ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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THE

ELEMENTARY CATECHISMS.

ENGLISH

GRAMMAR.

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AT

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.—INTRODUCTION.

Lesson 1.—

Q. What is *Language?*

A. Language consists of articulate or spoken sounds which express thoughts.

Q. From whence is the word derived?

A. The term language is from the Latin lingua, *tongue*, hence we say our mother *tongue*, or language.

Q. What is GRAMMAR?

A. Grammar is the system or body of laws and rules by which we express thought in correct language. The word is from the Greek gramma, *a letter*.

Q. How are these rules formed?

A. The rules of grammar are framed from old practice and comparison of the writings of the best authors in the language.

Q. Why is it that if we can speak our own language, it is necessary to learn grammar?

A. From habit we often use many unsuitable words and incorrect wodes of speech; and as dialects differ from the standard in various parts of the country, it is therefore requisite to learn grammar.

Q. What are the divisions of grammar?

A. Grammar is usually divided into four parts: ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX and PROSODY.

Q. Of what do these branches chiefly treat?

A. Orthography treats principally of *Letters;* Etymology of *Words;* Syntax of *Sentences;* Prosody of *Pronunciation.*

PART II.—ORTHOGRAPHY.

Lesson 2.

Q. What is ORTHOGRAPHY?

A. The term *Orthography* is derived from the Greek orthos, *correct,* and grapho, *I write,*—and treats of Letters, and their use in the spelling of words.

Q. How many letters are there?

A. There are twenty-six letters in English. They are A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z—a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.

Q. What are the large letters called?

A. The large letters are called Capitals, from the Latin caput, *the head,* because they are used at the head or beginning of sentences, and to begin the names of persons, places, days, months, &c.

Q. What are the letters taken together called?

A. The letters altogether are called the Alphabet, from *Alpha Beta,* the first two letters of the Greek alphabet, just as we say the A B C.

Q. How many kinds of letters are there?

A. There are two kinds of letters, *Vowels* and *Consonants.*

Q. Which of the letters are called Vowels?

A. The letters *a, e, i, o, u,* are called Vowels from the Latin vocalis, *sounding,* because they can be sounded by themselves.

Q. Which are *Consonants?*

A. All the other letters are consonants, and are so called from the Latin con, *together,* sonare, *to sound,* because they can only be sounded together with a vowel.

Q. Have you any thing to observe with respect to *w* and *y?*

A. *W* when in the same syllable it follows a vowel, and *y* when it does not begin a syllable, are vowels, as in the words *dew* and *try.*

Lesson 3.

Q. What is a *Diphthong?*

A. A *Diphthong* is two vowels placed together and sounded almost as one, from the Greek dis, *double,* phthongos, *sound.*

Q. Which are they?

A. The only real diphthongs in English are *eu, oi, ou,* as in the words *feud, soil,* and *sound.*

Q. What is a syllable?

A. A syllable consists of one or more letters taken together, which can be distinctly sounded at once, as *a, an, red, flow,* &c. The word syllable is derived from sun, *with,* labein, *to take.*

Q. Can there be a syllable without a vowel?

A. There cannot be a syllable without a vowel, thus the letters *c p,* or *s r,* require two distinct motions of the mouth to sound them, but when I place a vowel with them, as *cap, sir,* I can pronounce them at once.

Q. Of what are words composed?

A. Words are composed of one or more syllables.

Q. How are sentences formed?

A. Words placed together so as to give a complete meaning are called sentences.

SOUNDS OF LETTERS—VOWELS.

Lesson. 4.

Q. What have you further to say respecting vowels?

A. The vowel *a* has four principal sounds.

Q. What are they?

A. In *fate*, it has the long sound of *a*; in *far*, it is sounded *ah*; in *fall*, as *au*; and in *fat*, it has the short sound of *a*.

Q. What are its other sounds?

A. Sometimes it is sounded as *o*, as in *watch* or as *u*, in *custard*.

Q. What are the sounds of *e*?

A. The vowel *e* has three sounds; long, as in *we*; short, as in *wet*; sometimes *a*, as in *prey*.

Q. How many sounds has *i*?

A. There are four sounds to the vowel *i*; long, as in *wine*; short, as in *win*; like *e* long, as in *pique*; and like *u* short, as in *bird*.

Q. What are the sounds of *o*?

A. There are three chief sounds to *o*, long and short, as in *hope*, *hop*, and like *oo*, as in *lose*.

Q. What sounds has the letter *u*?

A. The vowel *u* has four sounds; like *oo*, as in *rude*; *eu*, as in *duke*; short and close, as in *push*, and shorter still, as in *nut*.

CONSONANTS WITH VARIED SOUNDS.

Lesson 5.

Q. Name some of the other letters with more than one sound.

A. The consonant *c* is pronounced *hard*, or with the sound of *k* before *a*, *o*, and *u*, and before all the consonants except *h*: thus *call*, *cot*, *cut*, *clash*, &c.

Q. When is it pronounced differently?

A. *C* is soft, or like *s* before *e*, *i*, *æ*, *y*, thus *cell*, *cindder*, *Cæsar*, *cypher*.

Q. What other sounds?

A. *C* has also the sound of *ts*, thus *child* is pronounced *tshild*; but in words from the Greek *ch* is sounded as *k*, thus *chemist*, *echo*.

Q. Is not *g* also changeable?

A. The letter *g* has generally the sound of *j*, before *e* and *i*, as in *George* and *giant*, but not always; in *get*, *give*, and others it is hard.

Q. When is *g* always hard?

A. *G* is always hard before the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and the consonants *l* and *r*, as *game*, *got*, *gun*, *glad*, *grow*; before *n* *g* is not sounded, as in *gnaw*.

Q. Give the sounds of *q*?

A. The letter *q* is generally sounded as *kw*, as in *quarter*, sometimes *gu* as *k*, thus *conquer*.

Q. Has the letter *s* two sounds?

A. Yes: the letter *s* is sharp as in *sing*, but often flat like *z*, at the end of a word, as *sings*; and before *e* or *y* final, as *rose*, *rosy*.

REDUNDANT AND DEFICIENT LETTERS.

Lesson 6.

Q. Mention some further particulars with regard to consonants.

A. There are some consonants which are useless, that is, which we could really do without—these are *c*, *j*, *q*, and *x*.

Q. How should we spell without *c*?

A. We might use *k* for *c* hard, or *s* for *c* soft, thus *kurd* expresses just the same sound as *curd*, and *sinder* as *cinder*.

Q. What letter might we use instead of *j*?

A. *G* soft, or *dzh* might be substituted for *j*, thus *jelly* would be *gelly* or *dzhelly*.

Q. Could we do without *q*?

A. In all cases we might use *kw* for *q*, as *queen* might be spelt *kween*.

Q. Why might *x* be omitted?

A. The letters *ks* would supply the place of *x*, as, Essex. *Esseks*.

Q. Are there not some sounds in the language for which we have no letter?

A. Letters are wanted to express the simple sounds of *ch, sh, zu, th, dth, ng*, in such words as *church, shine, azure, throng, there*, and *ring*.

Q. Are there letters in other languages to express these sounds?

A. Some languages have letters to represent these sounds, as the Greek letter *theta* has the same sound as the two letters *th* in English. Similar characters occur also in the old Anglo-Saxon alphabet.

ON SPELLING.

Lesson 7.

Q. Did you not say that one branch of Orthography is correct spelling?

A. Orthography treats principally of correct spelling.

Q. How is it that many persons spell incorrectly?

A. Many persons write by *ear* instead of by *eye*; the eye sees the word but does not observe accurately the letters of which it is composed; hence the spelling is from the sound of the word.

Q. Are there not difficulties in spelling?

A. There are difficulties in spelling many English words correctly, on account of the different sounds represented by the same letters, as *slaughter laughter, dough, plough, through, tough*, &c.; and also because different letters are made to give the same sound as *peace, niece, fleece; peal, peel; her, sir, cur*, &c.

Q. How is the art of correct spelling to be acquired?

A. The art of spelling correctly must be acquired by careful observation during reading, and by frequent practice in writing.

Q. Are there any words often improperly used?

A. There are some common words often improperly

used for others of a similar sound. To guard against error, learn correctly the following examples, by spelling the words printed in italics—*As* far *as* he *has* gone. He *is* gone to *his* desk.—They went *there* to see *their* dog.—A part *of* the cover came *off*.—*Where were* you?—What did you *wear* in the *ware*-house, and in crossing the *weir*?—You ask me *whether* it is fine *weather*, and if I have seen your *wether*.

PART III.—ETYMOLOGY.

Lesson 8.

Q. What does *Etymology* treat of?

A. *Etymology* relates principally to words in their origin and in their variation.

Q. Whence is the word Etymology derived?

A. The word is from the Greek etumos, *true*, logos *word*, or *discourse*.

Q. How many kinds of words are there?

A. In English there are eight sorts of words,—Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Pronouns, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

NOUN.

Lesson 9.

Q. What is a *Noun*?

A. A *Noun*, from the Latin word nomen, *name*, is the name of persons, places, things, qualities, or principles.

Q. Describe this further.

A. The name of everything we can see or think of as existing is a noun, and those nouns which refer to

quality or principle are called Abstract Nouns, as *brightness, beauty.*

Q. What is the other division of nouns?

A. The names of things which we can see are called Proper or Common nouns.

Q. Why are they so called?

A. Proper nouns denote particular persons or places, as *Roger, China*; common nouns refer to the common name of a *kind*, as a *cow*, a *chair*; thus every cow is called a *cow*, every chair a *chair*.

Q. How may nouns generally be known?

A. Nouns generally make sense with *a, an* or *the* before them, as *a knife, an anchor, the bell, a virtue*, or with an adjective, as *good* knife, *great* virtue; thus there is no sense in *an into, a since*, or *the have*, &c. because these words are not nouns.

VERB

Lesson 10.

Q. What is a Verb?

A. A Verb, from the Latin verbum, *a word*, is a word that asserts, commands, or asks, as *I will; run fast; may I go?* &c.

Q. Give me another meaning of a verb?

A. A verb indicates that persons or things do something, or are something, or have something done to them; as I *strike*—you are *hurt*, he is *flogged*.

Q. How can you know a verb?

A. I know a verb simply by placing *I* or *to* before it, as *I read, to walk*, &c. Here *read* and *walk* are verbs. There is no sense in—I *apple*, or to *inkstand*, as these are not verbs.

Q. How are verbs divided?

A. Verbs are divided into Transitive and Intransitive.

Q. What is a Transitive verb?

A. A Transitive verb, from the Latin word transire, *to pass over*, is a verb the action of which passes

over from the noun or pronoun which it precedes to that which follows it.

Q. What is an *Intransitive verb?*

A. An *Intransitive verb* is one in which the action does not pass over to an object, but conveys a complete meaning in itself.

Q. Give an example of a transitive verb?

A. When I say—Roger *gathered*—the verb is transitive, because I have no completed meaning in the verb *gathered*; but if I say—Roger *gathered* the grapes—then the action passing over to the object *grapes* completes the sense in which the verb is to be understood.

Q. Explain the intransitive verb?

A. In I *walk*, John *sleeps*—the meaning is complete without an object for the verb to pass to; these are therefore, intransitive verbs.

ADJECTIVE.

Lesson 11.

Q. What is an *Adjective?*

A. An *Adjective* is a word which denotes a quality in natural objects, or in personal acquirements, or endowments; as a *lovely* landscape, a *great* orator.

Q. Why is it called an adjective?

A. The word adjective is from the Latin words ad, *to*, and jactus, *placed*, because it is placed to or before a noun.

Q. How may adjectives be known?

A. An adjective may be known by its making sense when prefixed to a noun, thus if I take the word *clever*, I know it to be an adjective, because it makes sense with the substantive boy, as a *clever* boy.

Q. May adjectives be formed from nouns?

A. Adjectives may be formed from nouns by the addition of *y, ly, ful, less and ish*, as wind*y*, snow*y*, man*ly*, heaven*ly*, hope*ful*, fear*ful*, life*less*, hope*less*, fool*ish*, child*ish*, &c.

PRONOUN.

Lesson 12.

Q. What is a *Pronoun?*

A. A *Pronoun* is a word used in place of a noun, and is so called from the Latin pro *for*, and nomen, *name* or *noun*, as—*you* are good. Here I use the word *you* instead of the name of the person addressed.

Q. Give me some examples.

A. The words *he* and *his* are pronouns in—Robert went to *his* garden, and there *he* saw *his* flowers, and are used instead of saying—Robert went to Robert's garden, and there Robert saw Robert's flowers.

ADVERB.

Lesson 13.

Q. What is an *Adverb?*

A. An *Adverb* is a word that shows *manner, situation, quantity, time* or *affirmation* and *denial*; as, I write *well*,—you go *there*,—he brought *more*,—you came *late*,—*yes*, *no*, &c. (See pages 60-62 Appendix.)

Q. Why is it so named?

A. It is called *adverb* from the Latin ad, *to* and verbum, *word* or *verb*, because it is generally joined to a verb, as may be seen in the examples just given, where the *adverbs* follow the verbs *write, go, brought,* and *came*.

Q. How may they usually be known?

A. *Adverbs* may be known by their generally ending in *ly*, as tru*ly*, vast*ly*, &c., but all words ending in *ly* are not adverbs.

Q. Are they not used instead of a longer mode of expression?

A. Yes: an *adverb* generally supplies the place of two or more words; *always* means at all times, *there* signifies in that place, *thrice* is used instead of three times, &c.

PREPOSITION, CONJUNCTION, INTERJECTION.

Lesson 14.

Q. What is a *Preposition?*

A. *Preposition* is a word usually placed before nouns, and is derived from the Latin præ, *before*, and positus, *placed*.

Q. Why is it so placed?

A. A preposition shews the connexion a noun has with other words in the sentences; as—I looked *at* the sun; I went *through* the gate &c.

Q. What is a *Conjunction?*

A. A *Conjunction*, from the Latin con, *together*, junctus, *a joining*, is a word which joins sentences together, as—Victor *and* Charles were there.—Will you read *or* play?

Q. What is an *Interjection?*

A. An *Interjection* is a word which expresses excited feeling, as—*hurrah! oh! dear! me!*

Q. Why is it so called?

A. It is named interjection from the Latin inter, *between*, and jacere, *to throw*, because it is a word, as it were, thrown in suddenly.

EXERCISES ON THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Lesson 15.

Q. Why is the word *counterfeit* a noun in the following sentence?—This is not good coin, but a bad *counterfeit*.

A. I can say *a* counterfeit, or *the* counterfeit; and besides, it makes sense with the adjective *bad* before it.

Q. Why is *counterfeit* a verb in the following?—I shall *counterfeit* sorrow.

A. Because it asserts,—because it tells that I am doing something; and because I can say—I counterfeit, or *to* counterfeit.

Q. Why is *counterfeit* an adjective in this sentence?—Yours is only *counterfeit* praise.

A. Because I use it before the noun praise, of which it tells the kind or quality.

Q. Why are *you* and *your* pronouns in the phrase —Gustavus will *you* learn *your* lesson?

A. Because I use them for the *noun* Gustavus, instead of saying—Gustavus, will Gustavus learn Gustavus' lesson?

Q. Why are *here, together, too,* and *early,* adverbs in this sentence? You have come *here together too early.*

A. Because *here* marks *situation, together* shews *manner, too* denotes *quantity,* and *early* speaks of *time.*

Q. Why are *into, among, up,* and *for* prepositions in—George is going *into* the copse *among* the bushes and *up* the hill *for* his own pleasure.

A. Because they shew the relation between George's going and the nouns to which they are prefixed.

Q. Why are *and, also, if,* and *because* conjunctions in the following sentence?—John *and* Sam will go *also* the other boys, *if* they can, *because* it is fine.

A. Because they simply connect the different parts of the sentence.

Q. Why are *hurrah!* and *bravo! alas!* and *oh!* interjections in—Hurrah for a holiday—Bravo my boys —Alas!—Dear me!—Oh!

A. Because they are sudden exclamations expressive of joy, of sorrow, or surprise.

PART IV.—INFLECTION OR VARIATION.

Lesson 16.

Q. What is *inflection?*

A. A change made in a word is called an inflection, which is derived from the Latin inflectio, *a change.*

Q. Give me some examples.

A. In the word folio*s* the inflection is from *folio.* in walk*ed* it is varied from *walk.*

Q. How many of the parts of speech are capable of being inflected?

A. The parts of speech capable of inflection are the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, and the Adverb. These are also called declinable.

Q. Why so?

A. They are called declinable from the Latin declinatio, *a declension,* or *turning aside,* because they are, as it were, turned aside from their original form.

INFLECTION OF NOUNS—NUMBER.

Lesson 17.

Q. How are Nouns declined?

A. Nouns are declined by NUMBER, GENDER, and CASE.

Q. What is number?

A. Number means whether one or more than one is spoken of.

Q. When we speak of one what number is it called?

A. When one only is mentioned the number is singular from the Latin singulus, *each* or *single,* as—a chair, a picture.

Q. What is the other number?

A. When more than one is named, the number is plural, from the Latin plura, *more,* as—chairs, pictures.

Q. How is the plural formed?

A. The plural is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular, as—*one* vine, *two* or *three* vines.

Q. Is the plural always formed by adding *s?*

A. No: there are many variations from this rule.

Q. Give me some of the other rules for forming the plurad?

A. The plural of nouns ending in *ch, sh, ss, x,* and *o* alter a consonant generally have *es* instead of *s,* as bunch, bunch*es;* wish, wish*es;* Miss. Miss*es;* fox,

foxes; hero, heroes. Except a few, as canto cantos; quarto, quartos; or when *ch* is pronounced like *k*, as patriarch, patriarcsh.

PLURAL OF NOUNS.

Lesson 18.

Q. Give me anothr rule for the plural of nouns?

A. Nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, form their plural by changing the singular into *ves*, as knife, kni*ves*; half, hal*ves*.

Q. Another rule?

A. Nouns ending with *y*, and which have no vowel before the *y*, make the plural by *ies*, as berry, ber*ries*; but when there is a vowel before the *y*, as *ay*, *ey*, *oy*, *uy*, it follows the general rule and adds only *s*, as bay, bay*s*; key, key*s*; boy, boy*s*; guy, guy*s*; &c.

Q. Give me some examples of nouns which have *en* in the plural?

A. These nouns retain the Anglo-Saxon plural *en*; man, m*en*; woman, wom*en*, ox, ox*en*; child, child*ren*; in some places, house, hous*en*; shoe, sho*en*.

Q. How do words adopted from other languages form their plural?

A. Nouns from the ancient and foreign languages form their plural generally as in the original, thus—*singular*, medium, *plural*, media.

Lesson 19.

Q. What have you to say of the plural of some other nouns?

A. Some common words vary their plural in a manner different from any one of the former rules, as—foot, feet; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; mouse, mice; penny, pence.

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* See page 59 Appendix

Q. Have any nouns two forms for the plural?

A. Yes: there are two plurals for the following nouns:—

Brother	Brothers—of a family. Brothren—of a community.
Die	Dice—for gambling. Dies—stamps for coining.
Genius	Genii—imaginary beings. Geniuses—clever persons.
Index	Indexes—tabless of reference. Indices—signs in algebra.

Q. Spell the plural of time, larch, brush, glass, box, staff, life, cherry, chimney, tray, and toy?

A. Times, larches, brushes, glasses, boxes, staves, lives, cherries, chimnegs, trays, and toys.

GENDER.

Lesson 29.

Q. What is meant by Gender?

A. Gender means whether animals or things are male, female, or of neither sex. The word is from the Latin Genus, *a race* or *sex*.

Q. What are the three genders called?

A. The genders are called MASCULINE, from the Latin masculus, *a male*; FEMININE, from femina, *a female*; NEUTER, from neuter, *neither*.

Q. Of what gender are nouns called which are applied both to male or female?

A. Nonns which refer to either sex are called of the common gender; as the one word *bird* or *servant* may be nsed for both sexes.

Q. How is the difference of gender shewn?

A. Difference of gender is shewn by three methods. First, by a word prefixed, as—*man*-servant, *woman*-servant—*he*-goat, *she*-goat. Secondly, by a complete change in the word as—brother, *Sister*—ram, *ewe*. Thirdly, by a different termination—as heir, heir*ess*—governor, govern*ess*—and others.

CASE.

Lesson 21.

Q. What is Case ?

A. Case is that relation which a noun has to the parts of the sentence in which it is placed.

Q. What is the origin of the term ?

A. It is from the Latin casus, *a fall;* because the nouns in that language, when varied, were said to have fallen from their simple form.

Q. How many cases have nouns ?

A. There are three cases—the NOMINATIVE, the OBJECTIVE, and the POSSESSIVE.

Q. What is the Nominative case ?

A. That noun which comes before a verb, is called nominative, from the Latin nomen, *name,* because it names the person doing any thing; as—Maria loves; here Maria is in the nominative case.

Q. What is the Objective case ?

A. The noun which follows the verb, and is the object upon which it acts is called the objective case, as—Maria loves Margaret; here Margaret is the object acted upon by the verb, and is the objective case.

Q. Do you know the objective case in any other way ?

A. The objective case also follows prepositions, as—I went *with* Walter; Walter is the objective case, because it follows the preposition *with.*

Q. How may the Possessive case be known ?

A. The possessive case is known by its ending in *s,* as—*William's* book; which is just the same as saying —the book of *William.*

Lesson 22.

Q. Why is the Nominative case so called ?

A. The Nominative case is so called because it names or nominates the person or thing which does something.

Q. Why is the Objective case so called ?

A. The Objective case is so named because it refers to the object acted upon.

Q. Why is the Possessive case so named ?

A. The Possesisve case denotes possession, hence its name.

Q. Decline the nouns child and boy ?

		Sing.	*Plur.*
A.	*Nom.*	Child.	Children.
	Obj.	Child.	Children
	Poss.	Child's.	Children's.
	Nom.	Boy.	Boys.
	Obj.	Boy.	Boys.
	Poss.	Boy's.	Boy's

Q. Why is *s* added in the possessive plural of *child* and not in that of *boy ?*

A. Words that end in *s* in the plural would sound unpleasantly with the addition of another *s,* as—the boys's books,—therefore it is omitted.

Q. How may the nominative case be known by another way as well as by its coming before the verb ?

A. By asking the question—*who* or *what* with the verb, the answer will be the nominative case.

Q. How may the objective case be known ?

A. The answer to the question *whom* or *what* with the verb will be the objective case.

Q. How may the possessive case be known ?

A. By answering the question *whose,* taken with the objective, we have the possessive case.

Q. Explain this to me in the following example—Johnny rides his uncle's pony. Who rides ?

A. Johnny: then Johnny is the nominative, because it answers the question—*who ?* with the verb *rides.*

Q. What does he ride ?

A. The pony: thus pony is the objective case as it answers the question—*what ?*

Q. Whose pony ?

A. His uncle's; then uncle's is possessive, because it answers the question—*whose ?*

INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVE.

COMPARISON.

Lesson 23.

Q. Are adjectives inflected like nouns with case and number ?

A. Adjectives are not declined in English, as they are in Latin, except the adjectives *this*, *that*, and *other*.

Q. How then are adjectives varied ?

A. Adjectives are varied by Comparison.

Q. What do you mean by this ?

A. Comparison means comparing the different degrees which exist in the quality spoken of.

Q. What are these called ?

A. The degrees are Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

Q. What is the positive degree ?

A. That which speaks positively concerning a noun; thus—a *tall* man the word *tall* is positive.

Q. What is the comparative ?

A. That which compares, as—a *taller* man—here *taller* is comparative, compared with some other man.

Q. What is the superlative ?

A. That which expresses the highest degree or quality; as—the *tallest* man—in this, *tallest* is the superlative.

Q. How are these degrees of comparison formed ?

A. Words of one or two syllables ending in a consonant form the comparative by adding *er*, and the superlative by adding *est* to the positive; as small, smaller, smallest.

Q. In what other way ?

A. The comparison of some adjectives is made by an entirely different form; as good, *better*, *best*.

Q. Give me a third method ?

A. Words of three or more syllables are generally compared by prefixing the adverbs, *more* and *most*, as —bounteuos, *more* bounteous, *most* bounteous.

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

Lesson 24.

Q How many kinds of adjectives are there ?

A There are three kinds of adjectives, Demonstrative, Numeral, and General.

Q Which are the Demonstrative Adjectives ?

A The Demonstrative Adjectives are *this* and *that*.

Q Why are they so called ?

A They are called Demonstrative because they demonstrate, or point out the nouns to which they belong; as—*this* desk, *that* stool. The word is from the Latin demonstrare, *to shew* or *point out*.

Q. What are Numeral Adjectives ?

A. From the Latin numerare, *to number*; they express both number and quantity.

Q. How many kinds are there ?

A. There are two kinds of numeral adjectives, the Definite and the Indefinite.

Q What are the Definite Numerals ?

A. Those which point out particular or definite numbers, as—*one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, and so on, are called definite numerals.

Q. What are Indefinite Numerals ?

A. Those which do not refer to any particular number or quantity, as—*more*, *some*, *any*, &c., are called indefinite numeral adjectives.

Q. Is there any other division of definite numerals ?

A. Definite numerals are further divided into Cardinal and Ordinal.

Q. What are the Cardinal ?

A. The Cardinal numbers are such as answer to the question, how many ? as—*one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, *five*, *six*, *seven*, &c., from the Latin cardinalis, *principal* or *chief*.

Q. What are the ordinal numbers ?

A. Those which denote the order and rank in a series, as—*first*, *second*, *third*, *fourth*, *fifth*, &c., from

the Latin ordinaire, *to arrange in rank*. These are called ordinal numerals.

Q. Which are the Indefinite ?

A. The indefinite numeral adjectives are—*each, every, either, neither, many, much, few, several, all, no, more, some, any, enough, other, another,* and *only*.

Q. What are General adjectives ?

A. All adjectives which are not demonstrative or numeral may be termed general adjectives.

Q. Decline the adjectives, *this, that,* and *other ?*

Sing.	*Plur.*		*Sing.*	*Plur.*
This.	These.	*Nom.*	Other.	Others.
That.	Those.	*Poss.*	Other's.	Others'.

THE ARTICLES.

Lesson 25.

Q. What have you to observe respecting the words *an* and *the ?*

A. The little words *an* and *the*, although they are usually considered as separate parts of speech, and called Articles, are in reality adjectives.

Q. How is this ?

A. The word *an* originally signified one, and even now expresses the same as the numeral adjective *one*. *The* is equivalent to *that*, a demonstrative adjective.

Q. What parts of speech ought these words therefore to be called ?

A. *The* should be called a demonstrative adjective, because when I use the expression,—Take *the* orange, I domonstrate the particular orange which I wish should be taken. *An* is an indefinite numeral: thus, if I say—Take *an* orange, I do not define or point out a particular orange.

Q. Is there any rule to be observed with respect to the word *an ?*

A. *An* is used before words beginning with a vowel, as—*an* owl; *n* is omitted and *a* only used before consonants, before words beginning with *h*, and before the vowel *u* long, as—*a* cloud, *a* heap, *a* union.

Q. Is there any exception to this ?

A. This rule is not without exception, because in some words from the Latin the letter *h* is not sounded, and they may therefore be said to begin with vowels.

Q. Which are these words ?

A. In honest, humble, hospital and hour.
Herb, humour, honour, heir, *h* has no power.
On this account 'tis needful to take care
Before this words we always place *an* there.

INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES.

Lesson 26.

Q. Have you anything further to observe respecting adjectives ?

A. Many adjectives do not admit of degrees of comparison, such as—*all, evely, several, some,* &c.: nor can the numeral adjectives be increased in signification: thus, we cannot rightly say—more *all*, nor most *three*, &c.; nor ought we to say—*more perfect*, as *perfect* implies completeness.

INFLECTION OF PRONOUNS.

Q. How many kinds of *Pronouns* are there ?

A. There are two sorts of pronouns, *personal* and *relative*.

Q. What are personal pronouns ?

A. personal pronouns are those which are used instead of the names of persons, as—*I, you, he, we, they,* &c.

Q. Are pronouns declined ?

A. Pronouns are declined with person, and with number, gender, and case, in common with the nouns for which they are used.

Q. What is meant by person, as applied to pronouns ?

A. The pronoun used instead of the name of the

person who speaks, is called of the *first person*; thus —*I* speak,—here *I* is the first person.

Q. What is the second person?

A. *You* or *thou* is used instead of the name of the person spoken to, and is called the *second person*; as —I speak to *you*. In this case *you* is the second person.

Q. What is the third person?

A. *He* is used instead of the noun which denotes the person spoken of and is called the third person of the pronoun; as—I speak to you, and *he* hears. Here *he* is third person.

NUMBER AND GENDER OF PRONOUNS.

Lesson 27.

Q. How is the *number* of personal pronouns expressed?

A. The number of personal pronouns is denoted not as in nouns, by a change of termination, but by a different word; as—*I*, plural *we*; *thou*, plural *you*; *he*, plural *they*.

Q. How is the gender of pronouns shewn?

A. The first and second persons have no change to express different gender, as *I* and *thou*, *we* and *you*, may be applied either to male or female; but in the third person we have *he* masculine, *she* feminine, and *it* neuter.

CASE OF PRONOUNS.

Lesson 28.

Q. Is there any distinction by which the case of a personal pronoun can be told?

A. Yes: a different word is used to express the case of a personal pronoun; as—*I* is nominative, *me* objective, *mine* possessive.

Q. will you decline the personal pronouns in the singular number?

SINGULAR NUMBER.

		Nom.	*Obj.*	*Poss.*
A. First Person		I.	Me.	My. Mine.
Second Person		You.	You.	Your. Yours.
Third Person	*Masc. Gender*	He.	Him.	His.
	Fem. Gender	She.	Her.	Her. Hers.
	Neut. Gender	It.	It.	Its.

Q. Decline the plural?

PLURAL NUMBER.

		Nom.	*Obj.*	*Poss.*
A. First Person		We	Us.	Our. Ours.
Second Person		You.	You.	Your. Yours.
Third Person	*Masc. Gender.*	They.	Them.	Their. Theirs.
	Fem. Gender.	They		
	Neut. Gender.	They		

Q. What is the use of two different words in the possessive case of some of these pronouns; as—*my* and *mine*, *our*, *ours*, &c.?

A. One form is used when the possessive is followed by a noun, as this is *our* book; the other when the noun precedes the pronoun, or is omitted; as—this book is *ours*; this is *ours*.

Q. Do we not sometimes use another word instead of *you* for the second person singular?

A. Yes: *thou* was formerly used instead of *you*, as may be seen in Scripture; and it is still used in addressing the Deity, also frequently in poetry, and generally by Quakers. *You* is always used in ordinary speaking or writing.

Q. Decline the personal pronoun *thou*?

SINGULAR NUMBER.

	Nom.	*Obj.*	*Poss.*
Second Person	Thou.	Thee.	Thy. Thine.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Lesson 29.

Q. What is a Relative pronoun ?

A. A Relative Pronoun is one which refers or relates to a noun, or a sentence going before, which is named its antecedent.

Q. From what is it named antecedent ?

A. It is called antecedent from the Latin ante, *before*, and cedere, *to go;* thus, in the sentence—The *boy who* talked—*who* is the relative pronoun, and *boy* the antecedent.

Q. How many relative pronouns are there ?

A. There are three relative pronouns *who, which,* and *that.*

Q. How are they used ?

A. *Who* is only used when we speak of persons, as —the boy *who* laughed. *Which* is applied either to animals or things, as—the lion *which* roars; the flowers *which* fade. *That* may be used indiscriminately, as—the girl *that* sung; the grass *that* grew; the dog *that* I lost.

Q. How is the relative pronoun *who* declined ?

A. In the relative *who,* no difference is made to express gender or number, but the case is varied thus:

Nom.	*Obj.*	*Poss.*
Who	Whom.	Whose.

Q. Decline the relative pronoun *which ?*

	Nom	*Obj*	*Poss.*
A.	Which.	Which.	Whose.

The pronoun *that* is not declined.

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

Lesson 30.

Q. What are the various kinds of verbs ?

A. Verbs are said to be either Transitive or Intransitive, Active or Passive, Regular, Irregular, and Defective.

Q. How are verbs varied ?

A. Verbs are inflected or changed in termination to express person, number, and time.

Q. Explain what is meant by person in connexion with verbs ?

A. Verbs, in common with pronouns, have three persons, as—*I talk, thou talkest, he talks,* Here *talk* is the first person, *talkest* second, and *talks* third.

Q. What have you to observe respecting one of the persons of verbs ?

A. The second person plural of verbs, as well as of pronouns, is almost always used instead of the second person singular, as—*you tulk*—instead of—*thou talkest.*

Q. Is it right so to use the verb ?

A. In consequence of the general use of the second person plural, in place of the old form of the singular, we consider it now as being really a definite singular, as well as a plural form, and as such we use it.

Q. In what cases is it proper to retain the singuler ?

A. Generally in poetry, and always in our addresses to the Deity, the original singular form must be used.

Q. What are the numbers of verbs ?

A. The numbers of verbs are the same as of substantives, singular and plural, as—*thou lovest, ye love. Lovest* is second person, singular number and *love* is second person plural.

Q. What is the verb called in its simple from ?

A The verb in its simple form is called the infinitive, from the Latin infinitivus, *without limit*, because it has no restriction of number or person, but expresses a general condition, as—*advise*, or *to advise*.

Q. Has it any other signification ?

A. With the prefix *to* the infinitive often becomes a noun, as—*to advise* me was kind.

Q. What other form has the verb ?

A. The verb in one of its simple forms is called the imperative, from imperare, *to command*, as—*advise* him.

ON TENSE.

Lesson 31.

Q. What is meant by the tense of a verb ?

A. The tense of a verb is the time to which it refers.

Q. Under how many forms or periods can we think of time ?

A. We can think of three periods of time—time gone by, time existing now, and time to come.

Q. What names do we give to these periods of time ?

A. We distinguish these periods of time as—the *past*, the *present*, and the *future*.

Q. How are these times or tenses in which the verb acts expressed ?

A. The past tense of a verb is formed by a change in the termination of the present tense; as—from I love, the present tense, is formed I lov*ed*, the past tense.

Q. How is the future tense formed ?

A. The future tense of a verb is not formed by inflection, but by the addition of another verb, *shall* or *will;* thus, there are in reality only two tenses in English formed by inflection, the *present* and *past*.

Q. Is it so in all languages ?

A. This is not the case in all languages, as in

Latin, for instance, we have various forms of words to express the different times and relations of verbs.

Q. Give me some examples.

A. Rego, *I rule.* Regerem, *I might rule.*
Rexi, *I ruled.* Rexerim, *I should have ruled.*
Regam, *I shall rule.* Rexissem, *I would have ruled.*

These are truly tesnes formed by inflection, but in English we have only the past tense so formed.

PARTICIPLES.

Lesson 32.

Q. What is a Participle ?

A. A Participle is a word so called from the Latin participare, *to partake of*, because, although it is considered to be a form of the verb, it partakes also of the nature of an adjective, and is sometimes called a verbal adjective.

Q. Give me an example of a participle.

A. In the sentence—a running stream—the word *running* is not an adjective, although it tells the kind of stream, nor can it strictly be called a verb, although it says the stream is doing something; therefore the word is called a participle, because it has the character of both adjective and verb.

Q. How many participles are there ?

A. There are two kinds of participles, the imperfect or active participle, and the perfect or passive participle.

Q. What is the imperfect participle ?

A. The imperfect or active participle ends in *ing*, and denotes imperfect or unfinished action, as—*walking*.

Q. What is the other participle ?

A. The perfect or passive participle ends in *ed* or *d*, and shews a perfect or completed condition of the verb, as—*walked*.

Q. Why is one participle called *active* ?

A. The active participle is so named because it always denotes some action going on, as—*ruling, trying,* &c.

Q. Why is the other participle called *passive ?*

A. The passive participle is so called because it shews an endured or suffered action as—*ruled, tried,* &c. The word passive is from the Latin patior passus, *to suffer.*

ON CONJUGATION.

Lesson 33.

Q. What is meant by conjugating a verb ?

A. The conjugating, or the conjugation of a verb, is naming and joining together its principal forms—from the Latin con, *together,* jungere, *to join ?*

Q. Conjugate the verb to *advise ?*

PRESENT TENSE.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1st *per.*	I advise	1st *per.*	We advise.
2nd *per.*	You advise.	2nd *per.*	You advise.
3rd *per.*	He advises.	3rd *per.*	They advise.

PAST TENSE.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1st *per.*	I advised	1st *per.*	We advised.
2nd *per.*	You advised.	2nd *per.*	You advised.
3rd *per.*	He advised	3rd *per.*	They advised.

FUTURE TENSE.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1st *per.*	I shall advise.	1st *per.*	We shall advise.
2nd *per.*	You will abvise	2nd *per.*	You will advise.
3rd *per.*	He will advise.	3rd *per.*	They will advise.

PARTICIPLES.

Imper.	*Perf.*
Advising.	Advised.

Imperative, Advise *Infinitive,* To Advise.

Q. In conjugating the future tense, you used the word *shall* and *will;* cannot the future be conjugated without them ?

A. The future tense, or any other manner of the verb in English cannot be expressed, except with *shall* and *will,* or other signs prefixed, unless in the past tense, which is inflected.

Q. What are these signs called ?

A. These signs are called Auxiliary or helping verbs, from the Latin auxiliari, *to help.*

Q. Which are they ?

A. The Irregular Verbs *have, be,* and *do;* and the Defective Verbs *shall, will, may, can, let,* and *must,* are the Auxiliary Verbs.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

Lesson 34.

Q. What are Regular Verbs ?

A. Verbs are called regular when their past tenses and their perfect participles end in *ed,* as in the verb *advise.*

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Advise.	advis*ed.*	advis*ed.*

Q. How do you find the past tense of a verb ?

A. By thinking of what I was doing at some time gone by, I find the past tense of a verb, as—from present *advise,* I say for the past—Yesterday I *advised.*

Q. How do you find the perfect participle ?

A. By prefixing the auxiliary *I have,* I find the perfect participle, as—I *have* advised.

Q. What is an irregular verb ?

A. An irregular verb is one in which the past tense and perfect participle do not end in *ed.*

Q. What is a defective verb ?

A. A defective verb is either without a form for the past tense, or the perfect participle, as—*may.*

Present	*Past.*	*Participle.*
may.	might.	

To GIVE.

Lesson 35.

Q. Conjugate the irregular verb, *to give* ?

PRESENT TENSE.

A.	*Singular.*		*Plural.*
1st *per.*	I give.	1st *per.*	We give.
2nd *per.*	You give.	2nd *per.*	You give.
3rd *per.*	He gives.	3rd *per.*	They give.

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
1st *per.*	I gave.	1st *per.*	We gave.
2nd *per.*	You gave.	2nd *per.*	You gave.
3rd *per.*	He gave.	3rd *per.*	They gave.

FUTURE TENSE.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
1st *per.*	I shall give.	1st *per.*	We shall give.
2nd *per.*	You will give.	2nd *per.*	You will give.
3rd *per.*	He will give.	3rd *per.*	They will give.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect.	*Perfect.*
Giving.	given.
Imperative. give.	*Infinitive.* To give.

THE AUXILIARIES, TENSES &c.

Lesson 36.

Q. Is it necessary to have a knowledge of the auxiliary verbs ?

A. It is necessary to have a perfect knowledge of the use of the auxiliaries, *to be*, and *to have*, because they are prefixed to verbs, to point out the various tenses with greater certainty than could without them be expressed.

Q. Illustrate your meaning ?

A. The present, past and future tenses already given, denote the time uncertainly, that is, the action is incomplete when we say—I love; but when we say

—I have loved—the time expressed is complete and perfect.

Q. Explain this more fully ?

A. With the addition of the auxiliaries, we can indicate the action of the verb, in relation to time as either unfinished or imperfect, or as finished and perfect, without changing its character as past, present, or future.

Q. Then may tenses be formed differing from those already mentioned ?

A. Besides the simple tenses already mentioned, other tenses may be formed by taking the participles and prefixing the auxiliary signs; thus we have the following

Imper.	*Tenses.*	*Per.*	*Tenses.*
Pres.	I am loving, &c.	*Pres.*	I have loved, &c.
Past.	I was loving, &c.	*Past.*	I had loved, &c.
Fut.	I shall be loving, &c.	*Fut.*	I shall have loved, &c.

Q. Can other tense be formed by other signs prefixed ?

A. By signs prefixed, many other tenses of verbs may be formed to express every degree or relation of time and action,—as I *shall have been* advising, &c.

SHALL, WILL, AND HAVE.

Lesson 37.

Q Conjugate the verbs *shall* and *will*.

SHALL.

PRESENT TENSE.

A.	*Singular.*		*Plural.*
1st *per.*	I shall.	1st *per.*	We shall.
2nd *per.*	You shall.	2nd *per.*	You shall.
3rd *per.*	He shall.	3rd *per.*	They shall.

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
1st *per.*	I should.	1st *per.*	We should.
2nd *per.*	You should.	2nd *per.*	You should.
3rd *per.*	He should.	3rd *per.*	They should.

WILL.

PRESENT TENSE.

	Singular.		Plural.
1st *per.*	I will.	1st *per.*	We will.
2nd *per.*	You will.	2nd *per.*	You will.
3rd *per.*	He will.	3rd *per.*	They will.

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.		Plural.
1st *per.*	I would.	1st *per.*	We would.
2nd *per.*	You would.	2nd *per.*	You would.
3rd *per.*	He would.	3rd *per.*	They would.

Q. conjugate the auxiliary *to have.*

TO HAVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

	A. Singular.		Plulal.
1st *per.*	I have.	1st *per.*	We have.
2nd *per.*	You have.	2nd *per.*	You have.
3rd *per.*	He has.	3rd *per.*	They have.

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.		Plural.
1st *per.*	I had.	1st *per.*	We had.
2nd *per.*	You had.	2nd *per.*	You had.
3rd *per.*	He had.	3rd *per.*	They had.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.—1st *per.* I shall or will have.
2nd *per.* You shall or will have.
3rd *per.* He shall or will have.
Plural.—1st *per.* We shall or will have.
2nd *per.* You shall or will have.
3rd *per.* They shall or will have.

PARTICIPLES.

	Imperfect.		Perfect.
	Having		had.
Imperative,	Have.	*Infinitive,*	To have.

CONJUGATION OF TO BE.

Lesson 38.

Q. Conjugate the verb *to be,* in connexion with the auxiliaries ?

TO BE.

PRESENT TENSE IMPERFECT.

A.	Singular.		Plural.
1st *per.*	I am.	1st *per.*	We are.
2nd *per*	You are	2nd *per.*	You are.
3rd *per.*	He is.	3rd *per.*	They are.

PAST TENSE IMPERFECT.

	Singular.		Plural.
1st *per.*	I was.	1st *per.*	We were.
2nd *per.*	You were.	2nd *per.*	You were.
3rd *per.*	He was.	3rd *per.*	They were.

FUTURE TENSE IMPERFECT.

	Singular.		Plural.
1st *per.*	I shall be.	1st *per.*	We shall be.
2nd *per.*	You shall be.	2nd *per.*	You shall be.
3rd *per.*	He shall be.	3rd *per.*	They shall be.

PRESENT TENSE PERFECT.

	Singular.		Plural.
1st *per.*	I have been.	1st *per.*	We have been.
2nd *per.*	You have been.	2nd *per.*	You have been.
3rd *per.*	He has been.	3rd *per.*	They have been.

PAST TENSE PERFECT.

	Singular.		Plural.
1st *per.*	I had been.	1st *per.*	We had been.
2nd *per.*	You had been.	2nd *per.*	You had been.
3rd *per.*	He had been.	3rd *per.*	They had been.

FUTURE TENSE PERFECT.

Singular.—	1st	*per.*	I shall have been.
	2nd	*per.*	You will have been.
	3rd	*per.*	He will have been.
Plural.—	1st	*per.*	We shall have been.
	2nd	*per.*	You will have been.
	3rd	*per.*	They will have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect.	*Perfect.*
Being.	been.

Infinitive, To be. *Imperative,* Be.

ON THE TENSES.

Lesson 39.

Q. What does the *present tense imperfect* denote ?

A. The present tense imperfect shews an action going on at this present time, but not finished; as—I *am advising* you now.

Q. What does the *past imperfect* shew ?

A. The past tense imperfect shews an action past, but not finished at the time spoken of; as—I *was advising* you yesterday.

Q. What does the *future imperfect* shew ?

A. The future tense imperfect shews a future action that will not be finished at the time spoken of; as—I *shall be advising* you to-morrow.

Q. What does the *present tense perfect* denote ?

A. The present tense perfect shews an action finished, but still in effect existing; as—I *have advised* you now.

Q. What does the *past perfect* express ?

A. The past tense perfect expresses an action as finished some time ago; as—I *had advised* you before yesterday.

Q. What is the *future tense perfect* ?

A. The future tense perfect declares that an action will be finished at some future time; as—I *shall have advised* you before this time to-morrow.

ON MOOD.

Lesson 40.

Q. Have you anything further to state respecting the verb *to be* ?

A. The verb *to be* has an inflection to express a manner or condition, which no other verb has. This inflection is called *mood,* which means mode or manner.

Q. Have not English verbs, then, generally that which is called mood ?

A. With the single exception of *to be,* verbs have no change by which a different mode of action can be expressed.

Q. Explain this by an example ?

A. For instance—I may or can love—is said to be the verb love in the Potential Mood, as implying liberty or power, but in reality it is the word *may* or *can,* which expresses liberty or power, and not the verb *love.*

Q. How, then, is it that Grammars generally have verbs arranged under moods ?

A. Because learned men have endeavoured to make our language conform to the structure of the Latin language, which has such moods.

Q. Give an illustration ?

A. In Latin we have

Indicative Mood.	*Potential Mood.*
Moneo, *I advise.*	Moneam, *I may or can advise.*

where there is a difference in the word which expresses *advise,* but in English there is none.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Lesson 41.

Q. Will you now give the inflection of the verb *to be*, which conveys the idea of a change of mood ?

TO BE.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

A. *Singular.*	*Plural.*
1st *per.* If I be.	1st *per.* If we be.
2nd *per.* If you be.	2nd *per.* If you be.
3rd *per.* If he be.	3rd *per.* If they be.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1st *per.* If I were.	1st *per.* If we were.
2nd *per.* If you were.	2nd *per.* If you were.
3rd *per.* If he were.	3rd *per.* If they were.

Q. What is the meaning of subjunctive ?

A. The term subjunctive is derived from the Latin sub, *under*, and jungere, *to join*, because it is usually joined to another sentence or dependent upon another verb, and implies a condition; as—I would go, if he were ready.

Q. Give another example ?

A. Another form of the subjunctive mood is contained in the following sentence—If he be there, and if he say anything, give him this.

Q. What have you to observe respecting this form ?

A. The same meaning is conveyed without the subjunctive; as—If he is there and if he says anything give him this,—because the doubt or contingency is expressed in the word *if*, which is merely a contraction of the old English gif, or give.

Q. Will you explain still further ?

A. The word *if* means just the same as *give that*, or *allow;* so that when I say—If he is there—it is equal to saying—Give that he is there, or—Allow he is there.

Lesson 42.

Q. Is the subjunctive frequently used ?

A. The subjunctive form of the verb is scarcely ever used now in conversation, or by the best writers of the present day.

Q. When should the subjunctive be used?

A. The subjunctive should only be used when future contingency is to be expressed.

Q. Give an explanation ?

A. It would be wrong to say—If an effort is now made it would be successful—because this is as much as affirming that an effort now at this present is made, when the true meanig of the expression is—If an effort should be made, or were to be made, it would be successful.

Q. Is there any real need for the subjunctive ?

A. There is no need of the subjunctive for expressing past or present doubt and contingency, as in these cases I can take the usual past and present tenses of the verb. To express future contingency, I must use the auxiliaries, *shall* and *should*, with the infinitive *be*.

Q. Give some examples in the present and past tenses ?

A. Speaking in the present tense, I need not use the subjunctive, but may say,—If the boy is good, he will have a reward.—He shall be punished if he has taken it. And in the past tense—If it was true I am sorry to hear it—Tell me if Gustavus has been there.

Q. Give an example of the future ?

A. The subjunctive must be used in speaking of future contingency, as—We shall go to-morrow, if it be fine; or more properly—if it should be fine.

PASSIVE VERBS.

Lesson 43.

Q. Are not some verbs called passive ?

A. Some verbs are called passive, but not properly so, as they do not become passive in meaning by in-

flection but by the addition of an auxiliary; as—I advised—is active, but by prefixing the word *am*, it is said to become passive; thus—I am advised.

Q. Did you not say that participles are sometimes called active and passive?

A. The participles when they are used with the various tenses of the verb *to be* are called active or passive, according as they give an active or a passive signification to the expression.

Q. Conjugate the active and passive participles *advising* and *advised*, in connexion with the tenses of *to be*? (See verb *to be*, page 37.)

ACTIVE.

PRESENT TENSE IMPERFECT.

A. *Singular.*			*Plural.*		
1st	*per.*	I am advising.	1st	*per.*	We are advising.
2nd	*per.*	You are advising	2nd	*per.*	You are advising.
3rd	*per.*	He is advising	3rd	*per.*	They are advising.

PAST TENSE IMPERFECT.

Singular.			*Plural.*		
1st	*per.*	I was advising.	1st	*per.*	We were advising.
2nd	*per.*	You were advising.	2nd	*per.*	You were advising.
3rd	*per.*	He was advising	3rd	*per.*	They were advising.

FUTURE TENSE IMPERFECT.

Singular.—	1st	*per.*	I shall be advising.
	2nd	*per.*	You will be advising.
	3rd	*per.*	He will be advising.
Plural.—	1st	*per.*	We shall be advising.
	2nd	*per.*	You will be advising.
	3rd	*per.*	They will be advising.

PRESENT TENSE PERFECT.

Singular.—	1st	*per.*	I have been advising.
	2nd	*per.*	You have been advising.
	3rd	*per.*	He has been advising.
Plural.—	1st	*per.*	We have been advising.
	2nd	*per.*	You have been advising.
	3rd	*per.*	They have been advising.

PAST TENSE PERFECT.

Singular.—	1st	*per.*	I had been advising.
	2nd	*per.*	You had been advising.
	3rd	*per.*	He had been advising.
Plural.—	1st	*per.*	We had been advising.
	2nd	*per.*	You had been advising.
	3rd	*per.*	They had been advising.

FUTURE TENSE PERFECT.

Singular.—	1st	*per.*	I shall have been advising.
	2nd	*per.*	You will have been advising.
	3rd	*per.*	He will have been advising.
Plural.—	1st	*per.*	We shall have been advising.
	2nd	*per.*	You will have been advising.
	3rd	*per.*	They will have been advising.

PASSIVE.

PRESENT TENSE IMPERFECT.

Singular.			*Plural.*		
1st	*per.*	I am advised.	1st	*per.*	We are advised.
2nd	*per.*	You are advised.	2nd	*per.*	You are advised.
3rd	*per.*	He is advised.	3rd	*per.*	They are advised.

PAST TENSE IMPERFECT.

1st	*per.*	I was advised.	1st	*per.*	We were advised.
2nd	*per.*	You were advised.	2nd	*per.*	You were advised.
3rd	*per.*	He was advised.	3rd	*per.*	They were advised.

FUTURE TENSE IMPERFECT.

Singular.—	1st	*per.*	I shall be advised.
	2nd	*per.*	You will be advised.
	3rd	*per.*	He will be advised.
Plural.—	1st	*per.*	We shall be advised.
	2nd	*per.*	You will be advised.
	3rd	*per.*	They will be advised.

PRESENT TENSE PERFECT.

Singular.—1st *per.* I have been advised.
2nd *per.* You have been advised.
3rd *per.* He has been advised.

Plural.—1st *per.* We have been advised.
2nd *per.* You have been advised.
3rd *per.* They have been advised.

PAST TENSE PERFECT.

Singular.—1st *per.* I had been advised.
2nd *per.* You had been advised.
3rd *per.* He had been advised.

Plural.—1st *per.* We had been advised.
2nd *per.* You had been advised.
3rd *per.* They had been advised.

FUTURE TENSE PERFECT.

Singular.—1st *per.* I shall have been advised.
2nd *per.* You will have been advised.
3rd *per.* He will have been advised.

Plural.—1st *per.* We shall have been advised.
2nd *per.* You will have been advised.
3rd *per.* They will have been advised.

INFLECTION OF ADVERBS

Lesson 46.

Q. Are adverbs inflected ?

A. There are not many adverbs varied by inflection; some, however, have degrees of comparison similarly to adjectives; the comparison is chiefly made by adding *er* or *est* to the positive form.

Q Give some examples ?

ADVERBS.

A. *Positive.*	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Badly,	Worse,	Worst.
Late,	Later,	Latest.
Little,	Less,	Least.
Much,	More,	Most.
Near,	Nearer,	Nearest. & next.
Often,	Oftener,	Oftenest.
Soon,	Sooner,	Soonest.
Well,	Better,	Best.

Q. Are not some adverbs called Compound ?

A. Some adverbs are called Compound adverbs and are formed of two or more words, as—anywhere (any where); thenceforth (thence forth); to-day; now-a-days, —and many others.

Q. Which adverbs are derived from adjectives ?

A. Adverbs derived from adjectives are principally adverbs of manner, and are generally formed by adding *ly* to the adjective; as—wretched, wretched*ly*; righteous, righteous*ly*, &c.

Q. How is the adverb formed if the adjective ends in *y* and *le* ?

A. When the adjective ends in *y* the adverb is formed by changing *y* into *i* and adding *ly* to it; as—happy, happ*ily*. When the adjective ends in *le*, the adverb is formed by changing *e* into *y*, as—terrible, terrib*ly*. (See appendix 2.)

PART V.—SYNTAX.

Lesson 47.

Q. What is Syntax ?

A. Syntax consists of those rules of grammar, which teach us to place words together in such arrangement as to form correct sentences. The word is derived from the Greek syn, *together*, and taxis, to *arrange*, or *place together*.

Q. Which is the first rule of syntax ?

A. Rule 1. A verb must be in the same number and person as the nominative case.

Q. Is this expression correct ?—He talk very much.

A. The sentence—He talk very much—is not correct, because the verb *talk* not being the third person singular number, is not in agreement with the nominative case *He*, which is the third person, singular number.

Q. Give some other examples ?

A. The expression—One of my rabbits are dead—should be—One of my rabbits is dead—in order that the verb may agree with the nominative case, *one*.—His knowledge of Greek and Latin shew his learning—should be—His knowledge of Greek and Latin shews his learning—that the verb *shews* may be in the same number and person as *knowledge*, the nominative.

Q. Give another application of this rule ?

A. When the nominative case is a noun which although singular in form, speaks of many, the rule must be applied according as the idea of singular or plural is intended to be conveyed; thus we say—the public is informed—mankind is governed by appearances—because we think of the public and mankind as one body; but we may say—the people are suffering,—because we think of the suffering being that of a number of persons.

Lesson 48.

Q. What is the second rule of syntax ?

A. Rule 2. The Objective case of nouns and of pronouns must follow an active verb or a preposition.

Q. Give an example of this rule ?

A. Johun struck Charles, because he disliked him. In this sentence, the noun *Charles* is objective, after the verb *struck;* and the pronoun *him* is the objective after the verb *disliked*.

Q. Another example ?

A. In the phrase—He sat by Victor—the noun *Victor* is said to be the objective case, after, or governed by the preposition *by*.

Lesson 49.

Q. Which is the third rule of syntax ?

A. Rule 3. The verb *to be* requires a nominative case of a pronoun or noun after it, as well as before it.

Q. Do we mean only the words *to be ?*

A. We mean by the verb *to be*, that verb in all its inflections, as the words *am, is, are, was, were,* &c. which are parts of the verb *to be*.

Q. Correct the phrase—Charles is him—and explain why it should be altered ?

A. The phrase—Charles is *him*—is not correct; it should be—Charles is *he*—because the noun *Charles* being in the nominative case, I must put the same case after *is*, (a part of the verb *to be*) according to the rule; therefore I use the nominative pronoun *he*.

Q. Correct the following sentences—It is me. It was not her who did it ?

A. To speak correctly, I must say—It is *I*. It was not *she* who did it.

Q. Is there a reason for this rule ?

A. The reason why the nominative case must follow the verb *to be*, is because that verb implies being or existence only, and not action.

Q. Explain this further ?

A. If *to be* were an active verb, I should completely alter the meaning of any sentence by changing the places of the nouns or pronouns; as in—I love you, —*love* being an active verb, by transposing the pronouns I should have to say—You love me—but in the phrase—Newton was a wise man—I make no alteration in the sense by saying—A wise man was Newton—because *to be* expresses only being or existing.

Lesson 36.

Q. What is the next rule of syntax ?

A. Rule 4. When two nouns with different meanings come together, the first must be in the possessive case; but when the nouns signify the same person or thing, they must be in the same case.

Q. Give some examples ?

A. If I say—this is Sidney's kite—the noun *Sidney* is in the possessive case, *Sidney* being the possessor of the kite—so also—Alfred's book—the lion's mane, &c.

Q. Now some examples of the other part of this rule ?

A. When two nouns signify the same thing, they must be put in the same case: in—Byron the poet—both nouns are nominative, as they point out the same person.

Lesson 51.

Q. Give another rule of syntax ?

A. Rule 5. When two verbs come together, the latter must be put in the infinitive, as I try to write.

Q. Is anything applying to this rule to be observed ?

A. The *to* of the infinitive must be omitted after the verbs *bid, can, dare, feel, hear, let, make, may, must, need, shall, see* and *will.*

Q. Explain this further. ?

A. We must say—I can write—not—I can to write—You may go—not—You may to go.

Lesson 52.

Q. What is the next rule of syntax ?

A. Rule 6. When verbs relating to time are in connexion with each other, the proper tense of each must be used.

Q. Explain the rule by an example ?

A. It is wrong to say—I meant to have written—we ought to say—I meant to write.

Q. Illustrate the rule still further ?

A. We often say—I should have liked to have gone—instead of—I should have liked to go—for at the time spoken of, *to go* was the thing desired, not—*to have gone.*

Lesson 53.

Q. Give another rule of syntax ?

A. Rule 7 Pronouns must agree in number, gender, case, and person with the nouns, instead of which they are used.

Q. Shew me an example of the rule ?

A. In the sentence—the boy learns his lesson—the pronoun *his* is of the singular number, masculine gender, possessive case, third person, as the noun boy's would be, for which the pronoun *his* is used.

Q. Correct the phrase—Every one to their seats ?

A. This should be—Every one to his seat—because one being in the singular number, &c. the pronoun *his* agrees with it, and not the pronoun *their.*

Lesson 54.

Q. Which is the next rule of syntax ?

A. Rule 8 Conjunctions must connect the same cases together; as—Sam *and* I went—He called Sam *and* me.

Q. Why do you say Sam and I in one case, and Sam and me in the other ?

A. Because the word Sam in the first sentence is in the nominative case, and in the second it is in the odjective case, after the verb *called.* Therefore, I put the pronouns which follow the conjunction *and* in the same cases. The first is equivalent to saying—Sam went, and I went—the other is the same as—He called Sam, and he called me.

Q. Are there many other rules of syntax ?

A. There are many other rules of syntax, but they are at present of minor importance, and may be left for study until some future time. The rules already given are the principal ones, and if they are clearly understood, will enable any one to guard against gross mistake.

PUNCTUATION OR POINTING.

Lesson 55.

Q. What are the points and stops made use of in writing ?

A. The stops used in writing and in printing are the Comma (,), the Semi-colon (;), the Colon (:), the Period or Full Stop (.), the Interrogation (?), and the Exclamation, or Note of Admiration (!)

Q. What is the use of the comma ?

A. The comma shews the shortest pause that we usually make in speaking.

Q. What is the use of the semi-colon ?

A. The semi-colon implies a longer pause than the comma denotes, and is used to divide portions of a sentence which the comma would be insufficient to keep distinct.

Q. What is the colon ?

A. The colon marks the end of a sentence, when there is another sentence beyond, which renders the sense complete.

Q. What is the full stop ?

A. The period, or full stop, is used at the end of every completed sentence; and after abbreviated words, as Nom. for Nominative, S. for South, Q. and A. for question and answer.

Q. What is the use of the interrogation ?

A. The interrogation is used to denote that a question is asked.

Q. What does the note of admiration or exclamation shew ?

A. The exclamation shews which words or sentences are to be taken as exclamatory.

Q. Is it necessary to know how to use these stops ?

A. It is desirable to be able to use the points in a proper manner, because the meaning of a sentence may sometimes be completely altered by the pointing.

Q. Give an example of incorrect pointing ?

A. Julius Cæsar landed twice upon the island the first time; he did little more than debark his troops and drive off the natives the second time; he advanced into the country and crossed the Thames.

Q. Correct the pointing in the above sentence ?

A. Julius Cæsar landed twice upon the island; the first time he did little more than debark his troops, and drive off the natives; the second time he advanced into the country and crossed the Thames.

Q. Are there any rules for using the stops ?

A. There are no precise rules for pointing, it must be left to the taste and judgment, and depends upon the sense in which the subject is to be understood.

MARKS USED IN WRITING AND PRINTING.

Lesson 56.

Q. What other marks are used in writing and printing ?

A. The Parenthesis ( ), the Apostrophe (’), the Asterisk (*), the Cross (†), the Parallels (‖), the Paragraph (¶) and the Section (§).

Q. What is the parenthesis used for ?

A. The parenthesis is used to enclose one sentence within another; as—He appeared and waved his bonnet (the signal agreed on) on the summit of the hill.

Q. For what purpose is the apostrophe used ?

A. The apostrophe is used to contract a word; as—

boro' for borough, and to mark the possessive case, as —St. Paul's.

Q. For what are the other signs used ?

A. The other signs are generally used to refer to some note at the bottom of a page; the ¶ is also used to mark off a paragraph in the Bible, and § is sometimes used instead of the word section.

Q. What is a hyphen ?

A. A hyphen is a mark used to join syllables or words together; as al-ready, semi-colon: it is thus marked (-).

Q. What is a caret ?

A. The caret is a sign of something left out and of a contracted syllable; it is marked thus (ʌ).

ON PARSING.

Lesson 57.

Q. What is Parsing ?

A. Parsing is telling to what part of speech any word belongs, what are its inflections, and what relation it has to other words in a sentence.

Q. How is parsing to be learnt ?

A. A knowledge of parsing cannot be altogether acquired from rules, or from lists of words of the various parts of speech.

Q. How can this be ?

A. In the exercises on the parts of speech (page 15) the same word was seen to be an adjective, a noun, and a verb, according to its relation with the other words in the sentence.

Q. If, then, there is this uncertainty as to what part of speech a word belongs, how are we able to parse ?

A. By careful attention to the principles and rules which have been given, we may generally be able to tell to what part of speech any word belongs.

PARSING TABLE.

Verb.	Kind ? Tense ? Person ? Number ? Agreement ?		Rule of Syntax ?
Noun.	Kind ? Gender ? Number ? Case ?		Rule ?
Pronoun.	Kind ? Gender ? Person ? Number ? Case ?		Rule ?
Adjective.	Kind ? Comparison ? Referring to what Noun ?		
Participle.	Kind ? Referring to what Noun ? From what Verb ?		
Adverb.	Kind ? Comparison ? From what Adjective ?		
Preposition. Conjunction. Interjection.	Why ?		

EXERCISE ON PARSING.

Lesson 58.

Q. Parse the following sentence—A bee amongst the flowers in spring is one of the most cheerful objects; its life appears to be all enjoyment ?

A *A*—is an indefinite numeral adjective, referring to the noun *bee*.

bee—common noun; common gender; singular number; nominative case to the verb *is*. (Answers to question What is ? see page 21.

amongst—preposition, shewing the relation between *bee* and *flowers*.

the—adjective, pointing out the noun *flowers*.

flowers—common noun; neuter gender; plural number; objective case; after preposition *amongst*. Rule 2, Syntax. The objective case of nouns; pronouns, &c.

in—preposition, shewing the relation between *flowers* and *spring*.

spring—proper noun; neuter gender; (in poetry sometimes feminine) singular number; objective case; after preposition *in*. Rule 2.

is—auxiliary verb, inflection of *to be;* present tense; third person; singular number; agreeing with the nominative case *bee*. Rule 1. A verb must be &c.

one—numeral adjective; cardinal; no comparison.

of—preposition.

the—adjective, demonstrating *most cheerful objects*.

most—adverb of quantity; superlative degree; from *much*.

cheerful—adjective.

most cheerful—general adjective; superlative degree, referring to noun *objects*.

objects—common noun; neuter gender; plural number, objective case. Rule 2.

its—pronoun; personal; common gender; third person, singular number; possessive case.

life—noun; abstract; singular number; nominative case to verb *appears*. (What appears ? Ans. life appears. See page 21).

appears—verb, regular, intransitive; present tense; third person; singular number; agreeing with nominative case *life*. Rule 1.

to be—verb in the infinitive after verb *appears*. Rule 5. When two verb come together, &c.

all—indefinite numeral adjective; no comparison; referring to noun *enjoyment*.

enjoyment—abstract noun; singular number; objective* case after the compound verb *appears to be*. (What does life appear to be ? Ans. *all enjoyment;* therefore enjoyment is objective. Rule 2, syntax).

CAUTIONS.

Lesson 59.

Q. Give me some examples of improper and inelegant expression and correct them ?

A. The present tense is often improperly used instead of the past; as—He come home yesterday,—which should be—He came home yesterday.

The present tense should not be used instead of the future; as—I hope he comes to-morrow—for—I hope he will come home to-morrow—Who preaches to-night ? —instead of—Who will preach to-night ?

The past tense of an irregular verb must not be used instead of the perfect participle; thus—He has took it—instead of—He has taken it. I should have went —ought to be—I should have gone.

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* Although an intransitive verb does not take an objective case after it, yet there are some exceptions to this rule, of which the above is one; in fact the compound verb (*appears to be*) gives no completed meaning and therefore repuires an accusative after it.

The participle must not be used for the past tense, as—He done it, should be—He did it.

Q. How should the past tense and the participle be used ?

A. The perfect participle follows the verbs *have* and *be*, the past tense does not; as, *past tense*, I advised. *Perfect participle*, To be advised. *Past tense*, They spoke. *Perfect participle*, They have spoken.

Q. Are not adjectives sometimes inproperly used instead of adverbs ?

A. yes: we ought not to say—She plays beautiful—but—She plays beautifully. He is a particular good boy—should be—He is a particularly good boy. He knows his lesson perfect—ought to be—He knows his lesson perfectly.

Q. Correct the following expressions—I got a new knife—He has got my book ?

A. Got is a vulgar and generally redundant word often used instead of the verb *to have*. Instead of the above phrases, we should say—I have a new knife. He has my book.

Q. Correct this expression—John has been and struck me ?

A. This should be—John has struck me—or—John came and struck me.

Q. Correct the following—Lay down on the grass. He laid there all day ?

A. Lie down on the grass. He lay there all day.

Q. Name the past tenses and perfect participles of *lay* and *lie* ?

A.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Participle.*
(I) lay, *to place.*	(I) laid.	(I have) laid.
(I) lie, *to lie down.*	(I) lay.	(I have) lain.

Q. Correct these expressions—Set down. He set there ?

A. *Sit* down. He *sat* there.

Q. Name the past tenses and perfect participles of *set* and *sit* ?

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Participle.*
(I) set (*a trap*).	(I) set.	(I have) set
(I) sit (*down*).	(I) sat.	(I have) sitten

PART VI.—PROSODY.

Lesson 60.

Q. What is Prosody ?

A. Prosody, from pros, *to*, and ode, *a song* is that branch of Grammar which relates to pronunciation and versification.

Q. What is pronunciation ?

A. Pronunciation is the tone of voics, and manner of speech which we use in reading or speaking.

Q. What further have you to say of pronunciation ?

A. That branch of prosody which relates to pronunciation is divided into accent and intonation.

Q. What is accent ?

A. Accent is the emphasis or greater stress of voice which is used in pronouncing certain syllables; the word is from the Latin accentus, *a tone*.

Q. How is the accent marked ?

A. The principal is marked (′), and denotes that a greater stress is to be laid on a syllable; as—rápture. The inferior accent, marked thus (ˈ), shews a lesser degree of force, as—accèss.

Q. What is intonation ?

A. Intonaion is the rising or the falling of the voice, suitably to the subject which is being read or spoken; from the Latin in, *in*; tonare *to sound loud*.

Q. What is versification ?

A. Versification is the art of poetry, or the arrangement of words into sentences of regular accented intervals.

Q. Will it be necessary to enter fully into the subject of prosody ?

A. At present, it will be scarcely useful to enter more fully into the subject of prosody, especially as pronunciation may be considered to belong properly to the art of rhetoric.

Q. What is Rhetoric ?

A. Rhetoric is an advanced kind of Grammar, from rhetorike, *oratory*, the art of speaking and writing with elegance.

I. NOUNS DERIVED FROM THE ANCIENT LANGUAGES.

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Antithesis	Antitheses	Erratum	Errata
Appendix	Appendices *	Genius	Genii *
Arcanum	Arcana	Genus	Genera
Automaton	Automata *	Hypothesis	Hypotheses
Axis	Axes	Index	Indices *
Basis	Bases	Lamina	Laminæ
Calx	Calcess	Magus	Magi
Cherub	Cherubim	Medium	Media *
Crisis	Crises	Memorandum	Memoranda *
Criterion	Criteria	Metamorphosis	Metamorphoses
Datum	Data	Phenomenon	Phenomena
Diœresis	Diœreses	Radius	Radii
Effluvium	Effluvia	Seraph	Seraphim
Ellipsis	Ellipses	Stamen	Stamina
Emphasis	Emphases	Stratum	Strata
Encomium	Encomia *	Vortex	Vortices

Those marked thus * form their plural also regularly.

II — ADVERBS.

In order to facilitate the progress of the pupil in parsing, the following lists of Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions are given for reference, as being words less easily recognised than the other parts of speech.

ADVERBS OF MANNER.

Answering to *how ?*

Adverbs of manner are very numerous, and are mostly formed from adjectives by adding the termination *ly* and may generally be compared by the words *more* and *most* prefixed.

Alone	Covertly	Rapidly
At once	Desperately	Recklessly
Alternately	Despondingly	Resolutely
Awkwardly	Daringly	Swiftly
Badly	Fast	Slowly
Blindly	Foolishly	Stealthily
Boldly	Gracefully	Singly
Carefully	Ill	Separately
Carelessly	Incautiously	Thoughtfully
Calmly	Madly	Timidly
Cautiously	Openly	Togethrer &c &c.

These and all other adverbs fromed form their corresponding adjectives, answer to the question *how ?* How did they go ? Ans. Alone, or at once, or alternately. All the above adverbs may be used in reply.

PRINCIPAL ADVERBS OF SITUATION.

Answering to *where ? whence ? whither ?*

Abed	Down	Near
About	Downward	Nigh
Above	Elsewhere	Nowhere
Abroad	Everywhere	Off
Across	Far	On
After	Forth	Onward
Along	Forward	Over
Anywhere	Further	Out
Apart	Hard by	Outside
Around	Hence	Outward
Aside	Here	Round
At hand	Herein	Somewhere
At home	Hereabouts	Thence
Away	High	There
Back	Hither	Thereabouts
Backward	Hitherward	Thither
Before	Home	Thitherward
Behind	Homeward	Throughout
Below	In	Together
Beneath	Inward	Under
By	Low	Undermost

Adverbs of Situation—Continued.

Underneath	Upward	Without
Up	Whithersoever	Wherever
Uppermost	Within	Yonder

PRINCIPAL ADVERBS OF TIME.

Answering to *when ?*

Ago	Hereafter	Now-a-days
Already	Henceforth	Perpetually
Always	Henceforward	Presently
Anon	Hitherto	Soon
At present	Instantly	Some time ago
Before	Incessantly	Speedily
Continually	Immediately	Still
Early	Lately	Till
Eternally	Last	Thenceforth
Ere now	Late	Thenceforward
Ere long	Long	To-day
Ever	Long ago	To-morrow
First	Next	Until
Formerly	Now	Yesterday

PRINCIPAL ADVERBS OF QUANTITY.

Answering to *how much ?*

Almost	Least	Scarcely
Altogether	Much	Something
Downright	More	Thus
Enough	Most	Too
A little	Quite	Very
Less	Scarce	

Answering to *how often ?*

Oft	Now-and-then	Hourly
Often	Never	Daily
Frequently	Once	Weekly
Sometimes	Twice	Monthly
Seldom	Thrice	Yearly

ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION.

Certainly	Surely	Yea
Doublless	Truly	Yes
Really	Verily	Undoubtedly

ADVERBS OF DENIAL.

No	Not	No-wise	Nay

ADVERBS OF ASKING.

When	Why	Wherefore	How

ADVERBS OF DOUBT.

Perhaps	Peradventure	Possibly
Perchance	Probably	

III.—PRINCIPAL PREPOSITIONS.

Above	Betwixt	Round
About	Beyond	Since
Across	By	Through
After	Down	Throughout
Against	During	Till
Along	For	To
Amidst	From	Towards
Amongst	In	Upon
Around	Into	Until
At	Near	Unto
Before	Of	Under
Behind	Off	Underneath
Below	On	With
Beneath	Out	Within
Beside	Over	Without
Between		

Some of these prepositions have already been given in the list of adverbs, as according to their use in any sentence, many words vary in their character, and belong sometimes to one part of speech, sometimes to another; the pupil, by analyzing the sentence, will soon be able to tell accurately the proper character of each word.

IV.—PRINCIPAL CONJUNCTIONS.

As	However	Only
And	Hence	Still
Also	Indeed	Since
Although	If	So
Besides	Lest	Too
But	Likewise	Though
Both	Moreover	Therefore
Becaues	Nevertheless	Than
Consequently	Now	Then
Even	Nor	Unless
Else	Neither	While
Either	Notwithstanding	Whereas
Except	Or	Yet
For	Otherwise	

GROOMBRIDGE AND SONS, PATERNOSTER ROW.

Some of these prepositions have already been given in the list of adverbs, according to their use in any sentence, many words vary in their character, and belong sometimes to one part of speech, sometimes to another; the scholar by analyzing the sentence will soon be able to tell accurately the proper character of each word.

D.—PROPER NOUNS CONTINUED.

As	Hereupon	Ought
And	Hence	Still
Also	Indeed	Since
Although	If	So
Besides	Just	Too
But	Likewise	Though
Both	Moreover	Therefore
Because	Nevertheless	Then
Consequently	Now	Than
Lest	Not	Unless
Else	Neither	While
Either	Nor	Whereas
Except	One	Yet
For	Other	

[illegible]