Is it only the article *a* or *the* before it which shows that the participle is a substantive?

210. No; any substantive in the genitive case, or any pronoun possessive equivalent to such a substantive, does the same; as, “Much will depend on the rule’s being observed. His neglecting the rule was the cause of his error:” where we may observe, that the genitive *of rule* is governed by the real substantive included in the compound participle *being observed*; and the possessive *his* or *of him* is governed by the participle and its regimen, *neglecting the rule*. This will be more easily conceived if we consider the participle as the actual state of any thing: thus, *being in love*, is a *state* of loving;

and if we add the word *state* to the participle in the foregoing phrases, we shall find the genitive of the substantive *rule* and the pronoun *his* or *of him* are governed by the state that follows them; as, "Much will depend on the rule's observed state," or "on the observed state of the rule;" "His state of neglecting the rule," or "the state of neglecting the rule of him, was the cause of his error." This solution of these phrases is undoubtedly uncouth, and can never be used; but it sufficiently shows, that, according to the laws of concordance, the substantive involved in the participle and its regimen governs the preceding substantive in the genitive case.

Is the substantive or pronoun preceding the participle always governed by it in the genitive case?

211. No; when the substantive is put absolutely, and does not govern a following verb, it remains independent on the participle, and is called the *nominative absolute*; as, (181), "The painter being entirely confined to that part of time he has chosen, the picture comprises but very few incidents." Here *the painter* governs no verb, as the verb *comprises*, which follows, is governed by *picture*; but when the substantive preceding the participle governs a subsequent verb, it then loses its absoluteness, and is like every other nominative, as, "The painter being entirely confined to that part of time which he has chosen, cannot exhibit various stages of the same action," where we see *the painter* governs the verb *can*. But in the sentence, "The painter's being entirely confined to that part of time which he has chosen, deprives him of the power of exhibiting various stages of the same action:" in this sentence, if we inquire the nominative case by asking what deprives the painter of the power of exhibiting various stages of

the same action, we shall find it to be the confinement of the painter to that part of time which he has chosen; and this *state* of things belonging to the painter governs it in the genitive case, and forms the compound nominative to the verb *describes*.

Is the substantive which is placed before the participle always to be considered as in the case absolute?

212. No; this substantive may become the nominative to a following verb, and then it loses its absoluteness, as it does in any other situation: thus, "The candidate being chosen, the people carried him in triumph." Here *the candidate* is in the absolute case, as there is no grammatical connexion between this word and any other in the second member of the sentence; but in the following sentence, "The candidate being chosen, was carried in triumph by the people;" here *the candidate* is the nominative to the verb *was carried*, and therefore it is not in the case absolute. Many writers, however, apprehending the nominative in this latter sentence, as well as in the former, to be put absolutely, often insert another nominative to the verb, and say, "The candidate being chosen, *he* was carried in triumph by the people." The error of this last sentence is, that there are two nominatives used where one would have been sufficient, and consequently that *he* is redundant.

Is there not a greater error than this committed in the construction of the substantive and participle?

213. Yes; in such phrases as the following: "The candidate being chosen was owing to the influence of party." Here the governing part of the nominative agreeing with the verb *was owing*, and considered as being the effect of party, may be

deemed a substantive governing *candidate* in the genitive case; as, "The candidate's being chosen" was owing to the influence of party;" which may be resolved into the other genitive; as, "The being chosen of the candidate was owing to the influence of party." This phrase is essentially different from that where the nominative before the participle governs a succeeding verb; as, "The candidate being chosen, was carried in triumph by the people." Here *the candidate* is the governing part of the nominative; *being chosen* is an adverbial circumstance only, and concurring with the nominative to govern the verb *was carried*; but if we wished to express being chosen as the cause of a subsequent effect, it becomes a substantive governing *candidate* in the genitive case; as, "The candidate's being chosen by so small a majority was what most irritated the opposite party;" where we find *being chosen by so small a majority* is the ruling part of the nominative; and the whole compound nominative might be truly, though uncouthly, expressed, by saying, "The being chosen by so small a majority of the candidate, was what most irritated the opposite party." By all which we see, that if the participle and the words following it are either a cause or an effect, the preceding substantive or pronoun is in the genitive case: but if the participle is only a circumstance of this noun or pronoun, each of them may be considered as a nominative case governing some subsequent verb. As this error in construing the substantive, though real, is not very obvious; and as it seems to argue a want of knowing the principles of Syntax, it appeared to demand a more particular consideration than has hitherto been given to it by the generality of grammarians; especially as it is not unfrequently met with in

writers much above the vulgar*.—See Dr. Crombie's Etymology and Syntax, page 213.

THE GOVERNMENT OF ADVERBS.

What is the Government of Adverbs?

214. Adverbs have neither concord nor government.

Is it not of some importance how adverbs are placed in a sentence?

215. Yes; but their position is so various, and frequently of so little consequence, that I wish to refer my readers for instances to other grammars. There are two words, *only* and *alone*, which very materially influence the sense of a sentence according to their place in it: thus it is commonly said, "I only spoke three words," when the intention of the speaker manifestly requires, "I spoke only three words." The word *alone* as manifestly alters the sense according to its position in the following passage of Pope:

"Nor God *alone* in the still calm we find;

"He mounts the storm, and walks upon the wind."

Essay on Man.

According to the pause we make before or after *alone* in the first line, the sense may be either, "we not only find God in the still calm, but something else;" or, "we do not find God in the

* "We shall therefore content ourselves with congratulating the nation upon the hollow and perfidious neutrality of *Spain* being at length brought to a determination." (Morn. Post, Jan. 26, 1805.) It ought to have been, Upon the neutrality of *Spain's* being at length brought, &c.

"One congregation (you have said) you can name where great offence was given by a *person* kneeling at her prayers." (Towgood's Dissent, &c. page 155.) It ought to have been, by a *person's* kneeling at her prayers.

“still calm only, but in the storm likewise,” which is the true sense of the poet. What is decided by the pause in this passage, must in prose have been decided by the position of the word *alone*; as, “We do not find God in the still calm *alone*, but “in the storm.”

Is not the adverb *no* sometimes used improperly instead of *not*?

216. Yes; as in the phrases, “I cannot tell whether he will write or *no*,” “I am not sure whether he will go or *no*,” where we find *no* used instead of *not*, as, “I cannot tell whether he will write or not;” that is, whether he will write or not write, &c.

Is not the adverb *not* sometimes used improperly with another negative?

217. Yes; as, “I do not choose to eat none;” which, as two negatives make an affirmative, may imply that I *do* choose to eat *some*.

CONSTRUCTION OF PREPOSITIONS.

What is the Construction of Prepositions?

218. Prepositions govern nouns or pronouns in the oblique cases; as, “I never dreamt *of* war;” “He went *to* London;” “He came *from* France;” “I bought it *of* him, and he sold it afterwards *to* me, but it was taken *from* us.”

Is not the preposition sometimes separated from the noun it governs?

219. Very frequently; as, “Horace is an author *whom* I am much delighted *with*,” instead of, “Horace is an author *with whom* I am much delighted.” “This is an idiom,” says Dr. Lowth, “which our language is strongly inclined to: it prevails in common conversation, and suits very well with the familiar style in writing; but the placing of the preposition before the relative is

“ more graceful, as well as more perspicuous ; and
 “ agrees much better with the solemn and elevated
 “ style.”—Int. to E. Grammar, p. 164.

Are not prepositions frequently understood before pronouns and substantives ?

220. Yes ; the prepositions *to* and *for* are often understood, chiefly before the pronoun ; as, “ Give me the book ; ” “ Get me some paper,” that is, “ Give *to* me the book,” or, “ Give the book *to* me ; ” “ Get *for* me some paper,” or, “ Get some paper *for* me ; ” and almost always after the adjective *like* ; as, “ He is *like* his father ; ” “ She is *like* her mother ; ” that is, “ He is like *to* his father,” &c.

Has not the preposition sometimes the nature of an adverb ?

221. Yes ; when it is subjoined to a verb so as to form a part of it ; as, “ *To rise up* against oppression ; ” where we see *up* describes the verb *to rise* like an adverb ; and this compound verb adopts the preposition *against* to govern the noun *oppression*. In the same manner, when it comes after a verb, and is not followed by any word which it governs, it is an adverb ; as, “ I went *up* to him ; but when it governs the following word it is a preposition ; as, “ I went *up stairs* to tell him,” &c. where the word *up* governs the noun *stairs*, and is therefore a preposition.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

What is the Construction of Conjunctions ?

222. Conjunctions do not, like prepositions, govern cases ; nor, in the opinion of our acutest grammarians, do they govern the subjunctive mood, unless the conjunctions prefixed to the verbs imply contingency, doubt, or uncertainty : when they imply no doubt, the indicative mood is used ; as

(speaking of our blessed Saviour), “Though he *was* rich, yet for your sakes he became poor.” 2 Cor. viii. 9. When the conjunction implies doubt, the subjunctive or conditional mood is used; as, “Though he *fall*; he shall not be utterly cast down.” Psalm xxxvii. 24. In the same manner, if I say, “If I *were* a king. (meaning, *as I am not*); yet I would not be proud:” here *if* requires *were*, the subjunctive mood of the verb *to be*. On the other hand, if I say, “Though he *was* a king (*as he really was*); yet was he humble and humane:” here the conjunction *though* implying no doubt, the indicative mood is the proper form of the verb.

Are there not some conjunctions that necessarily require the subjunctive mood?

223. Yes; the conjunctions *that* and *lest* following a command always govern the subjunctive mood; as, “The first of God’s *commandments* is, “that thou *love* him above all his creatures;” “Let him who stands take heed *lest* he *fall*:” and sometimes after a solemn entreaty; as, “I *beseech* thee *that* thou *excuse* me;” “It is ordered, *that* no member *come* into the society in boots.”

Do not some conjunctions, used in the beginning of a sentence, require others in a subsequent member to correspond to them?

224. Yes; as, *Although*—*yet*, or *nevertheless*; as, “*Although* he died as man, *yet*, or *nevertheless*, “did he rise again immortal.” *Whether*—*or*; as, “*Whether* therefore we live *or* die, we are the Lord’s.” Rom. 14. *Either*—*or*; “*Either* nature’s Author suffers, *or* the universal fabric is dissolving.” *Neither*—*nor*; “*Neither* life *nor* death can separate us from God.” *Nor*—*nor*;

“Nor laws divine *nor* human stopp’d my way.”
As—as; “His hair was *as* white *as* snow.” Rev.
 c. i. 14. *As—so*; “*As* we live *so* we die.” *So—as*;
 “Live *so as* to be ready to die.” *So—that*; “Let
 “us live *so, that* death may never surprise us.”

Are not some conjunctions used as prepositions?

225. Yes; the word *than*, called a comparative conjunction, is a remarkable instance of this double character; its principal use is certainly as a conjunction; but it would be in vain to deny its frequent use as a preposition; thus, a man who has served several masters may say of the last, “I have “served more masters *than him*.” A hungry man may say, “I can eat more *than that loaf*,” where *than* governs *that loaf* in the oblique case, as it does in the following sentence, the pronoun *us*: “The “companions of Ulysses said among themselves, “This Polypheme will eat more *than us*.” This double use of the word *than* will sometimes produce an obscurity which will require us to supply the words understood in order to determine the sense: thus, “He writes better *than I*” (that is, *than I write*); “He sees farther *than I*” means *than I see*); “He sees farther *than me*,” implies that he sees *beyond me*; “He loves them “more *than we*” (that is, *than we love them*); “He loves them more *than us*” (that is, *than he loves us*); “He is beloved by them more *than we*” (that is, *than we are beloved by them*); “He is “more beloved by them *than us*” (that is, *than he is beloved by us*).

Is there not a remarkably improper usage of the word *than*?

226. Yes; where it is made use of as a preposition to govern the relative *who*, when the tense

necessarily requires it to be a conjunction; as, "Alfred, *than whom* a greater king never reigned;" "Beelzebub, *than whom*, Satan except, none higher sat;" where we find, if we supply the antecedent pronoun, it will be in the nominative case; "Alfred, a greater king than *he* was, never reigned;" "Beelzebub, except Satan, none higher sat than *he* did."

Is not the word *but* sometimes used as a preposition?

227. It should seem so by the phrases we frequently hear like the following: "None were left in the room *but him*;" "All the guests came at the appointed time *but him*." Here, if we consider *but* as a conjunction, we ought to use *he* instead of *him*; but this will require the assistance of an ellipsis, (*scarcely ever occurring in any other part of grammar*); as, "None were left in the room, but *he* was left in the room;" "All the guests came at the appointed time, but *he* came not at the appointed time." (This ellipsis is too forced and circuitous to be adopted without necessity; and the best way to avoid it will be to consider *but* like *than*, used sometimes as a preposition, and sometimes as a conjunction. *But*, in the foregoing instances, is equivalent to *except* or *excepting*: if the first, the word is in the imperative mood, and governs the pronoun *him*; as, "None were left in the room *except* thou him:" if the second, it must be construed absolutely; as, "None were left in the room, *thou excepting him*." This seems to be the most natural resolution of the phrase; and it may be added, that if we are in doubt whether a word is an adverb, a preposition, or a conjunction (for there is no doubt about the other parts of speech), the best way to resolve this doubt will be to translate the word, as it were, into

another as synonymous as possible ; and if we know to what part of speech one of these words belongs, we may be sure the other is the same : thus in the following passage from Shakspeare—

“ Heav’n doth with us as we with torches do,
 “ Not light them for themselves ; *for* if our virtues
 “ Did not go forth of us, ’t were all alike
 “ As if we had them not.” *Measure for Measure.*

Here, in the place of the word *for*, may be substituted the word *because*, which is clearly a conjunction, and therefore determines the word *for* to be one also.

Are not the disjunctive conjunction *or* and the negative *nor* frequently confounded?

228. Yes ; because two negatives, when they relate to the same subject, make an affirmative ; as,

“ *Nor* did they *not* perceive the evil plight
 “ In which they were.”

That is, they did perceive it :—this has induced some grammarians to avoid *nor*, and substitute *or* when the subjects of negation are different ; as, “Neither capable of pleasing the understanding *or* the imagination.” (Addison.) Where if *nor* had been used instead of *or*, as the negations fall upon different subjects, no affirmation would have been created, and the conjunction *neither* would have been followed by its natural correlative *nor* ; as *either* is by *or*.

Does not the conjunction copulative couple like cases ?

229. Yes ; as, “The master taught *him* and *me* to write ;” “*He* and *she* were of the same age.”

Is there not a very common ellipsis of the conjunction *that* ?

230. Yes ; too common ; as, “I told you I would go ;” “I desired he would stay ;” for,

"I told you *that* I would go;" "I desired *that* he would stay." This is the most general ellipsis in our language. It is tolerable in conversation and epistolary writing, but should be sparingly indulged in other compositions. The French never use this ellipsis.

INTERJECTIONS.

What is the construction of Interjections?

231. Interjections have no government of cases.

Ah, woe is me! is an elliptical expression for, *Ah, woe is to me!*

ELLIPSIS.

What is Ellipsis?

232. Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words which the construction requires to be supplied, though omitting them adds to the force and elegance of the sentence. There are few sentences that are not in some degree elliptical; nor can syntax be perfectly understood, or parsing perfectly practised, without a particular attention to this figure of grammar.

In what instances is the article omitted?

233. "The bow and arrows were broken;" that is, "The bow and *the* arrows were broken."

In what instance is the substantive omitted?

234. "It is better to receive than to do an injury;" that is, "It is better to receive *an injury* than to do an injury."

In what instance is the adjective omitted?

235. "Much rain and snow fell in March;" that is, "Much rain and *much* snow fell in March."

In what instance is the relative omitted?

236. The book you bought is imperfect ;" that is, " The book *which* you bought is imperfect."

In what instance is the verb omitted ?

237. " He is taller than I ;" that is, " He is taller than I *am*."

In what instance is the participle omitted ?

238. " For only in destroying I find ease

" To my relentless thoughts, and he destroyed,

" _____ all this will soon

" Follow." (*Milton.*) That is, " He *being* destroyed."

" Solomon was of this mind, and I make no doubt but he made as wise and true proverbs as any body has done since : He only excepted who was a much greater and wiser man than Solomon : " that is, " He only *being* excepted."

In what instance is the adverb omitted ?

239. " He speaks and writes well ;" that is, " He speaks *well* and writes *well*."

In what instance is the preposition omitted ?

240. " I gave it your brother and sister ;" that is, " I gave it *to* your brother and *to* your sister."

In what instance is the conjunction omitted ?

241. The conjunction copulative is omitted, where Cæsar, giving an account of his military expedition, says, " I came, I saw, I conquered," instead of saying, " I came, *and* I saw, *and* I conquered." The casual conjunction *that* is omitted in the common phrase, " I fear it comes too much from the heart ;" that is, " I fear *that* it comes too much from the heart." *Spect.* No. 322.

Is not a considerable part of a sentence sometimes omitted ?

242. Yes ; sometimes by substituting the auxiliary verbs ; as, " He minds not his lesson as you do ;" that is, " He minds not his lesson, as you *do* mind your lesson." Sometimes by presuming

the nominative case and its whole regimen to be understood; as, "Nature has given to animals one time to act, and another to rest;" instead of saying, "Nature has given to animals one time to act, and Nature has given to animals another time to rest."

OBSERVATIONS PREPARATORY TO PARSING.

EVERY sentence, or every proposition forming sense, must have a nominative case and a finite verb, either expressed or understood; consequently—

Every nominative case must have a finite verb either expressed or understood. Expressed; as, "I write." Understood; as, "He writes better than I;" that is, than I *do*, or than I *write*; where the verb *do* or *write* is understood.

Every finite verb must have a nominative case, either expressed or understood. Expressed; as, "I read." Understood; as, "Read slowly;" that is, Read thou, or do thou read slowly, where the nominative *thou* is understood.

Every adjective must have a substantive with which it corresponds, either expressed or understood. Expressed; as, "Great men sometimes do little actions." Understood; as, "The virtuous are sometimes oppressed;" that is, the substantive *persons*, understood.

Every substantive or pronoun must either govern or be governed: that is, it must either be in the nominative or in an oblique case.

Every relative must have an antecedent either expressed or understood. Expressed; as, "The

“master who taught me was a learned man,” where *the master* is the antecedent to the relative *who*. Understood; as, “Who sprung from kings, shall know less joy than I;” that is, “*He* who sprung from kings,” &c. where *he* is the antecedent understood.

Every article relates to some substantive either expressed or understood. Expressed: as, “A man, the pen.” Understood; as, “The oftener I read Milton, the better I like him;” means, “The more times I read Milton, with the greater pleasure I like him:” for as an adverb may always be resolved into a preposition and a substantive, the article *the*, which comes before the adverb, belongs to the substantive which is involved in it.

Every preposition governs a personal pronoun, or some substantive, or some word standing for a substantive, in an oblique case, except *to* before a verb in the infinitive mood; as, “By listening to flatterers his mind became corrupted,” where the action of listening, expressed by the participle, is governed by the preposition *by*.

PARSING.

WHAT is Parsing?

Parsing is analysing a sentence into its component parts, and showing their nature, connexion, and mutual dependence on each other.

Rule 1. Every finite verb agrees with its nominative case in number and person.

The boy writes well.

What do you do first?

Find out the finite verb.

Which is that?

Writes.

Is it an active, a passive, or a neuter verb?

Active.

Why?

Because I can place a personal pronoun after it in the accusative or objective case; as, "I write *it*;" or I can change it into a verb passive; as, "*It is written.*"

What mood is it in?

The indicative mood.

Why?

Because the indicative mood simply affirms or declares a thing; as, *I write*; or asks a question, as *Do I write?* (104).

What tense?

The present tense.

Is it regular or irregular?

Irregular.

Why?

Because either its preterimperfect tense or its participle passive does not end in *ed.* (141).

What do you do next?

Find out the nominative case.

How do you do that?

By asking the question who or what; as, "Who writes well?" Answer, "The boy."

What part of speech is *boy*?

A substantive common.

What is a substantive common?

A common name, or a name common to many things. (12).

How do you decline it?

Nom. The boy; Gen. The boy's, with an apostrophe before the *s*, or Of the boy, &c. &c. (38).

How do the nominative and the verb agree?

In number and person. (178).

Parsing.

What number is the nominative ?

Singular.

What person ?

The third.

By what rule ?

All substantives are of the third person, and all other nominatives except *I* and *Thou*. (180.)

Show the agreement between the nominative and the verb in number and person, by conjugating the present tense of the verb *to write*.

I write ; Thou writest ; He, she, or it, writes ; We write ; Ye or you write ; They write.

What part of speech is *well* ?

An adverb.

Why ?

Because it describes the verb *writes*, (154.)

What part of speech is *the* ?

The definite article.

What does the definite article signify ?

It signifies a thing or things in particular. (5.)

The Offender was properly punished.

What do you do first ?

Find out the finite verb.

Which is that ?

Was.

Is *was* an auxiliary or a principal verb ?

An auxiliary verb. (130.)

What verb does it help ?

The verb *punished*.

What verb is the verb *was punished* ?

A passive verb.

Why ?

Because it signifies passion, suffering, or the receiving of an impression. (97.)

How is a passive verb formed ?

By adding the passive participle to some part of the verb *to be*.

What mood is the verb in ?

The indicative mood. (104.)

What tense ?

The preterimperfect tense. (111.)

What is the infinitive mood ?

To be punished.

Is it regular or irregular ?

Regular.

Why ?

Because either its preterimperfect tense or its passive participle ends in *ed*. (141.)

What do you do next ?

Find out the nominative case.

How do you do that ?

By asking the question *who* or *what*.

Ask the question.

Who was punished ?

The offender.

How do the nominative case and the verb agree ?

In number and person. (178.)

What number is the nominative ?

Singular.

What person ?

The third.

By what rule ?

All substantives and all nominatives are of the third person, except *I* and *Thou*.

What number is the verb ?

The singular.

What person ?

The third.

Prove that the nominative case and the verb agree in number and person by conjugating the preterimperfect tense indicative mood of the passive verb *to be punished*.

“ *I was punished, thou wast punished,* ” &c.

What part of speech is *properly* ?

An adverb.

Why ?

Because it describes the verb (154) ; as, “ *How*

“ *was he punished ?* ” Answer, *properly*.

What part of speech is *the* ?

The definite article.

What does the definite article signify ?

It signifies a thing or things in particular. (5.)

He sat in the highest Seat.

What do you do first ?

Find out the finite verb.

Which is that ?

Sat.

Is it an active, a passive, or a neuter verb ?

Neuter.

Why ?

Because I cannot place a personal pronoun after it in the objective case ; as, “ *I sit him, I sit her ;* ” nor can I change it into a verb passive ; as, “ *I am* ”

sat,

What mood ?

The indicative. (104.)

What tense ?

The preterimperfect. (111.)

What is the infinitive mood ?

To sit.

Is it regular or irregular ?

Irregular.

Why ?

Because its preterimperfect tense and its participle passive do not end in *ed*. (141.)

What do you do next ?

Find out the nominative case.

How do you do that?

By asking the question who or what ; as, "*Who*
"sat in the highest seat?" "*He.*"

What part of speech is *he*?

A personal pronoun.

What person?

The third.

What gender?

The masculine

What number?

The singular

What case?

The nominative.

How do you decline it?

"*Nom. He; Gen. Of him; Dat. To him,*"

&c. (67.)

What verb does it govern?

The verb *sat*.

How do the nominative and the verb agree?

In number and person. (178.)

What number is the nominative?

The singular.

What person?

The third.

What number is the verb?

The singular.

What person?

The third.

Prove that the nominative case and the verb agree in number and person by conjugating, in the indicative mood, the preterimperfect tense of the neuter verb *to sit*.

"*I sat, thou satst, he sat,*" &c.

What part of speech is *in*?

A preposition.

What part of speech is *the*?

The definite article.

What part of speech is *highest* ?

An adjective.

In what degree of comparison ?

The superlative. (52.)

What part of speech is *seat* ?

A substantive.

In what case ?

The ablative. (35.)

What is it governed by ?

The preposition *in*.

By what rule ?

All prepositions but *of* and *to* govern an ablative case. (35.)

RULE 2. *When no nominative comes between the Relative and the verb, the Relative is the Nominative to the verb.*

The Master who taught me was a learned Man.

What do you do first ?

Find out the first finite verb.

Which is that ?

Taught.

Is it an active, a passive, or a neuter verb ?

An active verb.

Why ?

Because I can place a personal pronoun after it in the accusative or objective case ; as, " I taught *him* ;" or I change it into a verb passive ; as, " He is taught."

What mood ?

The indicative.

What tense ?

The preterimperfect.

What is the infinitive mood ?

To teach.

Is it regular or irregular ?

Irregular.

Why?

Because either its preterimperfect tense or its participle passive does not end in *ed*. (141.)

What do you do next?

Find out the nominative case.

Which is that?

The relative *who* *.

By what rule?

When no nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is the nominative to the verb.

Which is the antecedent to the relative?

The master.

How do the antecedent and the relative agree?

In gender, number, and person.

Of what gender is the antecedent?

The masculine.

Of what number?

The singular.

Of what person?

The third.

By what rule?

All substantives and all nominatives, except *I* and *Thou*, are of the third person.

Of what gender is the relative?

The masculine.

Of what number?

The singular.

Of what person?

The third.

By what rule?

The relative who is of all genders, both numbers, and all rational persons. (82.)

* When the relative is the nominative to the verb, the nominative cannot be found out by asking the question *who* ? or *what* ?

How do the relative as a nominative case and the verb agree?

In number and person.

What number is the nominative?

The singular.

What person?

The third.

What number is the verb?

Singular.

What person?

The third.

Prove the agreement between the nominative and the verb, by conjugating the indicative mood preterimperfect tense of the active verb *to teach*.

"I taught, thou taughtest," &c.

The rest of the sentence may be parsed as those members gone before.

RULE 3. *When a nominative Case comes between the Relative and the Verb, the Relative is governed either by the Verb, or by some Preposition or Substantive belonging to it.*

The Man whom I saw was your Friend.

What do you do first?

Find out the finite verb.

Which is that?

Saw.

Is it active, passive, or neuter?

Active.

Why?

Because I can place a personal pronoun after it in the accusative or objective case; as, *"I saw him, I saw her," &c.*

Is it regular or irregular?

Irregular.

Why?

Because either its preterimperfect tense, or its participle passive, does not end in *ed*.

What do you do next?

Find out the nominative case.

How do you do that?

By asking the question who or what.

Ask the question.

Whom who saw? whom I saw; as *I* answers the question, it is the nominative case.

Decline it.

Nom. *I*; Gen. *Of me*; Dat. *To me*; Accusative or Objective, *Me*; Vocat. is wanting; Ablat. *With, from, or by me*. (65.)

How do the nominative and the verb agree?

In number and person.

What number is the nominative?

Singular.

What person?

The first.

Prove it by conjugating the indicative mood preterimperfect tense of the verb *To see*.

I saw, thou sawest, he saw, &c.

What part of speech is *whom*?

A pronoun relative. (79.)

Which is the antecedent?

Man.

How do the antecedent and the relative agree?

In gender, number, and person. (189.)

What gender is the antecedent?

The masculine.

What number?

The singular.

What person?

The third.

By what rule?

Relatives are of both numbers, and all genders;

who, of all rational persons ; *which*, of all irrational persons ; and *that*, of all persons, rational or irrational. (82.)

What case is the relative in ?

The accusative or objective.

What is it governed by ?

By the active verb *See*. (195.)

The rest of the sentence, *The man was your friend*, as those members that have been parsed before.

RULE 4. *Active or transitive Verbs govern an accusative or objective Case.*

I teach him.

Which is the finite verb ? (*teach*.) Is it active, passive, or neuter ? (*active*.) Why ? (96.) What part of speech is *him* ? (62.) What case is it in ? (67 ;) and why ? (178.)

RULE 5. *See, hear, feel, &c. are followed by Verbs in the infinitive Mood without the Sign to.* (205.)

I saw him go.

Which is the finite verb ? (*saw*.) Is it active, passive, or neuter ? (*active*.) Why ? (96.) Which is the nominative case ? (*I*.) How do the nominative case and the verb agree ? (178.) What part of speech is *him* ? (62 ;) and what is it governed by ? (*saw*.) What part of speech is *go* ? What mood ? (*the infinitive*.) By what rule has it not the sign *to* before it ? (203.)

RULE 6. *The Verb to be, in whatever Mood or Tense, has the same Case after it that goes before it.*

I am he.

Which is the finite verb? (*am.*) Which the nominative case? (*I.*) How do they agree? (178.) Prove their agreement by conjugating the present tense of the verb *to be*. (134.) What part of speech is *he*? What case? (67), and by what rule? (201.)

You took it to be me.

Which is the finite verb? (*took.*) Is it active, passive, or neuter, and why? Which is the nominative? (*you.*) How do the nominative and the verb agree? What part of speech is it? What case? (*the accusative or objective.*) By what is it governed? (by the active verb *took.*) What part of speech is *to be*? (*The infinitive mood of the substantive verb.*) What part of speech is *me*? (*a pronoun.*) What case is it in? (*the accusative or objective.*) Why? because the pronoun *it*, that goes before it, is in the same case. (201.)

RULE 7. *Sometimes the infinitive Mood, or a Part of a Sentence, forms the nominative Case to the Verb.*

To err is human.

Which is the finite verb? (*is.*) Is it auxiliary or principal? (130.) If principal, why? Is it active, passive, or neuter, and why? (203.) What mood, tense, number, and person? Is it regular or irregular, and why? (141.) Why is the infinitive *to err* the nominative case? Because it answers to the question who or what; as, What is human?

Answer, *To err*. By what rule does it agree with the verb in number and person? (178.) What part of speech is *human*? An adjective, agreeing with the infinitive, which, as a nominative case, forms a substantive, signifying the state of being in error.

Let each Man answer for himself.

What is the finite verb? (*let*.) Is it an auxiliary or a principal verb? (auxiliary.) (128.) What verb does it help? (*answer*.) What mood? (*the imperative*.) What is the nominative case? (*thou* understood.) What case is *man* in? The accusative or objective; that is, the same case as *he* would have been in, in the phrase, Let *him* answer for himself. What part of speech is *answer*? (verb.) What mood? (infinitive.) By what rule? (205.)

RULE 8. *When a nominative Case comes before a Participle of the present Tense either expressed or understood, and is independent on the rest of the Sentence, not governing a subsequent Verb, it is called the Case Absolute.*

“The sermon ended, the congregation dispersed.”

Here the present participle is understood.

“The sermon *being* ended, the congregation dispersed.”

Here the nominative *sermon* is grammatically independent on the rest of the sentence.

Read thy Book.

Find out the verb. What mood, tense, number and person, and what the infinitive mood? Regular or irregular, and why? What the nominative case?

What part of speech? Decline it. Of what number and person are the nominative and verb? Show their agreement by conjugating the imperative mood of the active verb *to read*. Of what part of speech is *thy*? In what case is *book*, and why? (181, 211, 212.)

EXERCISES OF BAD ENGLISH.

I am not sure that exercises of bad English are useful to youth of the junior classes. Pupils of this description ought, in my opinion, to see nothing upon paper but what is perfectly correct; when they are thoroughly accustomed to what is so, such exercises may be necessary to detect any lurking impropriety that may have stolen into the habit; but to give them exercises in bad English in the earlier stages of grammar, would be to risk the danger of evil communication. The utility of these exercises therefore must depend much on the judgement of the teacher, and, in my judgement, for pupils advanced in grammar, a better method cannot be conceived than is found in Lindley Murray's Exercises and Key. In these, the faults and corrections, by being separated, and placed in different books, are happily calculated to set the mind of the pupil at work to discover the error by the rule; and by this discovery, to fix the rule more permanently in the memory. Agreeably to my purposed brevity, I have noticed but a few of these errors; and those I have noticed are chiefly extracted from a meritorious, but much neglected grammar, published a few years ago by Lewis Brittain, and sold by Keating and Browne, Duke Street, Grosvenor Square. I have, indeed, received so much advantage from this short but comprehensive performance, that I thought it incumbent on me to make this acknowledgement of my obligations to its author.

COMMON ERRORS IN CONSTRUCTION.

Errors occasioned by Verbs not agreeing with their Nominatives in Person.

Says I;—for *Said I*, or *I said*.

Thinks I;—for *Thought I*.

Methoughts;—for *Methought* (inelegant), or *Thought I*.

I see him yesterday, for *I saw him*, is almost too gross a vulgarism to deserve notice.

Confusion of the personal Pronouns Thou and You.

Thou and *you*, used promiscuously in a discourse, and referred to the same person, are improper; as,

“*You* grieved at my distress, *thou* friend sincere.”—*Pope*.

The Relative of the first Person is improperly followed by a Verb in the third Person; as,

“*I am the Lord;—that spreadeth* (who spread) “the earth by *myself*.” *Isaiah*, xliv. 24. The relative *that* is referred to *I*, not to *the Lord*; as afterwards appears from the pronoun *myself* and the sense is, *I who spread—am the Lord*.

without which I who spread the earth /—the Lord

Disagreements between the Nominative and its Verb.

“The mechanism of clocks and watches *were* (was) totally unknown.”—*Hume*.

“As any of these three qualifications *are* (is) most conspicuous and prevailing.”—*Addison*.

These inaccuracies are very common, as in these phrases the ear is seduced by the plural genitive to annex a verb plural, and so to neglect the nominative in the singular.

Singulars after the disjunctive Particles.

Either thou, or he is, in the wrong ; that is, either thou *art*, or he *is*, in the wrong ; but the verb agrees in person with the latter pronoun *he*.

Two nouns singular, connected by the preposition *with*, may sometimes be followed by the plural number : but if the objective case after *with* be nowise concerned nor agent in the phrase, the singular number should succeed ; as, “ Christ, *with* three “ chosen apostles, enters into his agony.”

CASES.

Nominative improperly omitted.

“ The calm in which he was born and *lasted* “ (which lasted) so long.”—*Clarendon*.

“ These we have extracted from Paulus Jovius, “ and *are* (they are) the same,” &c.—*Pope*.

“ Whose own example strengthens all his laws,

“ And *is* (who is) himself the great sublime he draws.”

Idem.

Examples of mistaken Cases.

“ Him *whom* (who) ⁽¹⁾ ye pretend reigns in “ heaven.”—*Adventurer*.

Who ought to be the nominative to *reigns*, and *ye pretend*, means, *as ye pretend*.

“ *Whom* (who) do men say that I *am* ?”

Matt. xvi. 13.

Whom cannot here be governed by the verb *say*, but must be governed by *am* ; and agree with *I*, thus : Men say that *I am*, *who* ?

“ It can't be *me*” (I).—*Swift*.

“ It is not *him* (he whom) they blame ;” or,

“ *He is* not the man whom they blame.”

This is a very common inaccuracy, which may

be avoided by reflecting that the verb *to be* must have the same case after it that comes before it; as *It*, therefore, is in the nominative, the following pronoun must be in the nominative also; that is, *he* and not *him*. This inaccuracy arises from supposing *him* is governed by *blame*; whereas *blame* governs the relative *whom*, understood.

Error from omitting the Verb to one nominative Case, and by inserting another Nominative not necessary.

“Which rule, if it had been observed, a neighbouring prince would,” &c.—*Atterbury*.

Here the nominative, *which rule*, is defrauded of its government by the pronoun *it* gliding between itself and the verb. it should be, *If this rule had been observed, &c.*

“The measure of destroying Somerset, *who*, though many of his actions were very exceptionable, yet *he* (superfluous) still consulted the good of the people.”—*Goldsmith's History of Edward VI.*

No Substantive or Pronoun can be both in the nominative and the accusative or objective Case at the same Time.

“Why do ye that which is not lawful to do on the Sabbath days?” Here we see *which* is both the nominative to *is* and the objective to the active verb *do*. The impropriety of this construction will be more apparent, if for *do* we substitute *strike*; for *that*, the personal pronoun *he*.

“Why strike ye him whom is not lawful to strike on the Sabbath days?” In this sentence we find the verb *is* without a nominative case: for though an infinitive mood and its regimen may be a nominative

case to a verb, when it comes before the verb; as, “Why strike ye him, *whom to strike*, or *to strike whom*, is not lawful on the Sabbath days?” yet when this infinitive comes after the verb, the neuter pronoun *it* must be placed before it, to show that, in this case, it is to be considered merely as an infinitive mood, and not either as a nominative or an objective case: *strike*, therefore, governs *whom* according to the general rule, as the nominative *it* ought to come between the relative and the verb. v. 11

“Why strike ye him, whom *it* is not lawful to strike on the Sabbath days?”

“Why do ye that which *it* is not lawful to do on the Sabbath days?”

On the contrary, if we consider *which* as a nominative, and make the same change of words as in the last explanation; namely, “Why strike ye him, who is not lawful to strike on the Sabbath days?” the meaning of the sentence is confused; and a change is made from a passive to an active sense: that is, *who is to strike*, instead of *whom is to be struck*; and consequently the passive pronoun *whom* (if I may call it so) is to be adopted, and *it* inserted before the verb for the same reason as in the last example.

The same observations will hold good in explaining a similar sentence from the same part of Scripture, *Luke*, vi. 4: “The shew-bread, which is not lawful to eat but for the priests alone.” In this phrase the relative *which* is the nominative to *is*, and at the same time is governed by the active verb *to eat*, and this inconsistent government confuses the sense: for if we consider *which* as a nominative, it implies that it is not lawful for the shew-bread to eat, instead of the priests to eat the shew-bread; and if we consider *which* as an objective case, the verb *is* has no nominative,

and *it*, as in the former example, must be adopted before the verb, as its nominative, in order to form sense: "The shew-bread, which *it* is not lawful "to eat, but for the priests alone."

PUNCTUATION.

This appendage to grammar has been considered by few writers more maturely than by myself. For the truth of this assertion, I may appeal to *Elements of Elocution and Rhetorical Grammar*. As it relates to pronunciation, I have shown its radical deficiency, and how sometimes it tends rather to mislead the reader than to assist him; but as it conduces to regulate and preserve the sense of composition, it is in a tolerably perfect state. I shall therefore give a concise idea of *visible* punctuation, and refer the reader for *audible* punctuation, or that punctuation which is calculated for regulating the voice in reading, to a perusal of *Elements of Elocution and Rhetorical Grammar*.

What is punctuation?

Punctuation is the art of distinguishing by certain marks the several component parts of a sentence, the end of a sentence, and the different kinds of sentences of which a discourse is composed.

What are the principal marks made use of for this purpose?

The Comma, the Semicolon, the Colon, and the Period.

How are they expressed in writing?

The comma	} is marked thus {	,
The Semicolon		;
The Colon		:
The Period		.

And those marks which distinguish sentences,

The Interrogation	} is thus marked {	?
The Exclamation		!
The Parenthesis		()

What are the pauses said to be annexed to these points?

The pause at a Comma while we can count one ;

That at a Semicolon while we can count two ;

That at a Colon while we can count four ; and

That at a Period while we can count eight.

The Interrogation and Exclamation points are said to be indefinite as to their quantity of time, and to mark an elevation of voice; and the Parenthesis, to mark a moderate depression of the voice with a pause greater than the Comma.

I forbear any remarks upon these rules, as the nature of the pauses, the inflexion, elevation, and depression of the voice belong rather to Elocution and Rhetoric than to Grammar.

What is the use of the Comma ?

As Dr. Lowth tells us a simple sentence consists but of one subject or nominative case and one finite verb, and therefore admits of no pause ; so a compound sentence, consisting of two or more subjects or finite verbs, admits of a pause after each member. In every sentence therefore, as many subjects or as many finite verbs as there are, either expressed or implied, so many distinctions there may be ; as, *My hopes, fears, joys, pains, all centre in you.* The case is the same when several adjuncts affect the subject of the verb ; as, *A good, wise, learned man, is an ornament to the commonwealth :* or where several adverbs or adverbial circumstances affect the verb ; as, *He behaved himself modestly, prudently, virtuously.* For as many such adjuncts as there are, so many several members does the sentence contain ; and they are

to be distinguished from each other, as much as several subjects or finite verbs.

Is there no exception to this rule ?

The exception to this rule is, where these subjects or adjuncts are united by a conjunction ; as, *The imagination and the judgement do not always agree ; A man never becomes learned without studying constantly and methodically.* In these cases the comma between the subjects and the adjuncts is omitted.

Are there not some sentences, where the subjects, verbs, or adjuncts, are understood, which require the same punctuation as if they were expressed ?

Yes ; there are some kinds of sentences which, though seemingly simple, are nevertheless of the compound kind, and really contain several subjects, verbs, or adjuncts. Thus in the sentences, containing what is called the nominative absolute ; as, *Physicians, the disease once discovered, think the cure half wrought ;* where *the disease once discovered* is equivalent to *when the cause of the disease is once discovered.* So in those sentences where nouns are added by apposition ; as, *The Scots, a hardy people, endured it all.* So also in those where vocative cases occur ; as, *This, my friend, you must allow me.* The first of these examples is equivalent to, *The Scots endured it all ;* and, *The Scots, who are a hardy people, endured it all ;* and the last, to, *This you must allow me ;* and, *This my friend must allow me.* In short, whatever circumstance comes between the nominative case and the verb, and between the verb and its regimen, or what it governs, must be separated from them by a comma.

What is the use of the Semicolon ?

When a sentence can be divided into two or more members, which members are again divisible

into members more simple, the former are to be separated by a semicolon; as, “ But as the passion
 “ for admiration, when it works according to rea-
 “ son, improves the beautiful part of our species in
 “ every thing that is laudable; so nothing is more
 “ destructive to them when it is governed by vanity
 “ and folly.”

Must we use the semicolon, only when a comma has been inserted before?

No; we may use it where the foregoing member is perfectly simple; as, “ Green is the most
 “ refreshing colour to the eye; therefore Provi-
 “ dence has made it the common dress of Nature.” In these examples we see the semicolon embraces two uses: one, which shows the complexity of the member to which it is annexed; and the other, the incompleteness of the sense.

What is the use of the Colon?

The colon, like the semicolon, sometimes marks the complexity of the preceding member, and sometimes a completion of the sense, though not of the sentence.

These different usages will be exemplified in the following sentences:

“ As we perceive the shadow to have moved
 “ along the dial, but did not perceive it moving;
 “ and it appears that the grass has grown, though
 “ nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make
 “ in knowledge, as they consist of such insensible
 “ steps, are only perceivable by the distance.”

In this sentence we find the punctuation is governed by the complexity of its members; and the middle of it, before any sense is formed, is marked by the colon, to show it is more compounded than the preceding member: but in the following sentence the completion of the sense only is marked by the colon: “ The Augustan age was so eminent for

“good poets, that they have served as models to all others : yet it did not produce any good tragic poets.”

These very different usages of this point have produced very great uncertainty in punctuation, and frustrated all the endeavours of grammarians to make it a rule for regulating the voice in reading. Some very correct writers make use of the period where others make use of the colon ; nor are the boundaries of these two points easily marked. Those who wish to see this subject treated in the most masterly manner, must consult Buffier's *Grammaire Française*.

What is the use of the note of Interrogation ?

The note of interrogation is used to show that a question is asked ; as, “What day of the month is this ?” It likewise distinguishes a question from a sentence in the imperative mood ; as, “Do you return ?”

What is the use of the Parenthesis ?

A parenthesis is a sentence inserted in the body of another sentence to illustrate its meaning ; but is neither necessary to the sense, nor at all affects the construction. It is said to mark a moderate depression of the voice, with a pause greater than the comma ; as in the following sentence : “When they were both turned of forty (an age in which, according to Mr. Cowley, there is no dallying with life), they determined to retire, and pass the remainder of their days in the country.”—*Spectator*, No. 123.

What is the use of the Exclamation ?

This note, like the interrogation point, serves to distinguish a question from a strong emotion of mind ; as, expressing our gratitude for a favour received, we may cry out with rapture : “What have you done for me !” or we may use the very

same words contemptuously to inquire, "What have you done for me?" intimating that nothing has been done. The very different import of these sentences, as they are differently pointed, sufficiently shows the utility of the note of exclamation. With respect to the tone of voice, said by our grammarians to be annexed to it, the reader is requested to peruse the Rhetorical Grammar for consistent and practical ideas of this; and all the rest of the points.

PROSODY.

Though Prosody is accounted to belong to grammar, it is so little studied as a part of it (at least in our language), that I should think my time and the reader's attention but ill bestowed, by echoing and re-echoing what is said upon it, in almost every grammar we meet with. Dr. Lowth and Dr. Priestley have omitted this part of the subject, nor have their grammars on this account been charged with defect.

THE END.