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The

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English Grammar.

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Contents.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Part I. — introduction.

Lesson I.

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 ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ —— abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

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, months, and years.

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 ABC.

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 form 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. When in the same syllable w 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 so, 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 z, 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 e, 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 o o, as in lose.

Q. What sounds has the letter u?

A. The vowel u has four sounds: like o o 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 consonats except h: thus call, cot, clash, &c.

Q. When is it pronounced differently?

A. C is soft, or like s, before e, i, x, y; thus cell, cinder, cæsar, cipher.

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 me 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, i, q, and x.

Q. Nor 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 Es, sex, 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, zh, 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. 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 rare— 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 variations.

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,—Noun,

ns, Verbs, Adjectives, Pronouns, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conbjunctions, 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. 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. 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 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 endorments; 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, 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. 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 latte, — yes, not, &c. (See pages 61–62 Appendex)

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 adverb follows 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. A Preposition is a word usually placed before nouns, and is derived from the Latin prex, before and positus, placed.

Q. Why is it so placed?

A. A preposition shows the connexion a noun has with other words in the sentence; 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 counter, feit, 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 — Gustarus, will you learen your lesson?

A. Because I use them for the noun Gustarus, in stead of saying — gustarus will gustarus learen gustarus 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 thy shew the relation between george's goding 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 inflections 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, 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 tine, 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, housen; shoe shoon.

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.

Q. Have any nouns two forms for the plural?

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

Brother	Brothers — of a family.
	Brethren — of a community.
Dice	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.

* See page 59, Appendix.

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

Gender.

Lesson 20.

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 — ram, ewe. 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 part 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 manij 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 anij 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 bij the verb, and is the objective case.

Q. Do ijou know the objective case in anij other waij?

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 maij the Possessive case be known?

A. The possessive case is known bij its ending in s, as — William's book, which is just the same as saijing — the book of william.

Lesson 22.

Q. Whij 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. Whij is the objective case so called?

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

Q. Whij is the Possessive case so named?

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

Q. Decline the nouns child and boij?

	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative...	child ...	children.
Objective ...	child ...	children.
Possessive ...	child's ...	children's.

Nominative...	Boij ...	Boijs.
Objective ...	Boij ...	Boijs.
Possessive ...	Boij's ...	Boijs.

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' 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: this 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 Adjectives.

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 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 sijllables ending in a consonant form the comparative bij adding er, and the superlative bij adding est to the positive; as small, smaller, smallest.

Q. In what other wajj?

A. The comparison of some adjectives is made bij an entirelij different form, as good, better, best.

Q. Give me a third method?

A. Words of three or more sijllables are generallij compared bij prefixing the adverbs, more and most, as — bounteous, more bounteous, most bounteous.

Kinds of adjectives.

Lesson 24.

Q. How manij kinds of adjectives are there?

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

Q. Which are the Demonstratire Adjectives?

A. The Demonstratire Adjectives are this and that.

Q. Whij are thejj so called?

A. Thejj are called Demonstratire because thejj Demonstrate, or point out the nouns to which thejj 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, thejj express both number and quantitij.

Q. How manij 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 anij particular number or quantitij, as — more, some, anij, &c. are called indefinite numeral adjectives.

Q. Is there anij 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 manij?, 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, everij, either, neither, manij, much, few, several, all, no, more, some, anij, enough, other, another, and only.

Q. What are General adjectives?

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

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

Singular.	Plural.		Singular.	Plural.
This.	These.	Nom. —	Other	Others.
That.	Those.	Poss. —	Other's	Others'

The Articles.

Lesson 25.

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

A. The little words an and the, although theij are usuallij considered as separate parts of speech, and called Articles, are in realitij 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 saij — Take an orange, I do not define or point out a particular orange.

Q. Is there anij 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 onlij used before consonants, before words beginning with h, and before the vowel u long, as — a cloud, a heap, a union. for one, not nun ook a, nies ow: manij a one, (one, nigen)

Q. Is there anij exception to this?

A. This rule is not without exception, because in some words from the Latin the letter h is not sounded, and theij maij 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 these words we alwaijs place an there.

Inflection of Adverbs.

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 increase 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 anij distinction bij which the case of a personal pronoun can be told?

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

Q. Will jou decline the personal pronouns in the singular number?

Singular number.

		Nom.	obj.	poss.
A. First Person		I, . . .	me,	Mij. / Mine.
Second Person		Jou,	jou,	Jour. / Jours.
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		Jou . . .	jou	Jou. / Jours.
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— mij and mine, our, ours, &c.

A. One form is used when the possessive is followed bij 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 jou for the second person singular?

A. Jes: thou was formerlij used instead of jou, as maij be seen in Scripture; and it is still used in addressing the Deitij, also frequentlij in poetrij, and generallij bij Quakers. Jou is alwajs used in ordinarij speaking or writing.

Q. Decline the personal pronoun thou:

Singular number

	Nom.	Obj.	Poss.
Second Person	Thou . . .	Thee . . .	Thij. / 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 boij who talked — who is the relative pronoun, and boij the antecedent.

Q. How manij relative pronouns are there?

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

Q. How are theij used?

A. Who is onlij used when we speak of persons, as — the boij who laughed. Which is applied either to animals or things, as — the lion which roars; the flowers which fade. That maij be used indiscriminatelij, 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:

Nominative	objective	possessive.
Who.	Whom.	Whose.

Q. Decline the relative pronoun which.

Nominative	objective	possessive.
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 bij 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 ijou to observe respecting one of the persons of verbs?

A. The second person plural of verbs, as well as of pronouns, is almost alwaijs used instead of the second person singular, as — ijou 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 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 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 additon 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 shall rule. 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 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 — I 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 partior 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.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I advise.	1st Person, We advise.
2nd Person, you advise.	2nd Person, you advise.
3rd Person, He advises.	3rd Person, They advise.

Past tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I advised.	1st Person, We advised.
2nd Person, you advised.	2nd Person, you advised.
3rd Person, He advised.	3rd Person, They advised.

Future tense.

Singular.	Plural.
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.

Imperfect.	Perfect.
Advising.	Advised.
Imperative, Advise.	Infinitive, To Advise.

Q. In conjugating the future tense, you used the words 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 sings 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.	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.

Present.	Past.	Participle.
May.	Might.	

To give.

Lesson 35.

Q. Conjugate the irregular verb, give.

Present tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I give.	1st Person, We give.
2nd Person, you give.	2nd Person, you give.
3rd Person, He gives.	3rd Person, They give.

Past tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I gave.	1st Person, We gave.
2nd Person, you gave.	2nd Person, you gave.
3rd Person, He gave.	3rd Person, 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.

Imperfect Tenses.	Perfect 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 tenses 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.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I shall.	1st Person, We shall.
2nd Person, You shall.	2nd Person, You shall.
3rd Person, He shall.	3rd Person, They shall.

Past tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I should.	1st Person, We should.
2nd Person, You should.	2nd Person, You should.
3rd Person, He should.	3rd Person, They should.

Will.

Present tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I will.	1st Person, We will.
2nd Person, You will.	2nd Person, You will.
3rd Person, He will.	3rd Person, They will.

Past tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I would.	1st Person, We would.
2nd Person, You would.	2nd Person, You would.
3rd Person, He would.	3rd Person, They would.

Q. Conjugate the auxiliary to have.

To have.

Present tense.

Singular.	Plural.

1st Person, I have.	1st Person, We have.
2nd Person, you have.	2nd Person, you have.
3rd Person, He has.	3rd Person, They have.

Past tense.

Singular	Plural.
1st Person, I had	1st Person, We had.
2nd Person, you had.	2nd Person, you had.
3rd Person, He had.	3rd Person, They had.

Future tense.

Singular. —— 1st Person, I shall or will have.
2nd Person, you shall or will have.
3rd Person, He shall or will have.

Plural —— 1st Person, We shall or will have.
2nd Person, you shall or will have.
3rd Person, 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.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I am.	1st Person, We are.
2nd Person, you are.	2nd Person, you are.
3rd Person, He is.	3rd Person, They are.

Past tense imperfect.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I was.	1st Person, We were.
2nd Person, you were.	2nd Person, you were.
3rd Person, He was.	3rd Person, They were.

Future tense imperfect.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, I shall be.	1st Person, We shall be.
2nd Person, you shall be.	2nd Person, you shall be.
3rd Person, He shall be.	3rd Person, 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 Person, I shall have been.
2nd Person, you will have been.
3rd Person, He will have been.
Plural. — 1st Person, We shall have been.
2nd Person, you will have been.
3rd Person, 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 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 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.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, if I be.	1st Person, if we be.
2nd Person, if you be.	2nd Person, if you be.
3rd Person, if he be.	3rd Person, if they be.

Past tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person, if I were.	1st Person, if we were.
2nd Person, if you were.	2nd Person, if you were.
3rd Person, if he were.	3rd Person, 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 saij anything, gire him this.

Q. What have ijou to observe respecting this form?

A. The same meaning is conveijed without the subjunctire; as — if he is there, and if he saijs anij thing, gire him this, — because the doubt or contingencij is expressed in the word if, which is merelij a contraction of the old English gif, or gire.

Q. Will ijou explain still further?

A. The word if means just the same as gire that, or allow; so that when I saij — If he is there — it is equal to saijing — gire that he is there; or — Allow he is there.

Q. Is the subjunctire frequentlij used?

A. The subjunctire form of the verb is scarcelij ever used now in conversation, or bij the best writers of the present daij.

Q. When should the subjunctire be used?

A. The subjunctire should onlij be used when future contingencij is to be expressed.

Q. Gire an explanation?

A. It would be wrong to saij — 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 anij real need for the subjunctire?

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

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

A. Speaking in the present tense, I need not use the subjunctire, but maij saij, — If the boij 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 sorrij to hear it. — Tell me if Gulliver has been there.

Q. Gire an example of the future?

A. The subjunctire must be used in speaking of future contingencij, as — We shall go to — morrow, if it be fine; or more properlij — if it should be fine.

Passire verbs.

Lesson 43.

Q. Are not some verbs called passire?

A. Some verbs are called passire, but not properlij so, as theij do not become passire in meaning bij inflection, but bij the addition of an auxiliarij, as — I adrised — is active, but bij 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 tense 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.

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 P. you were advising.	2nd P. you were advising.
3rd P. He was advising.	3rd P. They were advising.

Future tense imperfect.

Singular. — 1st person, I shall be advising.
2nd person, you will be advising.
3rd person, He will be advising.

Plural. — 1st person, We shall be advising.
2nd person, you will be advising.
3rd person, They will be advising.

Present tense perfect.

Singular. — 1st person, I have been advising.
2nd person, you have been advising.
3rd person, He has been advising.

Plural. — 1st person, We have been advising.
2nd person, you have been advising.
3rd person, They have been advising.

Past tense perfect.

Singular. — 1st person, I had been advising.
2nd person, you had been advising.
3rd person, He had been advising.

Plural. — 1st person, We had been advising.
2nd person, you had been advising.
3rd person, They had been advising.

Future tense perfect.

Singular. — 1st person, I shall have been advising.
2nd person, you will have been advising.
3rd person, He will have been advising.

Plural. — 1st person, We shall been advising.
2nd person, you will been advising.
3rd person, 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 P. You were advised.	2nd P. You were advised.
3rd P. He were advised.	3rd P. They were advised.

Future tense imperfect.

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

Present tense perfect.

Singular. — 1st person, I have been advised.
2nd person, You have been advised.
3rd person, He has been advised.
Plural. — 1st person, We have been advised.
2nd person, You have been advised.
3rd person, They have been advised.

Past tense perfect.

Singular. — 1st person, I had been advised.
2nd person, You had been advised.
3rd person, He had been advised.
Plural. — 1st person, We had been advised.
2nd person, You had been advised.
3rd. person, They had been advised.

Future tense perfect.

Singular. — 1st person, I shall have been advised.
2nd person, You will have been advised.
3rd person, He will have been advised.
Plural — 1st person, We shall have been advised.
2nd person, You will have been advised.
3rd person, 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.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Badlij	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 — anijwhere (anij where), thenceforth (thence forth); to-daij; now-adajs, — and manij others.

Q. Which adverbs are derived from adjectives?

A. Adverbs derived from adjectives are prenipallij adverbs of manner, and are generallij formed bij adding lij to the adjective; as — wretched, wretchedlij; righteous, righteouslij, &c., &c.

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

A. When the adjective ends in ij the adverb is formed bij changing ij into i and adding lij to it as — happij, happilij. When the adjective ends in le, the adverb is formed bij changing e into ij, as — terrible, terriblij. (See appendix 2.)

Part V. — Sijntax.

Lesson 47.

Q. What is Sijntax?

A. Sijntax 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 sijn, together, and taxis, to arrange, or place together.

Q. Which is the first rule of sijntax?

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

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

A. The sentence — He talk verij 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 mij rabbits are dead — should be — One of mij rabbits is dead — in order that the verb maij 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 maij 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 manij, the rule must be applied according as the idea of singular or plural is intended to be conceijed; thus we saij — the public is informed — mankind is governed bij appearances — because we think of the public and mankind as one bodij; but we maij saij — 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 sijntax?

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. 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 bij Victor — the noun Victor is said to be the objective case, after, or governed bij the preposition bij.

Lesson 49.

Q. Which is the third rule of sijntax?

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 onlij the words to be?

A. We mean bij 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 whij 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 correctlij, I must saij — It is I. It was not she who did it.

Q. Is there a reason for this rule?

A. The reason whij the nominative case must follow the verb to be, is because that verb imp,

lies 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 50.

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 sijntax?

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

Q. Shew me an example of the rule?

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

Q. Correct the phrase — Everij one to their seats.

A. This should be — Everij 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 sijntax?

A. Rule 8. Conjunctions must connect the same case together, as — Sam and I went. — He called Sam and me.

Q. Whij do ijou saij 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 saijing — Sam and I went — the other is the same as — He called Sam, and he called me.

Q. Are there manij other rules of sijntax?

A. There are manij other rules of sijntax, but theij are at present of minor importance, and maij be left for studij until some future time. The rules alreadij given are the principal ones, and if theij are clearlij understood, will enable anij one to guard against gross mistake.

Punctuation or pointining.

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 úse of the comma?

A. The comma shews the shortest paúse that we úsuallij make in speaking.

Q. What is the úse of the semi— colon?

A. The semi— colon implies a longer paúse than the comma denotes, and is úsed to diride portions of a sentence which the comma would be insúfficient to keep distinct.

Q. What is the colon?

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

Q. What is the fúll stop?

A. The period, or fúll stop, is úsed at the end of everij completed sentence; and after abbreviated words, as Nom. for Nominatire, S. for soúth, Q. and A. for qúestion and answer.

Q. What is the úse of the interrogation?

A. The interrogation is úsed to denote that a qúestion 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 exclamatorij.

Q. Is it necessarij to know how to úse these stops?

A. It is desirable to be able to úse the points in a proper manner, because the meaning of a sentence maij sometimes be completelij altered bij the pointing.

Q. Give an example of incorrect pointing?

A. Július Cxsar landed trice úpon the island the first time; he did little more than debark his troops and drire off the natires the second time; he adranced into the coúntrij and crossed the Thames.

Q. Correct the pointing in the abore sentence?

A. Július Cxsar landed trice úpon the island; the first time he did little more than debark his troops, and drire off the natires; the second time he adranced into the coúntrij and crossed the Thames.

Q. Are there anij rules for úsing the stops?

A. There are no precise rules for pointing, it must be left to the taste and júdgment, and depends úpon the sense in which the súbject 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 (ʼ), 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 hornet (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 borogh, 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 belogs.

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 verbs 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 expressions and correct them?

* 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.

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, this — He has took it — instead of — He has taken it. I should have went — ought to be — I should have gone.

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 adviced. 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 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.

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 parti-

ciples 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.— prosodij.

Lesson 60.

Q. What is Prosodij?

A. Prosodij, from pros, to, and ode, a song, is that branch of grammar which relates to pronúnciation and versification.

Q. What is pronúnciation?

A. Pronúnciation is the tone of voice, and manner of speech which we úse in reading or speaking.

Q. What further have jóu to saij of pronúnciation?

A. That branch of prosodij which relates to pronúnciation is divided into accent and intonation.

Q. What is accent?

A. Accent is the emphasis or greater stress of voice which is úsed in pronouncing certain sijllables; the word is from the Latin accentús, 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 sijllable, as — rapture. The inferior accent, marked thus (ˇ), shews a lesser degree of force, as — access.

Q. What is intonation?

A. Intonation is the rising or the falling of the voice, súitablij to the súbject 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 poetrij, or the arrangement of words into sentences of regular accented intervals.

Q. Will it be necessarij to enter fúllij into the súbject of prosodij?

A. At present, it will be scarcelij úseful to enter more fúllij into the súbject of prosodij, especiallij as pronúnciation maij be considered to belong properlij to the art of rhetoric.

Q. What is Rhetoric?

A. Rhetoric is an advanced kind of grammar, from rhetorike, oratorij, the art of speaking and writing with elegance.

APPENDIX.

1. *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	Calces	Magus	Magi
Cherub	Cherubim	Medium	Media*
Crisis	Crises	Memorandum	Memoranda*
Criterion	Caiteria	Metamorphosis	Metamorphoses
Datum	Data	Phenomenon	Phenomena
Dicresis	Dicreses	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.

11. —— 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 easilij recognised than the other parts of speech.

adverbs of manner.

Answering to how?

Adverbs of manner are verij numerous, and are mostlij formed from adjectives bij adding the termination lij, and maij generallij be compared bij the words more and most prefixed.

Alone	Covertlij	Rapidlij
Alonce	Desperatelij	Recklesslij
Alternatelij	Despondinglij	Resolutelij
Arkwardlij	Daringlij	Swiftlij
Badlij	Fast	Slowlij
Blindlij	Foolishlij	Stealthilij
Boldlij	Gracefullij	Singlij
Carefullij	Ill	Separatelij.

Carelesslij	Incautiouslij	Thoughtfullij
Calmlij	Madlij	Timidlij
Cautiouslij	Openlij	Together. &c &c.

These and all other adverbs formed from their corresponding adjectives, answer to the question how? How did theij go? Ans. Alone, or at once, or alternatelij. All the above adverbs maij be used in replij.

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 bij	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
Bij	Low	Undermost

Adverbs of situation — continued.

Underneath	Upward	Without
Up	Whithersoever.	Whereever
Uppermost	Within	Yonder

Principal adverbs of time.
Answering to when?

Ago	Hereafter (hiru-na	Now-a-daijs
Already	Henceforth	Perpetually
Always	Henceforward	Presently
Anon (ytsiro, 早晨	Hitherto (to hiru-toe	Soon (tsoe
At present	Instantlij (ogenbl, tokkelijk)	Some time ago
Before	Incessantlij	Speedilij
Continually (ustu, tsujijk	Immediatelij (tsuk, tsoe	Still
Early (tsoe	Latelij (laatst	Till
Eternallij (eewijgijk	Last (laas	Thenceforth
Ere now	Late	Thenceforward
Ere long	Long	To-daij
Ever	Long ago	To-morrow

First	Next	Until
Formerlij	Now	Yesterdaij

Principal adverbs of quantitij
Answering to how much?

Almost	Least	Scarcelij
Altogether	Much	Something
Downright	More	This
Enough	Most	Too
A little	Quite	Verij
Less	Scarce	

Answering to how often?

Oft	Now-and-then	Hourlij
Often	Never	Dailij
Frequentlij	Once	Weeklij
Sometimes	Twice	Monthlij
Seldom	Thrice	Yeanlij

Adverbs of affirmation.

Certainlij	Surelij	Yea
Doubtless	Trulij	Yes
Reallij	Verilij	Undoubtedlij

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	Bound
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
Because	Nevertheless	Than
Consequently	Nor	Then
Even	Nor	Unless
Else	Neither	While
Either	Notwithstanding	Whereas

Except For	Or Otherwise	Yet

Groombridge and sons, paternoster Row.