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英吉利文典
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THE
ELEMENTARY CATECHISMS.

ENGLISH
GRAMMAR.

TOKIYO.

MEI-JI III.

英吉和文典

明治三年庚午孟春

福田氏藏版





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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 modes 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, 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 *eustard*.
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*, *col*, *cut*, *clash*, &c.
Q. When is it pronounced differently?
A. *C* is soft, or like *s*, before *e*, *i*, *æ*, *y*, thus, *cell*, *cinder*, *Cæsar*, *cypher*.

Q. What other sounds?

A. *C* has also the sound of *tʃ*, thus, *child* is pronounced *tʃild*; 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 *qu* 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, *kyrd* 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 language 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*, *taught-ter*, *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 *etimos*, *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 frogged.*

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 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 *windy, snowy, manly, heavenly, hopeful, fearful, lifeless, hopeless, foolish, childish, &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 *truly*, *vastly*, &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 *folios* the inflection is from *folio*, in *walked* 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 plural?

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

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

PLURAL OF NOUNS.

Lesson 18.

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

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

Q. Another rule?

A. Nouns ending with *y*, and which have no vowel before the *y*, make the plural by *ies*, as berry, berries; 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, bays; key, keys; boy, boys; guy, guys; &c.

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

A. These nouns retain the Anglo-Saxon plural *en*: man, men; woman, women, ox, oxen; child, children; in some places, house, houses; shoe, shoes.

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.

*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—tables 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, chimneys, 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. Nouns which refer to either sex are called of the common gender; as the one word *bird* or *servant* may be used 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*—*rain*, *ewer*. Thirdly, by a different termination—as *heir*, *heiress*—*governor*, *governess*—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 possessive case denotes possession, hence its name.

Q. Decline the nouns *child* and *boy*?

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
A. <i>Nom.</i>	Child.	Children.
<i>Obj.</i>	Child.	Children.
<i>Poss.</i>	Child's.	Children's.
<i>Nom.</i>	Boy.	Boys.
<i>Obj.</i>	Boy.	Boys.
<i>Poss.</i>	Boy's.	Boys'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 25.

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—*bounteous*, *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 show* 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*?

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>		<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>This.</i>	<i>These.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Other.</i>	<i>Others.</i>
<i>That.</i>	<i>Those.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Other's.</i>	<i>Others'.</i>

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 demonstrate 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 con-

sonants, 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, every, 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.
A.			
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.
Which.	Which.	Whose.

A. Which. Which. Whose.

The pronoun *that* is not declined.

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

Lesson 50.

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 talk*—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 singular ?

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 form ?

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 51.

Q. What is meant by the tense of 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 *loved*, 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 tenses formed by inflection, but in English we have only the past tense so formed.

PARTICIPLES.

Lesson 52.

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 55.

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.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
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.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
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.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
1st per. I shall advise.	1st per. We shall advise.
2nd per. You will advise.	2nd per. You will advise.
3rd per. He will advise.	3rd per. They will advise.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Imper.</i>	<i>Perf.</i>
Advising.	Advised.
<i>Imperative, Advise.</i>	<i>Infinitive, To Advise.</i>

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.*

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Advise.	advised.	advised.

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.*

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
<i>may.</i>	<i>might.</i>	

To GIVE.

Lesson 35.

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

PRESENT TENSE.	
<p>A. <i>Singular.</i> 1st per. I give. 2nd per. You give. 3rd per. He gives,</p>	<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Plural.</i> 1st per. We give. 2nd per. You give. 3rd per. They give.</p>
PAST TENSE.	
<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Singular.</i> 1st per. I gave. 2nd per. You gave. 3rd per. He gave.</p>	<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Plural.</i> 1st per. We gave. 2nd per. You gave. 3rd per. They gave.</p>
FUTURE TENSE.	
<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Singular.</i> 1st per. I shall give. 2nd per. You will give. 3rd per. He will give.</p>	<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Plural.</i> 1st per. We shall give. 2nd per. You will give. 3rd per. They will give.</p>
PARTICIPLES.	
<p><i>Imperfect.</i> Giving. <i>Imperative give,</i></p>	<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Perfect.</i> given. <i>Infinitive. To give,</i></p>

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

<i>Imper.</i>	<i>Tenses.</i>	<i>Per.</i>	<i>Tenses.</i>
<i>Pres.</i> I am loving, &c.		<i>Pres.</i> I have loved, &c.	
<i>Past.</i> I was loving &c.		<i>Past.</i> I had loved, &c.	
<i>Fut.</i> I shall be loving, &c.		<i>Fut.</i> 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.

<p>A. <i>Singular.</i> 1st per. I shall. 2nd per. You shall. 3rd per. He shall.</p>	<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Plural.</i> 1st per. We shall. 2nd per. You shall. 3rd per. They shall.</p>
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PAST TENSE.

<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Singular.</i> 1st per. I should. 2nd per. You should. 3rd per. He should.</p>	<p style="text-align: right;"><i>Plural.</i> 1st per. We should. 2nd per. You should. 3rd per. They should.</p>
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<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per.	I will.	1st per.	We will.
2nd per.	You will.	2nd per.	Yeu will.
3rd per.	He will.	3rd per.	They will.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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. Conjngate the auxiliary *to have*.

TO HAVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

A. <i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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,

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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.

<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
Having.	had.
<i>Imperative,</i> Have	<i>Infinitive,</i> 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. <i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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 IMPRFEECT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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.

<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
Being.	been.
<i>Infinitive, To be.</i>	<i>Imperative, Be.</i>

ON THE TENSES.

Lesson 59.

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.

<i>Indicative Mood.</i>	<i>Potential Mood.</i>
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. <i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
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 *giſ*, 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 meaning 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, 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-

flexion 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. <i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per. I am advising.	1st per. We are advising.	1st per. We are advising.	1st per. We are advising.
2nd per. You are advising.	2nd per. You are advising.	2nd per. You are advising.	2nd per. You are advising.
3rd per. He is advising.	3rd per. They are advising.	3rd per. They are advising.	3rd per. They are advising.

PAST TENSE IMPERFECT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per. I was advising.	1st per. We were advising.	1st per. We were advising.	1st per. We were advising.
2nd per. You were advising.	2nd per. You were advising.	2nd per. You were advising.	2nd per. You were advising.
3rd per. He was advising.	3rd per. They were advising.	3rd per. They were advising.	3rd per. They were advising.

FUTURE TENSE IMPERFECT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per. I shall be advising.	1st per. We shall be advising.	1st per. We shall be advising.	1st per. We shall be advising.
2nd per. You will be advising.	2nd per. You will be advising.	2nd per. You will be advising.	2nd per. You will be advising.
3rd per. He will be advising.	3rd per. They will be advising.	3rd per. They will be advising.	3rd per. They will be advising.

PRESENT TENSE PERFECT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per. I have been advising.	1st per. We have been advising.	1st per. We have been advising.	1st per. We have been advising.
2nd per. You have been advising.	2nd per. You have been advising.	2nd per. You have been advising.	2nd per. You have been advising.
3rd per. He has been advising.	3rd per. They have been advising.	3rd per. They have been advising.	3rd per. They have been advising.

PAST TENSE PERFECT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per. I had been advising.	1st per. We had been advising.	1st per. We had been advising.	1st per. We had been advising.
2nd per. You had been advising.	2nd per. You had been advising.	2nd per. You had been advising.	2nd per. You had been advising.
3rd per. He had been advising.	3rd per. They had been advising.	3rd per. They had been advising.	3rd per. They had been advising.

FUTURE TENSE PERFECT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per. I shall have been advising.	1st per. We shall have been advising.	1st per. We shall have been advising.	1st per. We shall have been advising.
2nd per. You will have been advising.	2nd per. You will have been advising.	2nd per. You will have been advising.	2nd per. You will have been advising.
3rd per. He will have been advising.	3rd per. They will have been advising.	3rd per. They will have been advising.	3rd per. They will have been advising.

PASSIVE.

PRESENT TENSE IMPERFECT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per. I am advised.	1st per. We are advised.	1st per. We are advised.	1st per. We are advised.
2nd per. You are advised.	2nd per. You are advised.	2nd per. You are advised.	2nd per. You are advised.
3rd per. He is advised.	3rd per. They are advised.	3rd per. They are advised.	3rd per. They are advised.

PAST TENSE IMPERFECT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per. I was advised.	1st per. We were advised.	1st per. We were advised.	1st per. We were advised.
2nd per. You were advised.	2nd per. You were advised.	2nd per. You were advised.	2nd per. You were advised.
3rd per. He was advised.	3rd per. They were advised.	3rd per. They were advised.	3rd per. They were advised.

FUTURE TENSE IMPERFECT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
1st per. I shall be advised.	1st per. We shall be advised.	1st per. We shall be advised.	1st per. We shall be advised.
2nd per. You will be advised.	2nd per. You will be advised.	2nd per. You will be advised.	2nd per. You will be advised.
3rd per. He will be advised.	3rd per. They will be advised.	3rd per. They 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,	Oftenest,	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, wretchedly; righteous, righteously, &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, happily. When the adjective ends in *le*, the adverb is formed by changing *e* into *y*, as—terribly.
 (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 *knowlepge*, 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 preposition.

Q. Give an example of this rule ?

A. John 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 30.

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 31.

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 32.

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 33.

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 34.

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 objective 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^s 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 (^).

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

	Rule of Syntax?
VERB.	Kind? Tense? Person? Number? Agreement?
NOUN.	Kind? Gender? Number? Case?
PRONOUN.	Kind? Gender? Person? Number? Case?
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.

* 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 requires 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 improperly 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 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.	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
(I)	lay, <i>to place.</i>	(I) laid.	(I have) laid.
(I)	lie, <i>to lie down.</i>	(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*?

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Participle.</i>
(I) set (<i>a trap</i>).	(I) set.	(I have) set
(I) sit (<i>down</i>).	(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 voice, 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 of 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 (^), shews a lesser degree of force, as—*accéss*.

Q. What is intonation?

A. Intonation 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.

APPENDIX.

I. NOUNS DERIVED FROM THE ANCIENT.

LANGUAGES.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Antithesis	Antitheses	Erratum	Errata
Appendix	Appendices*	Genius	Genii*
Arcanum	Arcana	Genus	Genera
Automaton	Automata*	Hypothesis	Hypotheses
Axis	Axes	Index	Indices*
Basis	Bases	Lamina	Laminae
Calx	Calces	Magus	Magi
Cherub	Cherubim	Medium	Media*
Crisis	Crises	Memorandum	Memoranda*
Criterion	Criteria	Metamorphosis	Metamorphoses
Datum	Data	Phenomenon	Phenomena
Dieresis	Diereses	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 adjective by adding the termination *ly* and may generally be compared by the words *more* and *most* prefixed.

Alone
At once
Alternately
Awkwardly
Badly
Blindly
Boldly
Carefully
Carelessly
Calmly
Cautiously

APPENDIX.
Covertly
Desperately
Despondingly
Daringly
Fast
Foolishly
Gracefully
Ill
Incautiously
Madly
Openly

Rapidly
Recklessly
Resolutely
Swiftly
Slowly
Stealthily
Singly
Separately
Thoughtfully
Timidly
Together &c &c.

These and all other adverbs formed from 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
About
Above
Abroad
Across
After
Along
Anywhere
Apart
Around
Aside
At hand
At home
Away
Back
Backward
Before
Behind
Below
Beneath
By

Down
Downward
Elsewhere
Everywhere
Far
Forth
Forward
Further
Hard by
Hence
Here
Herein
Hereabouts
High
Hither
Hitherward
Home
Homeward
In
Inward
Low

Near
Nigh
Nowhere
Off
On
Onward
Over
Out
Outside
Outward
Round
Somewhere
Thence
There
Thereabouts
Thither
Thitherward
Throughout
Together
Under
Undermost

Adverbs of Situation—Continued.

Underneath
Up
Uppermost

Upward
Whithersoever
Within

Without
Wherever
Yonder

[PRINCIPAL ADVERBS OF TIME.]

Answering to *when?*

Ago
Already
Always
Anon
At present
Before
Continually
Early
Eternally
Ere now
Ere long
Ever
First
Formerly

Hereafter
Henceforth
Henceforward
Hitherto
Instantly
Incessantly
Immediately
Lately
Last
Late
Long
Long ago
Next
Now

Now-a-days
Perpetually
Presently
Soon
Some time ago
Speedily
Still
Till
Thenceforth
Thenceforward
To-day
To-morrow
Until
Yesterday

PRINCIPAL ADVERBS OF QUANTITY.

Answering to *how much?*

Almost
Altogether
Downright
Enough
A little
Less

Least
Much
More
Most
Quite
Scarce

Scarcely
Something
Thus
Too
Very

Answering to *how often?*

Often
Often
Frequently
Sometimes
Seldom

Now-and-then
Never
Once
Twice
Thrice

Hourly
Daily
Weekly
Monthly
Yearly

ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION.

Certainly
Doubtless
Really

Surely
Truly
Verily

Yea
Yes
Undoubtedly

ADVERBS OF DENIAL.

No

Not

no-wise

Nay

ADVERBS OF ASKING.

When

Why

Wherefore

How

ADVERBS OF DOUBT.

Perhaps
Perchance

Peradventure
Probably

Possibly

III.—PRINCIPAL PREPOSITIONS.

Above
About
Across
After
Against
Along
Amidst
Amongst
Around
At
Before
Behind
Below
Beneath
Beside
Between

Betwixt
Beyond
By
Down
During
For
From
In
Into
Near
Of
Off
On
Out
Over

Round
Since
Through
Throughout
Till
To
Towards
Upon
Until
Unto
Under
Underneath
With
Within
Without

APPENDIX.

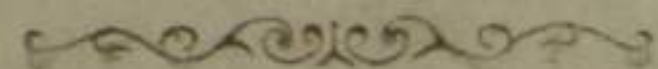
Some of these prepositions have already been given in the list of adverbs, as according to their use in any sentence, many words vary in their character, and belong sometimes to one part of speech, sometimes to another; the pupil, by analyzing the sentence, will soon be able to tell accurately the proper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

IV.—PRINCIPAL CONJUNCTIONS.

As
And
Also
Although
Besides
But
Both
Because
Consequently
Even
Else
Either
Except
For

However
Hence
Indeed
If
Lest
Likewise
Moreover
Nevertheless
Now
Nor
Neither
Notwithstanding
Or
Otherwise

Only
Still
Since
So
Too
Though
Therefore
Than
Then
Unless
While
Whereas
Yet



明治二年己巳十二月

官許

福田氏藏板



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